SELF-CONCEPTS AND WORK VALUES OF CETA CLERICAL PARTICIPANTS IN SOUTHWESTERN VIRGINIA

by

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Dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Vocational and Technical Education

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April, 1981

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer would like to recognize and to express her appreciation to the following persons who contributed to the completion of her dissertation.

My son, , and my daughter, , sacrificed much and demonstrated a maturity far exceeding their years. Their understanding and love made my educational endeavors worthwhile. My mother and father, and , have loved, encouraged, and generously supported me at all times throughout the duration of this study.

The committee members who helped me bring this study to fruition deserve special recognition. Dr. Samuel D. Morgan who served as chairman of my committee was a mentor in the truest sense of the word. His wise counsel, encouragement, and caring for people are unsurpassed.

Dr. Patricia D. Poplin was a personal friend, a confidant, a professional colleague, an advisor, and a committee member. Her scholarly insight and friendship were invaluable in the completion of this study.

Dr. J. Dale Oliver has made a dual contribution to the writer's dissertation and professional career as a committee member and as an advisor for the V-TECS Project where the writer serves as research associate. His scholarship and positive approach to life are to be emulated.
Dr. Robert L. McGough was co-chairman of the writer's committee and offered thought-provoking insights into the completion of this study.

Dr. Clifton D. Bryant complemented the committee with his expertise in occupational sociology and made an invaluable contribution to this study.

The writer also wishes to recognize Dr. Walter L. Shell for his serving as the writer's advisor during the early stages of her doctoral program and for his assistance in editing this document.

And lastly, the writer would be remiss if she did not acknowledge the unique contribution and influence upon her life of , her high school English teacher who was an atypical role model in the mountain culture in which the writer was reared.
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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Federal legislation addressing the vocational education needs of American youth was initiated with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. During the next 60 years, additional legislation vastly expanded the role and scope of vocational education and its delivery systems in response to the complex needs of society. However, the societal issues and economic pressures of the 1950's and 1960's brought about an increased national awareness of a need to provide for an alternative delivery system of occupational education focusing on unemployed and underemployed persons with special needs. Over the past 20 years such a system has evolved through a series of legislative acts. This delivery system conceptualizes and formalizes a model involving both institutional, on-the-job and public service employment training, work experience, and other supported work and training programs.

The occupational training provided by this alternative delivery system is conducted through program activities funded by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). These federal programs, commonly known as Employment and Training programs, have an impact in the training and retraining of youth and adults with special needs. In October 1978, Congress extended CETA legislation for an additional four years with increased appropriations totaling 11 billion dollars annually.
Employment and Training program activities "include the development and creation of training, upgrading, retraining, education, and other services needed to enable individuals to secure and retain employment" (PL 95-524, 1978, p. 1950). Employment and Training program activities are administered through prime sponsors, which are local or regional governmental units. Prime sponsors may administer activities such as the following: job search assistance; outreach; supported work programs; education and institutional skill training; on-the-job training; work experience programs; supportive services including but not limited to health care, child care, residential support, assistance in securing bail bonds, and transportation; part-time, flexitime, and other alternative working arrangements; counseling; literacy training and bilingual training; attainment of certificates of high school equivalency; programs to overcome sex-stereotyping in job development and placement; innovative cooperative education programs; technical assistance to private employers; and dissemination of information to private employers so that they may more fully utilize programs under CETA (PL 95-524, 1978). Participation in Employment and Training programs is reserved for individuals who meet specific federal criteria for economic disadvantaged, underemployment, or unemployment.

**History of Employment and Training**

The Employment and Training programs under the current CETA have their roots in federal manpower legislation enacted during the sixties when social legislation was in vogue. The Area Redevelopment
Act (ARA) of 1961 (PL 87-27), the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962 (PL 87-415), the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) of 1964 (PL 88-452), and the Emergency Employment Act (EEA) of 1971 (PL 92-54), all contributed some elements to CETA in 1973.

Social legislation, focusing on manpower training, represented a new policy direction for the federal government. The ARA of 1961 was one of the first significant pieces of manpower legislation. It had as "its target . . . unemployment concentrated in depressed areas, and its intent was to attract industry and jobs to those areas" (Levitan & Mangum, 1969, p. 10). This legislation was significant because prior to its passage in 1961, the federal government had not been concerned with attempting to meet the employment needs of disadvantaged persons in specific geographic locations.

The second major manpower program to be enacted was the MDTA of 1962. This act focused on retraining experienced workers displaced by the effects of technological and structural changes in the nation's economy (Mangum & Walsh, 1973; Mangum, 1967). Amendments to the MDTA in 1963, 1965, and 1967 shifted the original intent of retraining experienced workers to an emphasis upon training programs for the disadvantaged, minorities, and youth (Mangum, 1968).

A third significant piece of manpower legislation was the EOA of 1964. Through this act, the Office of Economic Opportunity was created which fostered the development of community action programs. These categorical programs provided a wide range of services to the poor and disadvantaged and were designed to eliminate some of the
social, political, and economic barriers to full participation in the labor market.

National manpower policy was expanded and redirected a fourth time with the passage of the EEA of 1971. This act subsidized state and local public service jobs and was designed to put unemployed people on jobs.

The patchwork approach generated by these categorical manpower programs often overlapped and competed for the same clientele. "None of the problems had disappeared or even been noticeably reduced, despite the investment in time, effort, and funds" (Mangum & Walsh, p. 15). There was gradual but growing disillusionment with the results of the social reforms that had been attempted through these manpower programs (Mirengoff & Rindler, 1976).

A reform manpower bill was agreed upon by the Congress, and the resulting legislation was the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973. CETA was described as a decentralized, decategorized manpower program and was a major shift in the method of delivering manpower services and human resource programs (Mirengoff & Rindler). CETA legislation allowed decisions about the kinds of Employment and Training programs, how funds were to be allocated, who was to be served what types of delivery systems were needed, and related matters to be made at state and local levels by CETA program operators within the confines of CETA legislation. Earlier categorical manpower legislation had provided services through a more centralized delivery system.

CETA (PL 93-203), which was enacted December 28, 1973, has been amended four times (PL 93-567, 1974; PL 94-444, 1976; PL 95-93, 1977; &
PL 95-524). "It is the purpose of this Act to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed or underemployed persons which will result in an increase in their earned income, and to assure that training and other services lead to maximum employment opportunities and enhance self-sufficiency by establishing a flexible, coordinated, and decentralized system of Federal, State, and local programs" (PL 95-524, p. 1912).

The Employment and Training Administration within the Department of Labor administers CETA. CETA consists of eight titles; six titles provide training and employment services, with the remaining titles pertaining to the administrative provisions of the act and the provision for the National Commission for Employment Policy.

**Need for the Study**

Research and evaluation activities are fundamental to the purpose of CETA. Part B, Title III of CETA states, "The Secretary shall establish a comprehensive program of employment and training research" (PL 95-524, p. 1968). The importance of evaluation was also emphasized in the CETA amendments of 1976 (PL 94-444), which stated that "the formulation of public policies to promote the most effective use of our human resources is hindered by inadequate information on the utilization and effect of education and training programs" (PL 94-444, p. 1484).

A literature review revealed that the outcomes of manpower and Employment and Training programs have been measured and evaluated. It appears that research and evaluation activities have traditionally been
measurements of economic outcomes, such as hourly and/or annual wage rates and job placement rates. Perry (1975) reviewed over 200 studies pertaining to manpower program outcomes and noted that "only seventeen contained any information pertaining to program effects other than impact upon employment and earnings" (pp. 83-4).

Perry noted that "among the studies for which data are available, the treatment of noneconomic benefits is uneven and incomplete" (p. 84). For example, studies that contain data about noneconomic benefits rarely contain more than one type of noneconomic variable and almost always point to a small number of program participants at any one point in time. Data pertaining to the noneconomic impact on minority and women participants are often available only by inference from the race and sex composition of program enrollments (Perry).

A void also exists in the literature pertaining to research in which noneconomic outcomes of different manpower and/or Employment and Training programs are studied. A study that is especially germane to the present study was completed by Morgan (1973). In her research, Morgan examined the effect of Manpower Development Training upon attitude changes of participants in a human resources development class compared with those enrolled in a technical skill development program. The resultsof her study revealed that "neither training approach . . . had a statistically significant effect on attitude changes toward work and self-concept of the participants" (p. 69). Perry summarized the state of the art by concluding there is "very little evidence of any type to permit an analysis of the impact of different types of manpower programs on noneconomic benefits" (p. 84).
The need for comparative research and evaluations about different manpower training delivery systems has been documented in the literature. In A Decade of Manpower Development and Training, Mangum and Walsh stated, "the most critical issue for a remedial training program is who can profit most from what kind of training under which condition" (p. 125). They added, "there is an obvious need to clarify the relative advantages of institutional training and OJT and to disseminate guidelines for choice between them as effective training techniques" (p. 138). Perry found in his research, The Impact of Government Manpower Programs, that "the value of economic benefits generated by different programs declines as the program moves from a relative emphasis on skill training toward an emphasis on work experience" (p. 140). Perry's assessment was based upon a review of the following manpower training programs: MDTA, Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS), apprenticeship outreach programs, public employment programs, Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC), Concentrated Employment Programs (CEP), Work Incentive Programs (WIN), Job Corps, Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC), and Operation Mainstream.

The need for studying noneconomic outcomes derived from participation in manpower training programs has been noted in the literature. According to Tiffany, Cowan, and Tiffany (1970), there is a need to deal with psychological attitudes as much or more than technical skill acquisition. "It is not skill problems that these individuals must overcome but problems of personal adjustment" (p. 106). O'Leary (1972) stated that "training aimed at resocialization without consideration of the nature of the job and the characteristics of the target
population may be ineffective and even detrimental" (p. 494). Perry concluded in *The Impact of Government Manpower Programs* that "non-economic benefits may be among the most important effects of manpower programs" (p. 98).

In summary, many of the measurements of Employment and Training program outcomes involve analyses of economic data. Noticeably missing in the literature is comparative research about noneconomic outcomes generated by participation in different Employment and Training programs.

**Statement of the Problem**

The specific problem in this study was to determine which Employment and Training program activity in Regional Operations Center 1 (ROC 1), i.e., Group 1 or Group 2, produced the greater change in participants' self-concepts and work values. This study also focused upon two related subproblems. One subproblem dealt with examining the relationship between selected demographic variables and change in self-concepts and work values in Groups 1 and 2. A second subproblem dealt with determining which subgroup, i.e., 2A or 2B, produced the greater change in participants' self-concepts and work values.

**Purpose of the Study**

This study was designed to answer questions pertaining to a comparison of changes in self-concepts and work values of Employment and Training participants in Group 1 and Group 2 (questions 1-3).
Question 4 focused upon a comparison of the changes in self-concepts and work values in Subgroup 2A and Subgroup 2B. Questions 5-14 focused upon the relationship between selected demographic variables and change in self-concepts and work values in Groups 1 and 2.

1. Was there a change in self-concepts and work values of participants in Group 1?

2. Was there a change in self-concepts and work values of participants in Group 2?

3. Was there a difference in the pre- and posttest mean scores in self-concepts and work values of Group 1 participants as compared with Group 2 participants?

4. Was there a difference in the pre- and posttest mean scores in self-concepts and work values of the two subgroups comprising Group 2 (2A and 2B)?

5. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to age?

6. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to age?

7. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to marital status?

8. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to marital status?

9. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to educational level?

10. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to educational level?
11. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to type of occupational experience?

12. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to type of occupational experience?

13. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to length of unemployment?

14. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to length of unemployment?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical notion underlying this study involves the outcomes of structured versus nonstructured occupational education delivery systems. Specifically, this theory was explored in a study involving two groups of Employment and Training participants in ROC 1 in southwestern Virginia. Group 1, designated as the nonstructured occupational education system, was composed of Employment and Training public service employment and work experience participants. Group 2, representing the structured system, was composed of Employment and Training skill center participants. Outcomes in this study of structured versus nonstructured occupational education delivery systems were defined as self-concepts and work values scores. It was theorized that the self-concepts and work values scores of Group 1 participants would be different from the self-concepts and work values scores of Group 2 participants. Further, it was theorized that differences in
self-concepts and work values scores would be associated with differences in selected demographic variables. The following discussion expands upon this theory.

For most individuals, work has traditionally served as more than an economic function; it has also served as a means of social identification. That is, work provides a setting in which an individual's work identity may be expressed. "One's self-concept, work self-concept, and interpersonal relations are all inextricably woven together in a person's actualization of his work identity" (Tiffany, et al., p. 62). Jobs that provide experiences paralleling the needs, abilities, values, and interests of an individual confirm the work identity of that person. Generally, when an individual has not worked at jobs that confirm his/her interests, values, abilities, and needs; or when there is a distortion of one's abilities, worth, and needs; or when the perception of the work situation is distorted, the work identity of the individual is affected (Tiffany et al.).

This study focused upon unemployed, underemployed, and disadvantaged subjects who had generally met with numerous negative experiences in the development of a work identity. The literature suggests that these individuals may, in many instances, have poor self-concepts and may experience feelings of inferiority and helplessness because of their occupational failures and status. Although the literature is not conclusive, certain demographic variables may be linked with an individual's self-concept and work values and may affect the development of the individual's work identity.
One of the major thrusts of federal programs to serve the training and occupational needs of unemployed, underemployed, and disadvantaged adults is vested in CETA. Specific CETA program activities included in this study were Employment and Training skill center (institutional) training, public service employment, and work experience programs. Skill center training programs consist of highly structured occupational training coupled with learning activities focused on interpersonal relations and work habits. Public service employment and work experience programs have minimal structured occupational training and emphasize getting individuals into the job market into subsidized jobs with the ultimate objective of unsubsidized employment.

At the heart of this theory is the premise that providing subsidized employment with minimal structured occupational training for individuals does not address the basic underlying causes of the unemployment, underemployment, or disadvantage of the individual. Rather, the researcher theorizes that structured occupational training provided by educational settings such as skill centers offers greater opportunity for individuals to develop an enhanced work identity, which by definition in this case is self-concept and work values. The result of an enhanced work identity should contribute to long-term employability of the individual. It is theorized that merely providing an individual with a short-term subsidized job temporarily alleviates the symptoms (unemployment, underemployment, and disadvantage) without attacking the basic causes of the problem, i.e., the enhancement and development of a work identity compatible with the individual's values, interests, needs, abilities, and self-concept.
Definition of Terms

The following terms that are relevant to this study have been defined for purposes of clarification:

Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 (PL 87-27) - "an Act to establish an effective program to alleviate conditions of substantial and persistent unemployment and underemployment in certain economically distressed areas" (U.S. Statutes at Large, 1961, p. 47).

Balance of State - "the area within the jurisdiction of a State, as a prime sponsor or eligible applicant, which is not included in the comprehensive manpower plan of another prime sponsor or eligible applicant" (Federal Register, 1977, p. 55730).

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) (PL 93-203), PL 93-567, PL 94-444, PL 95-93, PL 95-524) - an "Act to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed, or underemployed persons which will result in an increase in their earned income, and to assure that training and other services lead to maximum employment opportunities and enhance self-sufficiency by establishing a flexible, coordinated, and decentralized system of Federal, State, and local programs" (PL 95-524, p. 1912).

Control variable - variables that "need to be controlled, held constant, or randomized so that their effects are neutralized, cancelled out, or equated for all conditions. Typically included are such factors as age, sex, IQ, SES (socio-economic status), educational level, and motivational level; it is often possible to redefine these particular examples as either independent or dependent variables, according to the
intent of the research" (Isaac & Michael, 1971, p. 16).

**Economic Opportunity Act of 1964** - "an Act to mobilize the human and financial resources of the Nation to combat poverty in the United States" (U.S. Statutes at Large, 1964, p. 508).

**Economically disadvantaged** - "a person who (A) receives, or is a member of a family which (i) receives cash welfare payments under a Federal, State, or local welfare program, or (ii) had a family income during the 6-month period prior to application for the program involved which would have qualified such family for such cash welfare payments . . . ; (B) has, or is a member of a family which has, received a total family income for the 6-month period prior to application for the program involved . . . which, in relation to family size, was not in excess of the higher of (i) the poverty level . . . , or (ii) 70 percent of the lower living standard income level; (C) is a foster child . . . ; (D) . . . is a handicapped individual . . . ." (PL 95-524, pp. 1913-4).

**Employment and Training Skill Center** - a multi-occupational training facility funded by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Employment and Training skill center replaced the term **manpower skill center**.

**Group 1** - subjects in this study who participated in Employment and Training public service employment and work experience clerical programs.

**Group 2** - subjects in this study who participated in Employment and Training skill center clerical programs.
Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) (PL 87-415) - an "Act to require the Federal Government to appraise the manpower requirements and resources of the Nation, and to develop and apply the information and methods needed to deal with the problems of unemployment resulting from automation and technological changes and other types of persistent unemployment" (U.S. Statutes at Large, 1962, p. 29).

Manpower Skill Center - a multi-occupational training center established under MDTA, which met the following criteria: (a) operation in a defined service area; (b) maintenance of an operation level of not less than 160 slots; (c) provision of training during prime time hours; (d) provision for a variety of occupational offerings, basic education, employment counseling, personal counseling, job development and placement, and followup; (e) provision of prevocational experience, access to child care, assistance with housing and transportation, and other supportive services; and (f) provision for separate identifiable administrative entities (Mangum & Walsh).

Open-entry/open-exit - "an approach to programming which provides the flexibility needed for the development of timely, individualized programs designed around the needs of the student, with provisions for completion of training either at some level of specialized readiness (consistent with the student's capabilities, aptitudes, and circumstances) determined through assessment, or the attainment of a level reflecting his occupational objective" (McGough, 1969, p. 1).

Outreach - activities "to make persons aware of the availability of manpower services and persuade them to use such services" (PL 93-203, 1973, p. 2).
Participant - "an individual who is eligible for and takes part in activities under provisions of the Act or receives services funded under the Act, except for an individual who receives only outreach and intake services" (Federal Register, 1977, p. 55731).

Placement - "the hiring into unsubsidized employment by an employer of an individual referred by the prime sponsor . . . for a job" (Federal Register, p. 55731).

Prime sponsor - a unit of government, or combination of units of government, with a population of 100,000 or more, that has entered into a plan with the Department of Labor to provide comprehensive manpower services under CETA.

Public service job - "includes work, including parttime work, in such fields as environmental quality, health care, education, child care, public safety, crime prevention and control, prisoner rehabilitation, transportation, recreation, maintenance of parks, streets, and other public facilities, solid waste removal, pollution control, housing and neighborhood improvements, rural development, conservation, beautification, veterans outreach, and other fields of human betterment and community improvement" (PL 95-524, p. 1915). Public service jobs are "funded with assistance provided under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973" (PL 94-444, p. 1482).

Self-concept - "the attitudes and feelings that a person has regarding himself" (Fink, 1962, p. 58).

Spinoff - completion of Employment and Training programs at various skill levels of an occupation.
**Subgroup 2A** - subjects who participated in clerical Employment and Training programs at the Wise County Skill Center.

**Subgroup 2B** - subjects who participated in clerical Employment and Training programs at the Washington County Skill Center.

**Supportive services** - "services which are designed to contribute to the employability of participants, enhance their employment opportunities, assist them in retaining employment and facilitate their movement into permanent employment not subsidized under the Act. Supportive services may include health care, transportation, temporary shelter, child care, and financial counseling assistance" (PL 95-524, pp. 1915-6).

**Tennessee Self Concept Scale** - a self-administering standardized scale that yields an overall description of the self-concept of an individual.

**Underemployed persons** - "(A) persons who are working parttime but seeking fulltime work; or (B) persons who are working fulltime but receiving wages not in excess of either (i) the poverty level determined in accordance with criteria as established by the Director of the Office of Management and Budget; or (ii) 70 percent of the lower living standard income level" (PL 95-524, p. 1916).

**Unemployed persons** - "persons who are without jobs and who want and are available for work" (PL 95-524, p. 1916).

**Work identity** - the coordination of one's self-concept and work self-concept with work that fulfills those perceptions of self (Tiffany et al.).
**Work values** - "a set of concepts which mediate between the person's affective orientation and classes of external objects offering similar satisfactions" (Zytowski, 1970, p. 176).

**Work Values Inventory** - an inventory of 45 items, each descriptive of a particular value referring to work and jobs.

**Rationale for Selection of Variables**

What are the social and psychological factors associated with a work identity? What is the process by which one's work identity is enhanced or actualized? These questions were related to the framework upon which this study was conceptualized and contributed to the selection of the variables.

Values, interests, self-concept, abilities, and needs are associated with a work identity. Work and jobs provide the medium by which a work identity may be actualized. The literature suggests that although work can enhance and clarify one's work identity, it may also distort one's work identity (Tiffany et al.).

Noneconomic outcomes of different Employment and Training program activities became the focus of this research in an attempt to clarify which type of alternative training better supported the actualization of a work identity. Group 1 and Group 2 were identified as the independent variable of the study and were contrasting examples of structured and nonstructured occupational training programs for the disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed.

To determine the impact associated with participation in the different Employment and Training programs, social and psychological
factors, self-concept and work values, were selected, representing the dependent variables in the study. Support for studying these variables was found in the literature. Purkey (1970) noted in Self Concept and School Achievement, "for generations, wise teachers have sensed the significant and positive relationship between a student's concept of himself and his performance in school. They believed that the students who feel good about themselves and their abilities are the ones most likely to succeed" (p. 14). Gillman (1969) saw the development of positive self-concepts as a "major objective of every educational program concerned with the development of productive citizens" (p. 288-A).

A second social and psychological factor that is closely connected with, and a part of, one's perception of self, is a hierarchy of values. Support for this interrelationship was noted in the literature. Zytowski, Ginzberg et al. (1951), Gribbons and Lohnes (1965), and Super (Zytowski, 1968) have examined the relationship of work values and occupational choice, job satisfactions, and interests. Ginzberg et al. concluded that "the foundation for an effective occupational choice must lie in the values and goals of an individual" (p. 246). Super theorized that "work satisfactions . . . depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits, and values" (Zytowski, p. 128). Gribbons and Lohnes believed "that the value categories favored by adolescents . . . reveal aspects of their self-concept systems which are crucial in determining occupational preferences" (p. 251).

In addition to the major focus of this study about noneconomic outcomes derived from participation in different Employment and Training
programs, two related research areas were identified. One question was related to noneconomic outcomes generated from participation in different structured learning situations. That is, were the self-concepts and work values of the participants in Subgroups 2A and 2B different? A second question identified in this research effort dealt with examining selected demographic (control) variables and self-concepts and work values. The inclusion of these demographic variables is supported by the literature review in Chapter 2.

Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted within the framework of the following limitations:

1. Subjects were self-selected for this study. That is, it was not possible to select and assign subjects randomly to Group 1 and Group 2.

2. The time lapse between pre- and posttests was not consistent for the subjects in this study because of flexibility of open-entry/open-exit programming available to participants.

Source of Data

The subjects for this study were drawn from Employment and Training skill centers, public service employment programs, and work experience programs in ROC 1 of the Balance of State in the Commonwealth of Virginia. Skill centers in ROC 1 included the Washington County Skill Center, Abingdon, Virginia, and the Wise County Skill Center, Wise, Virginia. Public service employment and work experience
participants were drawn from programs operating in counties and cities in ROC 1. More specific information pertaining to the subjects of this study is presented in Chapter 3.

Description of Regional Operations Center 1 (ROC 1)

CETA ROC 1 is one of five regional designations in the Balance of State in the Commonwealth of Virginia. ROC 1 is located in southwestern Virginia and is divided into three planning districts. Area Manpower Planning District 1 (AMPC 1) is composed of Lee, Scott, and Wise counties and the city of Norton. Area Manpower Planning District 2 (AMPC 2) is composed of Buchanan, Dickenson, Russell, and Tazewell counties. Area Manpower Planning District 3 (AMPC 3) is composed of Bland, Carroll, Grayson, Smyth, Washington, and Wythe counties and the cities of Bristol and Galax.

Administration

Each planning district is guided by an Area Manpower Planning Council. This council, comprised of public and private agencies in the designated district, develops a comprehensive plan for the delivery of manpower services throughout the area. Responsibility for coordination of all planning district activities in ROC 1 is vested in the office of an executive director.

Geography

ROC 1, bordered by West Virginia to the north, Kentucky to the west, and Tennessee and North Carolina to the south, is located in the Appalachian Highlands of southwestern Virginia. The terrain ranges from
gently rolling plateaus to sharply rising ridges divided by small streams. Two of the major transportation routes, Highway 11 and Interstate 81, follow the Wilderness Trail, the early gateway to the West.

Economy

The economy in ROC 1 is closely identified with the geographic contours of the region. Areas in ROC 1 that are favorable to agriculture and cattle production have economies built upon these resources. Areas that have more rugged terrain have economies related to abundant natural resources of timber, coal, and natural gas.

Population

The population of ROC 1 is 407,200, which includes 7,879 non-white males and females. AMPC 1 has a population of 102,800; AMPC 2 has a population of 130,900; and AMPC 3 has a population of 173,500. The eligible CETA population for AMPC 1 is 28,181; for AMPC 2, 27,834; and for AMPC 3, 28,200, making an eligible CETA population of 84,215 individuals in ROC 1 (Stone Mountain Manpower Planning Council, 1979; Area Manpower Planning Council 2, 1979; & Area Manpower Planning Council 3, 1979).

Description of CETA Programs

Work Experience (Title II-B)

"This program is designed to provide part-time and short-term employment for the chronically unemployed, retired persons, recently discharged military individuals, handicapped, institutional residents,
inmates, and others who recently have not been working in the competitive labor force" (Area Manpower Planning Council 3, p. 114).

The adult work experience programs are designed to assist in the removal of traditional barriers to permanent employment. Work sites are selected on the basis of opportunities for skill and attitude development. Many CETA work experience participants have opportunities to secure formal basic education which is designed to improve their employability.

Public Service Employment (Titles II-D and VI)

"The purpose and goal of the Title II-D P.S.E. program and the Title VI P.S.E. program is to provide temporary employment and income maintenance for eligible CETA clients in public service jobs that will directly benefit the community. These jobs involve some training and/or re-training of the CETA participants, thus improving their basic job readiness and employability" (Area Manpower Planning Council 3, pp. 110-111).

Classroom Training (Title II)

Classroom training (skill center) is an "activity designed to provide individuals with the technical skills and information required to perform a specific job or group of jobs in an institutional setting. It may enhance the employability of individuals by upgrading basic skills through provision of courses in remedial education, training in language of persons of limited English speaking ability, and/or English as a second language" (Area Manpower Planning Council 3, p. 119).
Summary

An introduction to the study has been presented in Chapter 1. In this introduction are a definition and history of Employment and Training, the need for the study, the statement of the problem, and the purpose of the study. A theoretical framework, definitions of terms, limitations of the study, a discussion of the source of the data, a description of ROC 1, and a description of the Employment and Training programs relating to this study have also been presented. Chapter 2 contains a review of related research and literature.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

In the United States, work has long occupied a prominent place in the lives of most individuals. It was in the early colonial setting with emphasis upon work for work's sake that the Protestant Work Ethic emerged as a significant part of our heritage. Industriousness, thrift, deferred gratification, and a moral obligation to work were considered virtues in the Protestant Work Ethic.

Work has continued to be an indispensable part of most persons' lives. Not only has it served an economic function in the lives of individuals, but it has served as a means of social identification as well. Work has also been a process that assists an individual in achieving actualization of a work identity, which is, in part, derived through expression of one's self-concept and work values.

The underlying theoretical framework for this study relates to the development of an individual's work identity. A review of related research and literature germane to this theory and the proposed study is presented in this chapter. The literature presentation is divided into two major parts: literature pertaining to self-concept and literature pertaining to work values.

Review of Literature Pertaining to Work Values

Literature relating to work values to be reviewed in this section will be organized as follows:
1. Structure of work values

2. Stability of work values

3. Work values and selected demographic variables
   a. Age
   b. Marital status
   c. Employment history
   d. Level or type of occupational experience
   e. Socioeconomic status (disadvantage/advantage)

**Structure of Work Values**

Socialization is a developmental process whereby an individual acquires knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values consistent with the group of which he/she is a member. In recent years, increased attention has been given to the concept of values in general and work values in particular, especially in relation to occupational development.

The term *value* denotes a "principle, standard or quality considered worthwhile or desirable" (Morris, 1976, p. 1415). Values are generally "descriptive either of the internal state of the person (needs) or of the reward or satisfaction available to that internal need" (Zytowski, 1970, p. 176). Schwarzweller (1960) declared, "it is generally agreed that values are social facts which influence the behavior of individuals, and, consequently, the structure and organization of the labor market" (p. 126). Kazanas (1973) examined the concept of values in relation to societal development and concluded that "work and its values have been a major factor in the development of any society and in understanding its resulting culture" (p. 11). Work
values have been defined as "the goals that motivate man to work" (Thomas, 1974, p. 357) and generally appear to be specific values deemed important in one's work. The literature suggests that understanding the value structure of an individual may be useful in clarifying appropriate training.

"It appears to have been Ginzberg who first trichotomized work values into intrinsic, extrinsic, and concomitant types" (Zytowski, p. 181). Ginzberg et al. (1951) discussed the "three distinct, though related types" (p. 217) of satisfactions derived from work as follows:

The first, and most obvious, is the return in the form of monetary rewards and prestige [extrinsic]. Second is the intrinsic satisfactions—the pleasure in a specific activity and in the accomplishment of specific ends. The third element can be designated as concomitant satisfactions, such as those which certain people derive from working in a particular physical environment or with a particular group. (p. 217)

In his review, Zytowski summarized in table form the values named in the Super, Stefflre, and Minnesota Importance Questionnaire inventories. He also listed "the values employed by Rosenberg and Schaffer and the satisfiers and dissatisfiers of Herzberg" (p. 181). The Zytowski table was modified in the LaFitte study (1974) to include the Ginzberg division of intrinsic, extrinsic, and concomitant types. This information is summarized and presented in Table 1.

**Stability of Work Values**

"A topic of concern related to genesis of values systems is that of their stability" (Zytowski, p. 180). Gribbons and Lohnes (1965), Thompson (1966), and Kapes and Strickler (1975) have investigated work values hierarchies of adolescents in an effort to discover what changes,
Table 1

Taxonomy of Work Values*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ginzberg</th>
<th>Super</th>
<th>Herzberg</th>
<th>Rosenberg</th>
<th>MIQ</th>
<th>Stefflre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Secure future</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Status, prestige</td>
<td>Good deal of money</td>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Salary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>Money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>returns</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Concomitant</strong></td>
<td>Surroundings</td>
<td>Working cond.</td>
<td>Work with people</td>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>Comp. policy</td>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Comp. policy and administration</td>
<td>Co-workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>and adm.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Supervision--human</td>
<td>Supervision--human relations</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rel.--peers</td>
<td>rel.--subordinates</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Supervision--technical</td>
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<td></td>
<td>rel.--sup.</td>
<td>rel.--sup.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervision--</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>technical</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Free of supervision</td>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Job freedom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>Work itself</td>
<td>Helpful to others</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Creative, original</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Way of Life</td>
<td>Factors in per. life</td>
<td></td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Self-realization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>Possibility of growth</td>
<td>Use special abilities</td>
<td>Moral values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>stim.</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ability utiliza-</td>
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<td>Variety</td>
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<td>Variety</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adventure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>(LaFitte, 1974, pp. 15-16)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
if any, occurred. The Gribbons and Lohnes study spanned a five-year period and included 111 subjects. From their research they concluded there was little change in the value hierarchies of boys between grades 8 and 12. They also concluded that boys and girls between grades 10 and 12 show more change in work values hierarchies than boys and girls between grades 8 and 10. Thompson, in a study paralleling the Gribbons and Lohnes study, found that occupational or work values did not change significantly between the freshmen and sophomore years in high school.

Kapes and Strickler examined the changes in work values that occur during adolescence between grades 9 and 12. The sample size for the study was 659 students. Both agreement and disagreement were noted when the findings of this research were compared with previous research. In terms of stability, "while work values may be relatively stable in one sense, they are equally unstable in another. That is, they are fairly stable in hierarchy, while unstable in intensity" (Kapes & Strickler, p. 91). Kapes and Strickler went on to define these terms and noted three critical aspects of the valuing process as conceptualized by Katzell.

1. Hierarchy of values refers to most important value, second most important value, etc.

2. Magnitude of values deals with the question of what level of value must be attained to maximally satisfy that value.

3. Intensity refers to what degree of satisfaction is attained if a value is fulfilled. (p. 83)

One of the conclusions drawn by Kapes and Strickler is especially germane to the theory proposed in this study. They stated,
"different educational treatments may cause different changes in work values. Stated another way, different curriculums do appear to make a difference in 'affective outcomes' as well as in skills and knowledges learned" (Kapes & Strickler, p. 91).

The literature review has revealed research supporting both stability and change of work values. The present state of the art can best be summarized by Zytowski. He noted that "Davis and Searle showed that not infrequently values changed to accommodate majors which were originally incongruent" (p. 181). Zytowski went on to say that "Rosenberg found the same change, but the trend to change majors to be consistent with values was stronger" (p. 181).

Work Values and Selected Demographic Variables

Work Values and Age. Literature about the relationship between work values and age was reviewed. Research studies that are related to this phase of the research are presented below.

In a 1974 study, Thursby examined the relationship of age, work values, and success of a group of female trainees in a Work Incentive (WIN) program. One of Thursby's conclusions was that "successful participants were several years older than partially successful and unsuccessful participants" (p. 14).

Other research studies examined the relationship between age and the types of work values, e.g., intrinsic, extrinsic, and concomitant. Wolfe (1969) sampled 1,871 women in an analysis of work values and found that "all women, regardless of their age, placed the greatest emphasis on the mastery-achievement value" (p. 5). Other findings in
the Wolfe study included the following: Older women had the greatest
need for independence; most women rated dominance-recognition low;
younger women had the lowest expectation for work to be interesting,
while older women had the highest expectations; although younger women
placed economic value of work higher than older women, neither age
group rated the economic value of work high; and older women valued
social rewards from work higher than younger women.

Wagman (1965) compared university men's and women's work values
with high school seniors' and adult men's work values. High school
seniors preferred a job that provided security and independence, where-
as university sophomores preferred an interesting job. Adult men were
more concerned with values of security and independence.

In research that has implications for both the relationship of
age and work values and the stability of work values, Hales and Fenner
studied the stability of work values of fifth, eighth, and eleventh
graders in a small Appalachian school system. They concluded that
"children develop values toward the world of work early and, within a
specific cultural setting, these values appear to be relatively similar
for students of different ages" (p. 202).

The literature review of the relationship between work values
and age is summarized as follows:

1. Successful WIN participants were several years older than
partially successful or unsuccessful participants.

2. Differences in work values were noted (intrinsic, extrinsic,
and concomitant) of women of different ages.
3. Fifth-, eighth-, and eleventh-grade Appalachian school children developed work values early and appeared to have relatively similar values.

4. Adult men and high school seniors held similar work values in contrast to university sophomores.

It should be noted that research studies related to the relationship between work values and age of unemployed, underemployed, and disadvantaged subjects is limited.

**Work Values and Marital Status.** Participants in CETA (Employment and Training) clerical programs included individuals who were single, divorced, separated, widowed, or married. The literature that is relevant to this section is limited.

Wolfe examined the relationship of work values and marital status. She noted that "there was a higher degree of similarity between the responses of the single, divorced, separated, and widowed women than the married women who formed a discrete category" (p. 4). Wolfe also found that "all women placed great emphasis on the mastery-achievement value, but married women showed the most intensity" (p. 4). It was interesting to note that married women had less need for work to provide independence than other women.

Six hundred eighty-nine young single college women between the ages of 17 and 22 from a variety of social and economic backgrounds were the subjects of a study by Burnett (1978). Most of the subjects in this study did not equate career success with the amount of money earned, thus de-emphasizing extrinsic rewards of working. In contrast,
a national study involving nearly 5,600 males revealed that "marital status . . . display[ed] little predictive power in explaining differences in work preferences" (Andrisani & Miljus, 1977, p. 28).

In summary, the findings from research about the relationship between work values and marital status have been varied. That is, one study reported work values of married subjects in a discrete category with a similarity of responses from single, divorced, separated, and widowed women noted. In a study involving only males, marital status had limited predictive power in defining work preferences. And in other research, single women de-emphasized extrinsic work values.

Work Values and Employment History. In Individualization of Manpower Services: A Sourcebook of Ideas, Glaser (1975) noted that "the problem of high turnover among disadvantaged workers may be better explained in terms of inadequate preparation for the kinds of rules and behavioral expectations in organizations dominated by middle-class supervisors than in terms of inadequate . . . levels of skills, vocational training, job experience, or education among the disadvantaged" (p. 53). Four studies that are relevant to this section of the literature review are presented in the following discussion.

Searls, Miskimins, and Braucht (1974) examined the work values of three groups of individuals. One group consisted of 23 firstline supervisors who had been employed for 10 years or longer. A second group was composed of 52 hourly wage workers who had been employed for over two years. The third group consisted of chronically unemployed
individuals "selected because of long histories of vocational failure and no recent attempts to find employment" (Searls, Miskimins, & Braucht, p. 94). "The supervisory subjects were shown to differ from the other two groups on the high value they placed on basic work behaviors. The chronically unemployed and worker groups were found not to differ in any measurable way on work values" (p. 93).

Kaplan and Tausky (1972) studied the commitment to work of 275 chronically unemployed persons. Findings from their study are summarized below:

It was found that work was viewed as the legitimate source of sustenance; their commitment to it was as strong as that of employed white- and blue-collar workers who had been investigated in other studies using the same methodological technique. While the economic function of work appears to be paramount among them, there was a marked tendency to prize work for the social function that it provided by conferring respectability on the employed individual. Despite the extreme deprivation which characterized their lives, most accepted the dominant work ethic prevalent in this country and frequently evidenced negative attitudes toward recipients of public assistance and persons who did not want to work. (p. 469)

Hokenson's research findings were similar to Kaplan and Tausky's. In this study of over 800 Work Incentive (WIN) participants, 94 percent of the males and 83 percent of the females answered yes to "'all things considered, do you think it is worthwhile to work?'" (p. 55).

A fourth study that merits inclusion in this literature review reported findings different from those of the previous studies that have been discussed. In 1973, Alfano investigated the work attitudes of employed workers, unemployed individuals (persons actively looking for regular employment), and chronically unemployed individuals (individuals
who, for the most part, were not looking for regular employment). Alfano found "a relationship existed between work attitudes and length of unemployment. The longer an individual was unemployed, the less positive was his attitude toward work" (p. 329).

The relationship between work values and employment history has been studied and reported in the literature. The findings have been varied. One study especially germane to this research found differences in the relationship between work values and the length of unemployment.

**Work Values and Level or Type of Occupational Experience.** Literature pertaining to the relationship between level or type of occupational experience (skilled, unskilled, and semiskilled) and work values of individuals is presented in this section. Drummond, McIntire, and Skaggs (1978) surveyed the work values of workers just starting their career. A total of 202 respondents in unskilled, semiskilled, and skilled jobs and clerical-sales positions completed the Work Values Inventory. Findings from this study were:

There appear to be few differences in values of workers by job level. When such differences are found, they are on intrinsic, rather than extrinsic values. Skilled workers placed more value on intellectual stimulation and independence than workers in any other group. The viewing of prestige as a high value by unskilled female workers may indicate work itself as having status and relate to the changing roles and attitudes of women in the world of work. (p. 120)

In a review of the dual labor market theory, Nation (1976) discussed the concept of primary and secondary labor markets. Individuals who are unskilled and uneducated are often relegated to the secondary labor market, which is associated with low pay, lack of benefits, and
little opportunity for advancement. "As a consequence, they drift into behavior patterns marked by poor work habits and poor attitudes toward both work and society" (p. 20).

In the literature review relating to the relationship between work values and level or type of occupational experience, one study was especially germane to this research. The findings from that study indicated few differences in the values of workers by job level or type.

**Work Values and Socioeconomic Status.** Numerous studies appeared in the literature pertaining to work values and the socioeconomic status of an individual. Among the writers who have contributed to the literature in this area are Goodwin, Hales and Fenner, Handley, and Wolfe.

Hales and Fenner found in a study of fifth-, eighth-, and eleventh-grade students from a low economic rural area that they "gave priority to work that is steady and dependable, pays well, permits them to utilize their skills and interests, and benefits other people" (p. 201). These value orientations, which include extrinsic and intrinsic valuing, are similar to youth from more privileged environments.

Goodwin's study of work values and socioeconomic status included "selected groups totaling 4,410 persons . . . . These persons were divided about equally between the poor and the nonpoor, blacks and whites, males and females, youth and adult" (p. 192). Included in these groups were 250 mothers and their teenage sons who had spent most of their lives on welfare. This group was included "to test the supposition that prolonged receipt of welfare changes the work orientations of mothers and their children" (p. 192). The purpose of Goodwin's study
was to examine the "'work orientations' of poor and relatively affluent people in an effort to discover whether unemployed and underemployed persons view work differently from people with steady jobs" (p. 192). The major findings of this study are given here:

1. Welfare recipients have life aspirations as high as those of steadily employed persons . . . .

2. Welfare recipients have essentially the same work ethic as do middle class people . . . .

3. Welfare mothers have a significant influence in their son's orientations, contributing to high life aspirations and a strong work ethic . . . .

4. A major difference in the outlooks of blacks and whites is that the former are much less confident of their ability to succeed at work . . . .

5. Poor people having the strongest work ethic show the greatest lack of confidence.

6. A person's willingness to accept welfare follows economic rather than racial lines . . . .

7. The more acceptable welfare is to black mothers when they enter the WIN program, the lower their work activity after leaving the program . . . .

8. WIN mothers who leave the program without a job—who fail again in the work world—find welfare more acceptable than they did when they entered the program . . . . (pp. 193-4)

Wolfe's investigation of the work values of 1,871 women indicated that women in the highest socioeconomic class placed the most emphasis on the mastery-achievement (extrinsic) value, while the lowest class emphasized independence (intrinsic). The findings from Wolfe's study also suggested that "the higher a woman's socioeconomic class, the less importance she attached to the economic value [extrinsic] of work and the higher was her expectation that work would yield social
values [intrinsic]" (p. 7).

Schwarzweller concluded, "values on hard work and external conformity are more dominant among boys from the lower strata . . . and that these boys tend to choose lower status jobs" (p. 132). His subjects were seniors in rural high schools in Kentucky.

Handley (1975) completed a study of disadvantaged youth in Mississippi using the Work Values Inventory. The objective of Handley's study was to determine "whether rural students enrolled in vocational programs which were considered to be exemplary for training disadvantaged youth differed in attitudes related to school and work from similar disadvantaged youth enrolled in vocational studies" (document resume). "The pattern of attitudes and work values which emerged indicated that the disadvantaged youth enrolled in the model curricula in vocational education were more motivated by the challenge [intrinsic], independence [intrinsic] and achievement of future work [extrinsic]. They also felt better about themselves as students, about teachers and about school in general" (p. 7).

The assumption has been made in the past that low work value orientation automatically accompanies low socioeconomic status. Investigations into this relationship have revealed that in many instances individuals from low socioeconomic status have work value orientations similar to those of advantaged individuals, thus dispelling the earlier notion.
Review of Literature Pertaining to Self-Concept

During the sixties as alternative occupational training programs were being explored, there was renewed focus on the emotional life and mental health of the student (Mazzarella, 1978). As the literature was reviewed, it was noted that in particular the study of self-concept and its relation to personality, behavior, and achievement of an individual have become a focal point in research. Even though self-concept has not been reduced to an exact scientific measurement, it has been defined; factors in its development have been identified, instruments that provide a self-description of self-concept have been developed, and the relationship of behavior and performance to self-concept has been noted.

The term self-concept describes a "person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behavior" (LaBenne & Greene, 1969, p. 10). Each person's self-concept is unique and is "the sum total of the view which an individual has of himself" (Felker, 1974, p. 2). Mazzarella (1978) noted that "'self-concept' refers to all the perceptions that an individual has of himself or herself with a special emphasis on the individual's perceptions of his or her own value and ability" (p. 2). "It is becoming clear that many of the difficulties which people experience in most areas of life are closely connected with the ways they see themselves and the world in which they live" (Purkey, 1970, p. 2).
To facilitate the presentation of literature pertaining to self-concept into a manageable schema, the following outline will be adhered to:

1. Development of self-concept
2. Relationship of self-concept and selected demographic variables
   a. Educational level
   b. Employment history
   c. Socioeconomic status (disadvantagement/advantagement)

Development of Self-Concept

There is almost universal agreement that individuals are not born with a ready-made self-concept but that "self-concept is developed and modified through learning" (Wylie, 1961, p. 100). Purkey (1970) stated in Self Concept and School Achievement that "the self is not instinctive but is developed as a process of experience" (p. 30) in the emerging individual. Mead (1934) wrote:

The self is something which has a development; it is not initially there, at birth, but arises in the process of social experience and activity, that is, develops in the given individual as a result of his relations to this process as a whole and to other individuals within that process. (p. 135)

Mead saw the self-concept as largely derived from the reflected appraisal of others. Rogers (1951) proposed that the self-image develops out of interaction with the environment and that it reflects the judgments, preferences, and shortcomings of the particular familial and social setting.
Self-concept appears to be developmental and part of the total socialization process of an individual. In the developmental process "the feedback a child gets from observing the effects of his or her own actions" (Mazzarella, p. 7) has a strong effect on self-concept, but the feedback that the child receives within the family structure probably has a stronger effect on self-concept. Thus, the family structure provides the basis for initial socialization experiences as well as the influence of significant others. Thomas (1973) noted that "the parent-child relationship is a very important determinant of self-concept" (p. 5). The relationship of self-concept and parental attention was studied earlier by Rosenberg (1965). He found that the amount of parental attention and concern was significantly related to self esteem.

It appears, then, that when a child enters school, he/she arrives with a unique self-concept that is "the result of the interaction of many past experiences" (LaBenne & Greene, p. 22). Among the specific experiences and factors impacting upon individuals when they enter school are ethnic background, religion, parental behaviors, social-class membership, and family structure.

The influence of the school with its diverse socialization experiences and the impact of teachers as significant others have a great deal to do with the child's developing self-concept (Felker). The feedback that the child receives from teachers is assimilated, and "how teachers treat him and react toward him becomes a factor in how he views himself" (LaBenne & Greene, p. 32).
The developmental nature of self-concept in relation to educational experiences both during elementary and secondary school and beyond has generated much research. This section reviews research related to educational experiences, including the effects of a variety of teaching methods, counseling strategies, and curriculum plans as they impacted upon self-concept.

Kanno's study (1974) "supported the general hypotheses that self-concept is developmental and that change in self-concept is related to the socially approved passing of the GED" (p. 262-A). In Bourn's study of high-risk students in community college basic skills study (1976), it was reported that "a measurable positive growth in self-concept was achieved" (p. 12). In a study by McFarland (1970) relating to the training of student teachers, one of the conclusions was that "training in interpersonal communication group work resulted in an immediate positive change in self-concept" (p. 6456-A). A longitudinal study by Tanabe (1973) indicated that "certain aspects of the self-concept among college bound students from disadvantaged and advantaged backgrounds do change significantly during the young adult years" (p. 4030-B). In a study evaluating the effects of Outward Bound training on urban youth, Lee and Schroder (1969) stated that "Outward Bound training . . . has indeed increased the positive feelings of these individuals toward themselves" (p. 203). It should be noted that the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used in the Kanno, McFarland, and Tanabe studies.

Several studies pertaining to the relationship of educational experiences and self-concept which involved only disadvantaged subjects
were reported in the literature. Among these were Tuta and Baker (1973), Puretz (1975), and Calloway (1976). Subjects in these studies ranged from nursery school age to middle school age.

Tuta and Baker reported in their 1973 study that disadvantaged children scored lower on the self-concept measure than advantaged children who may or may not have been to nursery school. Puretz (1975) found that "a one-term school program of modern educational dance compared to a one-term school program of physical education produced significant changes in the self-concept scores . . . of selected disadvantaged public elementary school girls" (p. 12). The beneficial effects of the modern dance program were still evident after three and one-half years, which would indicate that the meaningfulness of the dance experience was in some way incorporated into the self-structure. Calloway (1976) investigated the effects of specific educational services upon the self-concepts of disadvantaged elementary and middle school students. The most significant influence on self-concept of elementary students was identified as parental involvement in activities or programs at school. "Educational services afforded middle school students did not reflect a significant influence on the self-concept" (p. 7423-A).

In a 1973 study by Hairston and Cooper, an experimental group utilized visual imagery which linked the art of film making and cultural experiences to improve the self-concept of inner-city children. Improvement in the self-concept score was significant.

In a study by Closson (1972) which used the Tennessee Self Concept Scale to investigate the effects of incorporating an open
classroom experience into a special treatment program for the dis-
advantaged, it was found that both the experimental and control group
had poor self-concepts initially. Experimental students experienced
significant gain in self-concept, "acquired proportionately more jobs,
and dropped out less than did students in the control group"
(p. 2706-A).

Studies have been reported in the literature which indicate
that there was no change in the self-concept scores of the disadvan-
taged after participating in educational programs designed for that
purpose. Caruthers (1975) used the Tennessee Self Concept Scale to
investigate the effects of small group counseling as the process for
changing the self-concept of disadvantaged students. "It was con-
cluded that the small group counseling process . . . was not effective
in changing the self-concepts of disadvantaged students" (p. 2017-A).

Bradley (1971) reported the findings of a guidance and coun-
seling project--Project Exploration--enrolling 237 disadvantaged,
inner-city residents who were potential dropouts. The purpose of the
project was to enhance the development of self-image. Pre- and posttest
scores revealed limited changes across a comprehensive test battery.

Although studies have been reported which indicate that little
or no change occurred in self-concept after individuals have partici-
pated in programs designed for that purpose, most of the research does
indicate that self-concept can be changed.

Various counseling techniques have been utilized to study the
effects of such programs upon the self-concept. Studies reported by

However, studies have been reported in the literature which indicate that participation in special programs designed to enhance self-concept scores have little effect. Kelly (1974), Soffen (1968), Nichols (1968), Lipscomb (1967), Weaver (1970), Phillips (1971), Roberts (1971), and Marble (1973) have reported studies which indicate that self-concept did not change after participation in an experimental program designed for that purpose.

Summary. In summary, self-concept is developed and modified through contact with and influence of significant others, the first of which is the family. School and educational experiences also appear to have significant impact upon the self-concept development of an individual. Many studies have been reported concerning the effect of special programs to modify the self-concept of an individual. Although some studies report that modification of the self-concept did not occur, there appears to be considerable basis for supporting programs designed for that purpose.

Self-Concept and Selected Demographic Variables

Self-Concept and Educational Level. Is there a relationship between level of educational attainment and the self-concept of an individual? Based upon the research that was reviewed, there does exist the possibility of enhanced self-concept in connection with educational attainment. Kanno hypothesized that "passing the GED will tend to raise the dropout's self-concept scores" (p. 262-A). The findings
from his study supported this hypothesis. Miskimins and Baker (1973) suggested on the basis of their study that increased education minimizes severe self-concept problems for the poor. The findings of McNamee's study (1972) did not support the previous research mentioned. McNamee (1972) used as subjects for his study three groups of blacks from three different educational and/or training backgrounds. The three groups of participants included MDTA trainees, a group of evening adult students who were successfully employed, and a group from a large corporation (Goodyear) who had successfully completed an apprentice program (qualifying as the advanced educational group). One of the objectives of his study was to investigate the way in which these subjects perceived themselves and others. McNamee concluded "that little difference exists among the three groups of blacks which were being investigated" (p. 3299-A). The only exception was a significantly different mean score on the Acceptance of Self Scale between the employed group and the MDTA and the Goodyear group (McNamee).

Self-Concept and Employment History. Based upon the literature which was reviewed pertaining to the relationship between self-concept and employment history, there appears to be general agreement. That is, a positive self-concept is usually identified with individuals who are employed, while negative self-concepts can often be identified with individuals who are unemployed.

Cohn (1977) used data from a national panel study in which he made "a comparison of attitudes toward self between stably employed individuals and individuals who became unemployed" (p. 1465-B). "Those individuals who became unemployed evidence greater dissatisfaction with
self, lower self-confidence, and a greater discounting of the importance of others' evaluations of self relative to the stably employed" (p. 1465-8).

Hokenson (1976) attempted to identify differences between Work Incentive (WIN) participants who were successful in their employment attempts and WIN participants who were unsuccessful. He noted that "those people with positive attitudes toward themselves and their abilities . . . have greater employment success" (p. 10).

A study which is especially relevant to the present research is one by Feldman and Feldman (1972) who studied the effects on the family due to employment of the welfare mother. The subjects for this study were 1,325 women from a northern Appalachian poverty area. Employed women had a more positive self-concept than did the unemployed women. Other findings included the following:

The employed, more than the nonemployed, perceived themselves as being more instrumental, more efficient, more ambitious and better at organizing others. There was no difference between the two groups in their self perception of being expressive. (p. XVIII)

Miskimins and Baker (1973) reported two important conclusions with regard to work experience on the self-concepts of the poor. "Successful job experiences have positive effects upon the self-concepts of the poor . . . and failure in work experiences has negative effects" (pp. 360-1).

As noted earlier, there does appear to be consensus that unemployment produces a negative effect on the self-concept of an individual. This study includes individuals who have experienced
prolonged unemployment and underemployment and will present an excellent opportunity to study the correlation between employment history and self-concept.

Self-Concept and Socioeconomic Status (Disadvantage/Advantage). "'Disadvantaged' has become a standard label attached to children of the poor who suffer various social, intellectual, emotional, and physical restrictions" (Tuta & Baker, p. 1). Non-research literature indicates almost unanimously that being disadvantaged produces self-concept problems for the poor (Miskimins & Baker).

The growing body of research data is not quite so conclusive, however, and a review of the literature has revealed that the findings of most studies relating to the self-concept of the disadvantaged generally fall into one of three categories: Studies that indicate the self-concept of the disadvantaged is (1) higher, (2) lower, or (3) not different.

Soares and Soares (1971) have contributed to the body of research supporting the position that the disadvantaged have a higher self-concept than the advantaged. The findings of this research indicated that "(a) disadvantaged children view themselves and think that others . . . look at them more positively than advantaged children and (2) elementary school children have higher self-concepts than secondary school students (Soares & Soares, p. 428).

Studies indicating there was no difference in self-concepts of the disadvantaged as compared with advantaged include King-Meese (1974), McGough (1977), and Lord (1970). In a study of indigent/
neglected children from a Home Community Program in an economically depressed East Tennessee urban area, King-Meese determined that the self-concepts of indigent/neglected children more closely approximated self-concepts of normal adolescents. Lord's study included Appalachian children. She found that "the self-concepts of economically poor, Appalachian hollow children attending schools composed entirely of economically poor children and those of economically poor, Appalachian hollow children attending schools composed of both economically poor and economically advantaged children are 'average' when compared with the self-concepts of a national population" (p. 6406-A). McGough's study included nondisadvantaged whites, blacks, and Mexican-American students and disadvantaged blacks and Mexican-American eleventh grade students. He concluded there were no significant differences in terms of self-concept between these two groups.

A number of studies were found that indicated the self-concept of the disadvantaged subject was more negative than the advantaged subject. In a study to compare the self-concepts as learner of disadvantaged elementary students, Owen (1972) concluded:

1. The disadvantaged student feels more negative about himself as a learner than the nondisadvantaged student . . . .

2. The negative self-concept as a learner is more closely related with the student's socioeconomic condition than with his race. (p. 175-A)

Berry (1974) compared the self-concepts of school dropouts, who he noted were "representative of that vast group known as the disadvantaged" (p. 21) with a group of inner-city adolescents. The
data indicated there were significant differences between the groups with the dropout subjects tending to measure lower on those variables related to a positive self-esteem (Berry).

Gillman (1969) conducted a study of 428 students from the lower Rio Grande Valley unskilled mobile class. "Based upon the findings of this study, it appears that self-concepts of children are affected by poverty, minority group membership, language deficiencies, and the persistent problems associated with migration" (p. 288-A).

As noted previously, research into the relationship of disadvantage and self-concept has not produced conclusive data. It should be noted that all subjects for this study have been classified as disadvantaged.

Self-Concept and Disadvantaged Adults. CETA Employment and Training programs represent a major federal thrust with regard to meeting the training and employment needs of the disadvantaged. The subjects for this study were disadvantaged adults who were unemployed or underemployed. In "Implications of Self-Concept Theory for Education of the 'Total Adult,'" Vitro (1970) commented that "educators must consider all facets of the adult learner including his self-concept and other personality components" (p. 46). A literature review revealed several important studies relating to the self-concept of disadvantaged adults that are pertinent to the present study.

A study of the self-concepts of disadvantaged adults was completed by Miskimins and Baker in 1973. Their study, which included 660 disadvantaged adults in the Colorado State University Experimental
Manpower Laboratory, attempted to assess the relationship of economic disadvantage to self-concept. Some of the noteworthy findings included the following:

1. The disadvantaged are characterized by a higher than average general level of maladjustment and problems in relationships.

2. All disadvantaged are not alike—in terms of self-concept problems clearly definable sub-groups emerge... The effects of disadvantage appear to hinge upon a great many variables; several factors that may exist in an individual's personality, behavior, environment, etc., apparently serve as buffers between him and the harsh realities of the situation. (pp. 360-1)

In an adult education program in East St. Louis, Illinois, an experiment was conducted to study the effects of a special counseling service on the self-concept and academic achievement of disadvantaged re-entry students. It was concluded that "the special counseling was a significant variable in raising the self-concept of the students" (Mason, 1972, p. 2718-A).

In a follow-up study of Career Education Model IV students, it was noted that "cognitive education and job-training have been the approaches to impact on the nation's disadvantaged population" (Myers, et al., 1976, p. 29). The focus of this particular study was on assessing the impact of the Mountain-Plains program on the self-perception, interpersonal skills, and social integration of the disadvantaged families who participated in the program. The following two findings from Myers' study have important implications for the present study:

1. Male students now perceived themselves as subjectively more successful than a group of entering males.
2. Self-concept, particularly family self-concept, was higher for exited students than for a representative group of enterers. (p. 35)

A study by Morgan (1973) used disadvantaged subjects in a comparison of different occupational delivery systems. In her study, Morgan examined the effect of manpower development training upon attitude changes of participants in a human resources development class compared with those enrolled in a technical skill development program. Neither training approach, that is, the human resources development nor the technical skill development, had a statistically significant effect on the self-concept of the subjects. "Moreover, there was not a significant increase in the achievement scores of the subjects from the time of the pretest to the posttest. The data analysis also revealed that contrary to the initial expectations in the study, the attitudes of the subjects toward work and self-concept were positive rather than negative" (pp. 72-77).

**Summary**

In Chapter 2, a review of related research and literature has been presented. The literature review has been organized as follows:

1. Literature pertaining to work values
2. Literature pertaining to self-concept

In this literature review, the nature of work values and self-concept has been examined. It should be noted that this review of literature has revealed no study that deals directly with the problem that has been proposed for study by this researcher. The methodology for the investigation of this problem will be presented in Chapter 3.
Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes six sections relating to the methodology of the study.

1. Selection of subjects
2. Instrumentation
3. Design of the study
4. Procedures
5. Method of data analysis
6. Summary

Selection of Subjects

The subjects in this study were composed of two groups of CETA participants who enrolled in Employment and Training programs in ROC 1 of the Balance of State (prime sponsor) of the Commonwealth of Virginia from April 1979 through March 1980. Group 1 consisted of clerical participants in public service employment and work experience programs. Group 2 consisted of clerical participants in skill center programs.

Instrumentation

Tennessee Self Concept Scale

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale, which was developed by Fitts in 1965, was selected to measure the self-concepts of the subjects in
this study. This scale has been found to be suitable for use with sub-
jects who have at least a sixth-grade reading level and who are 12
years of age or older. The scale has also been found suitable for use
with normal or severely disturbed persons.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale is a self-administering instru-
ment composed of 100 self-descriptive items. The responses are rated
on a Likert-type scale along a continuum ranging from completely true
to completely false.

The scale meets the usual test construction standards. It was
"normed on a sample of 626 persons of varying age, sex, race, and socio-
economic status" (Buros, 1972, p. 366). It was further noted that
"retest reliability while varying for different scores, is in the high
80's" (p. 366). "The TSCS ranks among the better measures combining
group discrimination with self concept information" (p. 369).

Work Values Inventory

The Work Values Inventory was selected to assess the work values
of the subjects in this study. The Work Values Inventory "consists of
45 brief items, each descriptive of a particular value referring to
work and jobs" (p. 1478). Fifteen values with three different items
applying to each value comprise the 45-item inventory. A list of the
subscales and definitions appears in Appendix A. A five-step rating
scale is applied to each item. Zytowski (1970) specified the reliabil-
ities of the scales at "above 0.80, except for two with coeffi-
cients of 0.74 and 0.76" (p. 178).
Design of the Study

A descriptive research design provided the format by which pre- and posttest data about self-concepts and work values of CETA clerical participants in Appalachian southwestern Virginia were studied, compared, and described. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data collected in this study. A more detailed discussion of the analyses appears in the section of this chapter entitled, "Method of Data Analysis."

Procedures

Prior to the data collection period, permission to test Employment and Training participants was secured from all CETA contractors in ROC 1. These contractors also indicated their willingness to assist with testing. Subjects who participated in the study were asked at the time of intake to sign a permission statement indicating their willingness to take part in the study. (See Appendix B.)

Public service employment, work experience, and skill center participants composed the groups of subjects for this study. Group 1 included clerical participants who entered public service employment and work experience programs in ROC 1 from April 1979 through March 1980. Posttesting continued until August 1980 for any participants who enrolled after October 1979. Group 2 included four intact groups of skill center participants who enrolled at the Wise County and the Washington County Skill Centers from April 1979 through March 1980. One group entered in April 1979 and completed in September 1979 at each
A second group entered in October 1979 and completed in March 1980 at each skill center. Flexible programming allowed Employment and Training participants the option of completing training prior to six months, in which event these subjects were posttested at the time of exit.

All Employment and Training personnel (contractors, counselors, and instructors) who tested subjects were briefed about testing procedures through a personal visit by the researcher. Written instructions outlining testing procedures were also given to these individuals. This information is included in Appendix C.

The pretesting procedure consisted of three parts. First, subjects were asked to complete a Demographic Survey (Appendix B) which included the following information: Name, address, phone number, CETA contractor and address, subject's age, marital status, educational level, previous occupational experience, and length of employment or unemployment prior to enrollment in the Employment and Training position. Second, subjects were asked to complete the Work Values Inventory. Third, subjects completed the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The time required to complete the Demographic Survey was approximately five to ten minutes. The Work Values Inventory and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale each required ten to twenty minutes to complete. Post-testing was conducted in the same order but did not include completing the Demographic Survey.

Testing procedures varied slightly for skill center subjects and public service employment and work experience subjects. Skill center subjects were scheduled for testing as a group on the second day of
a two-day orientation period at the onset of training. Public service employment and work experience subjects were tested on the day of intake prior to reporting to the designated employing agency. Posttesting occurred as a group for the skill center subjects at the end of 25 weeks, except for early completions. Posttesting was conducted individually for public service employment and work experience subjects as they completed their assignments.

Method of Data Analysis

The data that were collected were analyzed in the following manner. The answer sheets were handscored. The computing center at Virginia Tech was used in the analysis of data. Since all participants in Groups 1 and 2 were included in the study, the major statistical techniques that were used to analyze the data were descriptive and included means, standard deviations, and correlations. Each research question and specific analyses appropriate for that question are discussed below.

Research Questions 1, 2, 3, and 4

1. Was there a change in self-concepts and work values of participants in Group 1?

2. Was there a change in self-concepts and work values of participants in Group 2?

Analyses. Means were used to describe the central tendency of the data and standard deviations, the variability.
3. Was there a difference in the pre- and posttest mean scores in self-concepts and work values of Group 1 participants as compared with Group 2 participants?

**Analyses.** Means were used to describe the central tendency of the data and standard deviations, the variability.

4. Was there a difference in the pre- and posttest mean scores in self-concepts and work values of the two subgroups comprising Group 2 (Subgroup 2A - Wise County Skill Center and Subgroup 2B - Washington County Skill Center)?

**Analyses.** Means were used to describe the central tendency of the data and standard deviations, the variability.

**Research Questions 5 through 14**

5. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to age?

6. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to age?

7. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to marital status?

8. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to marital status?

9. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to educational level?

10. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to educational level?
11. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to type or level of occupational experience?

12. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to type or level of occupational experience?

13. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 1, were those gains related to length of unemployment?

14. If there were gains in self-concepts and work values scores in Group 2, were those gains related to length of unemployment?

Analyses. Research question 5 through 14 were designed to analyze the relationship of gain scores in self-concepts and work values and selected variables. In each of these research questions, the independent variable was correlated with the Tennessee Self Concept Scale score and each of the 15 subscale scores of the Work Values Inventory for each group.

The specific correlational analyses that were utilized were as follows:

Research questions 5 and 6 - Pearson product-moment correlation ($r$).

Research questions 7 and 8 - Point biserial correlation.

Research questions 9 and 10 - Pearson product-moment correlation ($r$).

Research questions 11 and 12 - Spearman rho correlation.

Research questions 13 and 14 - Spearman rho correlation.
Summary

In Chapter 3, the methodology of the study has been presented. Included were a discussion of the selection of the subjects, instrumentation, design of the study, procedures, and method of data analyses.
In the theoretical framework supporting this study, it was postulated that participation in structured occupational training provided by skill centers offered greater opportunity to develop an enhanced work identity than participation in subsidized employment programs with minimal structured occupational training. Among interrelated social and psychological factors associated with the actualization of a work identity are self-concepts and work values.

Self-concept refers to how one views self and appears to be developmental. Two major factors influencing self-concept are environment and significant others. Influential environments usually include home and school. Significant others typically include parents and teachers. Work values are goals that motivate one to work. Super reported that "work is seen . . . as a means of self-actualization . . . as a means of implementing one's self-concept" (1970, p. 4). Work value orientations tend to be family derived (Kinnane & Pable, 1962). The literature generally supports the notion that self-concept can be modified through participation in programs designed for that purpose.

In this study related to the development of a work identity, self-concepts and work values of two groups of Employment and Training participants were measured in pre- and posttests. Descriptive statistics
are used to present the results of the study. Demographic data pertaining to the subjects and related information about the study are also presented descriptively.

**Contractor Participation**

Funds to support all Employment and Training positions in ROC 1 are initially distributed through the Balance of State (prime sponsor) to five regional operations centers and then to governmental or social action agencies who vie for funds. Funded agencies are designated as contractors who administer a prescribed number of training slots. Table 2 lists ROC 1 contractors who either had or anticipated having clerical slots during the data collection period. All contractors except the Wise County Skill Center and the Washington County Skill Center had public service employment and work experience positions.

Sixteen contractors including the skill center contractors participated in the study. Fifteen additional contractors were willing to participate but did not fill any clerical slots during the data collection period. Five contractors who filled clerical slots chose not to participate.

There were 373 persons in the population for this study within ROC 1. Out of that number, 261 were in public service employment and work experience programs and had the potential of being selected for Group 1. Out of the 261, 45 were pretested which represented 17.2 percent of the population. Only 36 participants or 13.8 percent of the population were available for the posttest and were included in the study as Group 1. There were 112 skill center participants who
### Table 2

**ROC 1 Contractors With Potential Clerical Slots**  
April 1979 Through August 1980

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>Lonesome Pine Regional Library</td>
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<td>Norton, City of</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scott Co. Board of Supervisors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scott Co. RADA, Inc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Southwest VA Housing Coalition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia Employment Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wise Co. Board of Supervisors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wise Co. &amp; Norton Headstart</td>
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<tr>
<td>*Wise Co. Skill Center</td>
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<td>Bristol, City of</td>
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<td>Carroll Co. Board of Supervisors</td>
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<td>Grayson Co. Board of Supervisors</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mt. Rogers Community Health and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Mental Retardation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mt. Rogers Planning District</td>
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<td>Mountain CAP</td>
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<tr>
<td>OAR of Bristol</td>
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<tr>
<td>People, Inc.</td>
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<td>Rooftop of Virginia</td>
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<td>Saltville, Town of</td>
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<td>Smyth-Bland Regional Library</td>
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<td>Southwestern State Hospital</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia Employment Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia Highlands Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>College</td>
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<td>Washington Co. Board of Supervisors</td>
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<tr>
<td>*Washington Co. Skill Center</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wythe Co. Board of Supervisors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wythe Co. Public Library</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wytheville Community College</td>
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*Denotes skill center contractors*
were members of Group 2. In the pretest, 100 percent or 112 were available for testing. Of that number, 73 persons or 65.2 percent of the population were available for posttesting and were included in the study as Group 2.

The ethnicity of the subjects revealed a predominantly Caucasian group. Eighty-six percent of the subjects in Group 1 were Caucasian while 96 percent of the subjects in Group 2 were Caucasian. Eight percent of the subjects in Group 1 were black, 3 percent in Group 2. Additional data about the ethnic background of the subjects are presented in Table 9.

The data for answering research questions 1 and 2 are shown in Tables 3 and 4. The pretest mean for self-concept for Group 1 was 343.43. The posttest mean was 341.19. This represented a difference of -2.34. Work values were expressed by the difference in means on the 15 subscales. Of those 15 subscale pre-/posttest means, 9 showed a difference in a positive or plus direction while 6 showed a difference in a negative or minus direction. The standard deviations for the Group 1 self-concept pretest was 34.15 while the posttest was 34.32. This represented a difference of +0.17. The distribution of the pre-/posttest scores on self-concepts seemed to be similar. The standard deviations for work values reflected increased variability of the posttest scores on 10 subscales as compared with pretest scores.

Research question 2 focused on Group 2, skill center participants. The pretest mean on self-concept for Group 2 was 327.75. The posttest mean was 337.63. This represented a difference of +9.88.
Table 3

Pre- and Posttest Mean Scores
Self-Concepts and Work Values
Groups 1 and 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group 1 Mean Scores</th>
<th>Group 2 Mean Scores</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSCS</td>
<td>343.53</td>
<td>341.19</td>
<td>-2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WVI (subscales by name)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>10.94</td>
<td>11.42</td>
<td>+0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>8.50</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>+0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>13.56</td>
<td>13.22</td>
<td>-0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surroundings</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>11.81</td>
<td>+0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervis. rel.</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>13.28</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Way of life</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>12.89</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>12.14</td>
<td>12.97</td>
<td>+0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>+0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td>9.31</td>
<td>9.58</td>
<td>+0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>10.97</td>
<td>10.67</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>9.75</td>
<td>10.61</td>
<td>+0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>10.56</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>+0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic ret.</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>12.56</td>
<td>+0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>13.28</td>
<td>12.69</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intel. stim.</td>
<td>12.11</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
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</table>
Table 4
Pre- and Posttest Standard Deviations
Self-Concepts and Work Values
Groups 1 and 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Group 1 Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Group 2 Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSCS</td>
<td>34.15</td>
<td>34.32</td>
<td>+0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WVI (subscales by name)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>+0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>+0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>+0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surroundings</td>
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<td>2.18</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervis. rel.</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>+0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Way of life</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>+0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>+0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>+0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>+0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic ret.</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>+0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
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<td>2.48</td>
<td>+0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intel. stim.</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
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</table>
This difference in a positive direction was in sharp contrast to Group 1. On work values, a similar contrast occurred in the difference in means on the 15 subscales. Of the 15 subscale pre-/posttest means, 13 showed a minus or negative difference while only two showed a positive difference. The standard deviations for the Group 2 self-concept pretest was 34.24 while the posttest was 33.03. This represented a difference of -1.21. Standard deviations related to work values reflected increased variability of the posttest scores as compared with pretest scores on nine subscales.

In answer to research question 3, the mean pretest scores on self-concepts for Group 1 and Group 2 reveal an initial difference of 15.78 points between the two groups (Table 5). The mean posttest scores show a difference of 3.56 points between the two groups.

The difference between pre- and posttest work values scores for the two groups is more complex. Mean pretest scores revealed that Group 2 was higher than Group 1 on 13 of the 15 Work Values Inventory subscales. On the mean posttest scores, Group 2 was higher on only 9 of the subscales. Changes that occurred between pre- and posttest scores revealed that mean scores on work values for Group 2 declined on 13 of the 15 subscales. Only two subscales showed a net gain. In contrast, Group 1 showed a net gain between mean pretest scores and mean posttest scores on 9 of the 15 subscales. Both Group 1 and Group 2 showed a net gain on the mean score for Subscale 2 (management) with a larger gain noted for Group 1.
Table 5
Self-Concept Differences in Groups 1 and 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Net Mean Difference Within Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 1</strong></td>
<td>343.53</td>
<td>341.19</td>
<td>-2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 2</strong></td>
<td>327.75</td>
<td>337.63</td>
<td>+9.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net Mean Difference Between Groups</strong></td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data for answering research question 4 are shown in Tables 6, 7, and 8. In answer to this question, the mean pretest scores on self-concepts for Subgroups 2A and 2B reveal an initial difference of 23.90 points between the two groups (Table 8). The mean posttest scores show a difference of 14.81 points between the two groups.

On the Work Values Inventory, Subgroup 2B was higher than Subgroup 2A on 9 of the 15 mean subscale scores. Both groups increased mean scores in management and intellectual stimulation. Even though Subgroup 2B was higher on many subscales, both subgroups declined on 11 subscales including achievement, surroundings, supervisory relations, way of life, security, associates, prestige, independence, variety, economic returns, and altruism (Table 6).

The standard deviations for these subgroups reflected an initial difference of 2.82 on mean pretest self-concept scores and 1.60 on mean posttest self-concept scores. These data are presented in Table 7.

Only one work values scale (prestige) showed a wide variability on the pretests for Subgroups 2A and 2B. On the posttest, the standard deviations reflected marked variability between the two subgroups. These scales were management, achievement, surroundings, supervisory relations, way of life, security, esthetics, and economic returns (Table 7).

The literature suggested that demographic variables may influence one's self-concept and work values. In this study, selected variables (age, marital status, educational level, type or level of previous occupational experience, and length of unemployment) were
Table 6
Pre- and Posttest Mean Scores
Self-Concepts and Work Values
Subgroups 2A and 2B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Subgroup 2A Mean Scores</th>
<th>Subgroup 2B Mean Scores</th>
<th>Change</th>
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<td>Posttest</td>
<td>Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSCS</td>
<td>313.30</td>
<td>329.52</td>
<td>+16.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WVI (subscale by name)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>10.64</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management</td>
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<td>+0.39</td>
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<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
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<td>12.97</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12.67</td>
<td>12.27</td>
<td>-0.40</td>
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<td>13.27</td>
<td>-1.03</td>
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<td>12.12</td>
<td>-1.27</td>
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<td>10.82</td>
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Table 7
Pre- and Posttest Standard Deviations
Self-Concepts and Work Values
Subgroups 2A and 2B

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<td>Change</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>Change</td>
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<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
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<td>2.28</td>
<td>+1.12</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.33</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.49</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>+0.12</td>
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<td>+0.04</td>
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<td>2.06</td>
<td>+0.21</td>
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<td>2.19</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-0.55</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.11</td>
<td>+0.98</td>
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<td>1.38</td>
<td>+0.10</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.92</td>
<td>+0.21</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>+0.05</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.78</td>
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<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
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Table 8
Self-Concept Differences in Subgroups 2A and 2B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Net Mean Difference Within Subgroups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subgroup 2A</td>
<td>313.30</td>
<td>329.52</td>
<td>+16.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subgroup 2B</td>
<td>337.20</td>
<td>344.33</td>
<td>+ 7.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Mean Difference Between Subgroups</td>
<td>23.90</td>
<td>14.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
correlated with self-concepts and work values for the two groups.

The demographic data relating to these correlations is summarized in Table 9. The mean age for subjects in Group 1 was 26.7 years with a range of 18 through 51 years. The mean educational level was 12.25 years, which ranged from ninth grade through three years of college. The mean age for Group 2 was 24.8 years with a range of 17 through 51 years. The mean educational level was 11.8 years which ranged from eighth grade through one full year of college.

Demographic data about marital status in Group 1 revealed that 33 percent were single, 42 percent were married, and 25 percent were either widowed, divorced, or separated. In Group 2, 38 percent were single, 34 percent were married, and 28 percent were either widowed, divorced, or separated.

Prior to participation in work experience and public service employment programs, all 36 subjects in Group 1 had been unemployed. In Group 2, 71 of the 73 skill center participants had been unemployed. Data about the length of unemployment of the subjects are shown in Table 9.

Data were collected on the type or level of previous occupational experience that the subjects had acquired prior to their participation in Employment and Training programs. Three broad categories of occupational experience, including skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled, were delineated on the Demographic Survey with an explanation of the types of jobs that were indicative of each category. The unskilled category included jobs such as factory work, babysitting,
Table 9
Demographic Findings
Groups 1 and 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Group 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of subjects</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean age</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>18 - 51</td>
<td>17 - 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean educational level</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9 through 3 yrs. of college</td>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 8 through 1 yr. of college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnic background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oriental</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single and never been married</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of unemployment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 3 months</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6 months</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 12 months</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than one year</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type or level of occupational experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semiskilled</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No previous experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
kitchen helper, or a type of work requiring no training. The semi-skilled category included jobs such as sales, general factory worker, waitress, or work requiring some training. The skilled category included jobs such as secretary, bookkeeper, keypunch operator, highly skilled machine operator in a factory, or work requiring special skills and training.

In answering research questions 5 through 14, Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (1979) were used as references (Rule of Thumb for Interpreting the Size of a Correlation Coefficient) in interpreting the correlations which appear in Table 11. The Rule of Thumb (Hinkle et al.) appears in Table 10.

In research questions 5 and 6, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to analyze the relationship between age and work values and self-concepts. This demographic variable showed a low positive correlation with management (0.33) and surroundings (0.30) and a low negative correlation with independence (-0.38) in Group 1. In Group 2, there was little if any correlation between age and work values and self-concepts (Hinkle et al.).

In research questions 7 and 8, point biserial correlation coefficient was used to analyze the relationship between marital status and self-concepts and work values. Marital categories were defined as single or married, and little if any correlation was noted (Hinkle et al.).

In research questions 9 and 10, Pearson r was used to analyze the relationship between educational level and work values and self-concepts. Little if any correlation was noted in Group 1. However, in
Table 10
Rule of Thumb for Interpreting the Size of a Correlation Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.00 to .30 (.00 to -.30)</td>
<td>Little if any correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.30 to .50 (-.30 to -.50)</td>
<td>Low positive (negative) correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.50 to .70 (-.50 to -.70)</td>
<td>Moderate positive (negative) correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.70 to .90 (-.70 to -.90)</td>
<td>High positive (negative) correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.90 to 1.00 (-.90 to -1.00)</td>
<td>Very high positive (negative) correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Hinkle et al., 1979, p. 85.
Table 11
Self-Concepts/Work Values—Groups 1 and 2
Correlation Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Ed. Level</td>
<td>Type of Exper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSCS</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WVI (subscale by name)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surroundings</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervis. rel.</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Way of life</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic ret.</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intel. stim.</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Group 2, a low positive correlation (0.32) was observed between altruism and educational level (Hinkle et al.)

In research questions 11 and 12, type of occupational experience was correlated with self-concept and work values using the Spearman rho correlation coefficient. In Group 1, a low positive correlation (0.43) was noted between prestige and type of occupational experience. All other correlations revealed little if any relationship (Hinkle et al.)

In research questions 13 and 14, length of unemployment was correlated with work values and self-concept, using the Spearman rho. Little if any correlation was observed (Hinkle et al.)

Discussion

It was theorized that self-concepts and work values would show a greater gain in the skill center (structured) setting when compared with public service employment and work experience (nonstructured) setting, thus enhancing one's work identity and making a greater contribution to the long-term employability of the individual. The data show that participation in the skill center programs did indeed enhance self-concepts more than public service employment and work experience programs. The question, then, became one of why the increase did in fact occur.

Perhaps, a major factor contributing to the enhanced self-concepts was the trainees' perception of the skill center setting as a supportive environment conducive to learning and opportunity. The
literature supports self-concept change as a result of significant experiences, either positive or negative (Fitts, 1965; Miskimins & Baker, 1973). In contrast to the skill center setting where self-concepts were enhanced, the opposite occurred in the nonstructured setting where those subjects may have perceived less long-term benefits resulting from their nonstructured work experiences.

In contrast to the enhancement of self-concepts noted above, work values declined in Group 2 and increased in Group 1. Pallone, Rickard and Hurley (1970) suggested that as self-concept increases, there is lessened need for work to enhance one's feelings of worth.

Although one might conclude that the work values of these groups were totally different based upon the pre-/posttest data, the groups are in fact quite similar in their valuing of work. A re-examination of the posttest scores reveals that both groups valued the same four out of five subscales highest (achievement, supervisory relations, way of life, and security). Again both groups valued the same four out of five subscales lowest (management, associates, esthetics, and independence). The literature supports the finding that clerical workers generally deem achievement high. However, low valuing attached to independence, management, and esthetic aspects of work in this study is not borne out by previous research (Super, 1970).

The groups of highest and lowest values characterized by each group are combinations of intrinsic, extrinsic, and concomitant values, suggesting this group of disadvantaged clerical females do not esteem extrinsic values of work more importantly than others. This finding
is supported by previous research (Kinnane et al., 1964). Zytowski (1970), however, suggested that disadvantaged groups valued extrinsic rewards of work more highly than non-disadvantaged groups.

The data show there were differences in the self-concepts of the skill center subgroups, 2A and 2B. Subgroup 2A, composed of 33 subjects, had a self-concept pretest mean of 313.30 which increased to 329.52 on the posttest, a gain of 16.22 points. Subgroup 2A, composed of 40 subjects, had a pretest mean of 337.20 and a posttest mean of 344.33, a gain of 7.13 points.

An explanation for these differences was sought. Based upon the researcher's knowledge of the Appalachian culture, one very plausible explanation for the low self-concept score for the Wise County Skill Center is the mountain acculturation associated with that region. Although both skill centers were located in the Appalachian region of southwestern Virginia, the Wise Skill Center was located in a more remote part of this area than the Washington County Skill Center. Many of the Wise County subjects lived in rural areas outside the town of Wise, the site of the skill center. Inherent factors in acculturation in more remote mountainous rural areas may have influenced these female's perceptions of themselves and may have affected self-concepts and work values.

It was possible that demographic differences may have affected self-concepts and work values differently in these skill center groups. Although the mean age and the ethnicity for these groups were similar, marital status and educational level differed. In Subgroup 2A, 42
percent were single and 58 percent were married. In Subgroup 2B, 60 percent were single and 40 percent were married. In level of educational attainment, there was an approximate half-year difference.

A third factor which may have impacted upon the self-concepts and work values of these subgroups could possibly have been related to different curricula. The Wise County Skill Center curriculum was limited to clerk-typist, and the Washington County Skill Center had both clerk-typist and clerk-steno.

In contrast to self-concept gains, both skill center groups had declines in work values scores. As noted previously, these simultaneous changes may be linked to a lessened need for work to enhance their worth. These skill center subjects valued the same four out of five subscales as most important (achievement, supervisory relations, way of life, and economic returns). The same was true for the four out of five subscales valued as least important (creativity, management, esthetics, and independence). Again, the implication is that the disadvantaged female subjects participating in the skill center training programs display similarities in the valuing of work.

For the most part, there were only minimal correlations observed between the demographic variables and self-concepts and work values. The Rule of Thumb for Interpreting the Size of a Correlation Coefficient by Hinkle et al. (1979) was used as a guide in interpreting the correlations and is considered a conservative estimate. The most significant correlation (0.43) was noted in Group 1 between type or level of occupational experience and prestige. This relationship may
have reflected the type of previous work experience held by the subjects (56 percent skilled, 36 percent semiskilled, 6 percent unskilled, and 2 percent no experience). The literature suggests a high valuing associated with prestige may indicate "a desire for the respect of others" (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Research findings have been reported which linked a poor work history (unemployment or lack of job stability) with self-concept difficulties (Cohn, 1977; Miskimins et al., 1973). As noted previously, there was little if any correlation noted between self-concept and length of unemployment in this research (Hinkle et al.).

Neither was there any relationship noted between length of unemployment and work values. This finding is supported by previous studies (Searls et al., 1974; Kaplan et al., 1972).

**Summary**

The findings of the study have been presented in Chapter 4. A discussion was offered to explain these findings with generalizability limited to this study. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations.
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the preceding chapters, the need for the study, the statement of the problem, a review of related research and literature, the methodology, and the research findings have been presented. In Chapter 5, a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for further study are presented.

Summary

Previous research associated with manpower programs have tended to emphasize economic outcome measures. The literature suggested that noneconomic outcomes are equally important. Using structured and nonstructured occupational training settings, this study focused on noneconomic outcomes. Those outcomes were self-concept and work values. The structured setting was two skill centers in ROC 1 while the nonstructured setting was public service employment and work experience programs. A theoretical framework for the study was that self-concept and work values were more likely to be enhanced in a structured setting as opposed to a nonstructured setting.

The specific problem was to determine which Employment and Training activity in ROC 1, i.e., Group 1 or Group 2, produced the greater change in participants' self-concepts and work values. Two related subproblems were also studied: One problem dealt with changes that occurred in the self-concepts and work values of Subgroups 2A and
2B and the other problem dealt with the relationship of selected demographic variables and self-concepts and work values of Group 1 and Group 2 participants.

ROC 1, located in the Balance of State, is comprised of 13 counties and 3 cities and towns in southwestern Virginia. Employment and Training activities are administered through contractors at the local level in ROC 1.

Data about self-concepts and work values were collected in a pre-/posttest research design from April 1979, through March 1980. All subjects were pretested with the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Work Values Inventory when they entered their respective Employment and Training programs and posttested with the same instruments six months later or at the time of exit, whichever occurred first. There were 109 subjects who were pre- and posttested including 36 in Group 1 and 73 in Group 2. Group 2 was comprised of two subgroups: Subgroup 2A with 33 subjects from the Wise County Skill Center and Subgroup 2B with 40 subjects from the Washington County Skill Center.

All subjects were females who were classified as economically and/or educationally disadvantaged. Ninety-two percent were Caucasian, 5 percent were black, 2 percent were native American, and 1 percent was oriental. The difference in the mean ages of the groups was less than two years. The mean educational level was slightly above 12 years (high school graduate) for Group 1 and slightly below 12 years for Group 2. In Group 1, 53 percent were single and 47 percent were married; in Group 2, 52 percent were single and 48 percent were married. Only 6 percent of Group 1 subjects had worked in unskilled jobs whereas 32 percent of
Group 2 subjects had worked in unskilled jobs. One hundred seven of the 109 subjects had been unemployed for varying lengths of time immediately prior to their Employment and Training participation.

The data for Group 1 revealed a mean pretest score of 343.53 on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The mean posttest score was 341.19, reflecting a net loss of 2.34. Six subscales of the Work Values Inventory (achievement, supervisory relations, way of life, prestige, altruism, and intellectual stimulation) declined between pre- and posttesting while nine increased. Two subscales, security and independence, increased 0.83 and 0.86 points respectively. The remaining subscales reflected a gain ranging from 0.06 to 0.48.

The data for Group 2 showed a mean pretest score of 327.75 on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale which increased to a mean posttest score of 337.63, an increase of 9.88 points. Only two subscales of the Work Values Inventory, management and intellectual stimulation, had a mean gain on the posttest. All other subscales reflected a net mean decline including -0.92 on economic returns, -0.90 on security, -0.88 on supervisory relations, and -0.81 on altruism.

There was a difference in means in self-concepts between Groups 1 and 2. Whereas Group 1 declined overall, Group 2 increased on self-concept mean scores.

The data from Subgroups 2A and 2B reflected a difference in both mean pre- and posttest self-concept scores. Subgroup 2A had a mean pretest score of 313.30 on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale which increased to 329.52 on the posttest, a net gain of 16.22 points.
Subgroup 2B had a mean pretest score of 337.20 and a mean posttest score of 344.33, a net gain of 7.13 points. Subgroup 2A showed declines on means of 13 of the 15 work values subscales; Subgroup 2B had declines on 11 of the subscales.

Correlational analyses—Pearson $r$, point biserial, and Spearman rho—were used to study the relationship between selected variables (age, marital status, educational level, type or level of occupational experience, and length of unemployment) and work values and self-concepts. In Group 1, three subscales—management, surroundings, and independence—reflected a low correlation with age, two positive and one negative, respectively. Prestige had a low positive correlation with type of occupational experience. In Group 2, altruism had a low correlation with educational level. There was little if any correlation between self-concepts and the variables mentioned above in either Group 1 or Group 2.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn are based upon the findings of the research and the supporting theoretical framework about the development of one's work identity.

1. Based upon the modest increases observed in Group 2 scores, it was concluded that self-concepts were enhanced through participation in skill center programs.

2. Although public service employment and work experience programs alleviate the trauma of unemployment, in this study, the security
of a job did not enhance self-concept. Rather a small negative effect
occurred.

3. The development of a work identity was best facilitated in
the skill training environment (structured occupational training) as
opposed to public service employment and work experience programs
(nonstructured occupational training).

4. As self-concepts increased and work values declined in
Group 2, it was concluded that there was less need for work to enhance
one's feelings of worth. Conversely, the opposite occurred in Group 1.
That is, as self-concepts declined, work values increased. This con-
clusion supports Pallone, Rickard, and Hurley's (1976) study which
indicated (1) that work may be used to enhance a negative view of
one's self or (2) that the value of work is less important when one
has a positive view of self.

5. Posttest means on work values revealed that all subjects
valued the same four out of five subscales highest. These subscales
were achievement, supervisory relations, way of life, and security.
Likewise, all subjects valued the same four out of five subscales
lowest. These subscales were management, associates, esthetics, and
independence.

6. The work values orientation of the Appalachian disadvantaged
subjects who participated in this study was a combination of intrinsic
.way of life), extrinsic (security, achievement), and concomitant
(supervisory relations) valuing. This conclusion supports previous
studies (Hales & Fenner, 1972; LaFitte, 1974) and contrasts with others
7. The demographic variables correlated in this study generally show a lack of relationship between self-concepts and work values. Of the 160 correlations, 155 showed little or no relationship.

8. In Group 1, there was a relationship between age and supervisory relations and management, indicating that as age increased, these subjects valued work more highly that allowed them to exercise these skills.

9. In Group 1, there was a low negative relationship between age and independence, indicating that younger women valued independence in work more highly than older women. One can speculate that acculturation processes in the Appalachian region may be different for the younger women in this study as compared with the older women and thus may account for the difference in the valuing of independence.

10. In Group 1, there was a low positive relationship between type of experience and prestige indicating that these disadvantaged females valued work which evoked respect.

11. In Group 2, there was a low positive relationship between educational level and altruism, indicating that as their level of education increased, they valued work more highly which allowed them to contribute to the welfare of others.

Recommendations

This study was limited to descriptive research about self-concepts and work values of Employment and Training participants in southwestern Virginia. The data generated from this study suggests
there are differences in self-concepts and work values resulting from participation in these programs. Because only limited research has been conducted on noneconomic outcomes derived from participation in Employment and Training programs, it is believed that additional research deserves serious consideration. In view of this situation, it is recommended that

1. An experimental study be conducted in which clerical subjects (skill center and on-the-job training) are randomly assigned to experimental and control groups to assess the impact of programming designed specifically to enhance self-concepts.

2. A study be conducted to collect data on self-concepts and work values in relation to trainees' achievement and employability.

3. This study be replicated on a statewide basis using only skill centers as the population for the study to collect baseline data on self-concepts and work values for future programming needs. The effect of ethnicity should be included as a variable for study.

4. Research be conducted on a statewide basis using individuals from all occupational areas in skill centers as the focus of study on the impact of noneconomic outcomes associated with manpower training.
LITERATURE CITED


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Area Manpower Planning Council No. 3. 1980 Manpower services delivery plan, region I. Abingdon, VA: Regional Operations Center 1, 1979.


Kapes, J. T., & Strickler, R. E. A longitudinal study of change in work values between ninth and twelfth grades as related to high school curriculum. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1975, 6, 81-93.


Government Publications


APPENDIX A

WORK VALUES INVENTORY SUBSCALES AND DEFINITIONS
The Work Values Inventory is a 15-item rating form designed to assess values "which affect the motivation to work" (Super, 1970, p. 4). The items and meanings associated with them are listed below (Super, 1970, pp. 8, 9, & 10):

1. Creativity - non-material value associated with work which permits one to invent new things, design new products, or develop new ideas.

2. Management - value associated with work which permits one to plan and lay out work for others to do.

3. Achievement - value associated with work which gives one a feeling of accomplishment in doing a job well.

4. Surroundings - value associated with work which is carried out under pleasant conditions--not too hot or too cold, noisy, dirty, etc.

5. Supervisory relations - value associated with work which is carried out under a supervisor who is fair and with whom one can get along.

6. Way of life - value associated with the kind of work that permits one to live the kind of life he chooses and to be the type of person he wishes to be.

7. Security - value associated with work which provides one with the certainty of having a job even in hard times.
8. Associates - value characterized by work which brings one into contact with fellow workers he likes.

9. Esthetics - values inherent in work which permits one to make beautiful things and to contribute beauty to the world.

10. Prestige - value associated with work which gives one standing in the eyes of others and evokes respect.

11. Independence - value associated with work which permits one to work in his own way, as fast or as slowly as he wishes.

12. Variety - value associated with work that provides an opportunity to do different types of jobs.

13. Economic returns - value associated with work which pays well and enables one to have the things he wants.

14. Altruism - social service values . . . present in work which enables one to contribute to the welfare of others.

15. Intellectual stimulation - value associated with work which provides opportunity for independent thinking and for learning how and why things work.
APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY
DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

DIRECTIONS: Please read these directions carefully before you answer this demographic survey. Fill in the blanks below as completely and accurately as you can. Please note carefully questions 13, 14, 15, and 16 and answer as directed. Some blanks require that you write in certain information; other blanks require only a check ( ) on the appropriate line. IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS, BE SURE TO ASK THE PERSON IN CHARGE FOR ASSISTANCE.

1. Date ___________________________ Phone Number __________________
   Month       Day       Year

2. Name ___________________________
   First         Middle Initial      Last
   Address __________________________
   Street (or Route & Box Number)
   City or Town ____________________ State ______ ZIP ______

3. Name of Employer
   (The name of the public or private agency for which you will be working)
   Address __________________________
   Street (or Route & Box Number)
   City or Town ____________________ State ______ ZIP ______

4. Name of CETA contractor
   ________________________________
   Address __________________________
   Street (or Route & Box Number)
   City or Town ____________________ State ______ ZIP ______

5. Birthday ________________________
   Month       Day       Year

6. Age (to nearest birthday) ________ 7. Sex (circle appropriate letter) F M
8. Birthplace ___________________________ City or Town ___________________ County __________ State __________

9. Ethnic origin (race)
   ___ Black
   ___ Native American (Indian)
   ___ Caucasian
   ___ Oriental
   ___ Hispanic

10. Marital status (check the appropriate blank)
    ___ Single and never been married
    ___ Married
    ___ Divorced
    ___ Widowed
    ___ Separated

11. Educational level
    (Check the blank which represents the highest grade you have completed)
    ___ Grade 8
    ___ GED
    ___ Grade 9
    ___ One full year college
    ___ Grade 10
    ___ Two full years college
    ___ Grade 11
    ___ Three or more full years college
    ___ Grade 12

12. Occupational experience
    (Check the blank beside the category that most nearly represents the type of fulltime work that you have done most frequently in the past. Mark only one category.)
    ___ Unskilled (Jobs such as some types of factory work, babysitting, kitchen helper, or any type of work requiring no training).
    ___ Semiskilled (Jobs such as sales, general factory worker, waitress, or work requiring some training)
    ___ Skilled (Jobs such as secretary, bookkeeper, keypunch operator, highly skilled machine operator in factory, or work requiring special skills and training)
    ___ No previous experience
13. Work history
   a. If you were employed fulltime (40 hours a week) up through the week before you accepted a CETA job, check this blank ___ and go to question 14.
   b. If you were employed parttime the week before you started a CETA job, check this blank ___ and go to question 15.
   c. If you were unemployed the week before you started a CETA job, check this blank ___ and go to question 16.

14. If you were employed and answered 13 a. above, check the appropriate category below.
   a. ___ Employed 0 - 3 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   b. ___ Employed 4 - 6 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   c. ___ Employed 7 - 12 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   d. ___ Employed for more than 1 year immediately prior to CETA job.

15. If you were employed parttime and answered 13 b. above, check the appropriate category below.
   a. ___ Employed parttime 0 - 3 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   b. ___ Employed parttime 4 - 6 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   c. ___ Employed parttime 7 - 12 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   d. ___ Employed parttime for more than 1 year immediately prior to CETA job.

16. If you were unemployed and answered 13 c. above, check the appropriate category below.
   a. ___ Unemployed 0 - 3 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   b. ___ Unemployed 4 - 6 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   c. ___ Unemployed 7 - 12 months immediately prior to CETA job.
   d. ___ Unemployed for more than 1 year immediately prior to CETA job.

PERMISSION
I give permission for my scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Work Values Inventory and the information on this sheet to be used in a research study that Ms. M. S. Berry is conducting. I understand this information will be treated with confidence and will be presented anonymously as part of the total group response and not reported by name as individuals. Signed ________________________________
INFORMATION SHEET

Research Contact Person: Margaret S. Berry
VPI&SU
Division of Vocational and Technical Ed.
Blacksburg, VA 24061
Office phone -
Home phone -

Introduction

Attached are three forms which are to be completed by CETA public service employment and work experience clerical participants. These forms are:

1. Demographic Survey
2. Work Values Inventory
3. *Tennessee Self Concept Scale*

This sheet will explain the purpose of collecting this information and the procedures that are to be followed in completing the forms.

Who, What, Why, and When

Who. Individuals who qualify for participation in ROC I CETA public service employment and work experience clerical positions are included in this research study.

What. The above-mentioned individuals will be asked to complete the Demographic Survey, the Work Values Inventory, and the *Tennessee Self Concept Scale* which will take approximately 1 1/2 hours.

Why. The information that is collected will be used in a research study that Ms. M. S. Berry is conducting as part of her studies at VPI&SU. The purpose of the study is to measure the self-concept and the work values of the above-mentioned CETA subjects in a pretest and a later posttest.

When. 1. Pretest - Participants will be tested when they are hired by CETA during April, May, and June, 1979. It is critical to the design of the study that the participants be tested within the first three days of their placement in a CETA position (preferably the first day during orientation at CETA office).

2. Posttest - Participants will be posttested with the same instruments (Work Values Inventory and *Tennessee Self Concept Scale*) at the time they leave the program or at
at the end of six months (whichever occurs first). It is critical to the design of the study that participants be posttested.

Procedure

It is important that the following procedure be adhered to as eligible participants are identified to participate in the study. (NOTE: If there is a reasonable doubt about the participants' ability to read on at least a seventh grade level, it will be necessary to read the items to these individuals and have them respond orally.) It should be emphasized to the participants that all information will be held confidential. Participants should be informed that these tests have no connection with their CETA position. Their answers reflect their own feelings and attitudes. Participants should use a No. 2 or 2 1/2 pencil to complete forms.

Demographic Survey - Follow in order these steps:
1. Have participants complete Demographic Survey.
2. Read directions at top of survey to participants.
3. Encourage participants to ask questions at any time if they do not understand an item.
4. Ask participants to sign permission statement on page 3 of survey.
5. Scan survey form when participants have completed it to insure that form is complete.

Work Values Inventory - Follow in order these steps:
1. Administer the Work Values Inventory.
2. Ask participants to fill in name and date on the inside front cover of test booklet (Disregard other blanks on that page.)
3. Read directions on top of page 3 aloud. There is no time limit.
4. Make sure that participants understand they are to mark answers in boxes in right-hand column.
5. Instruct participants to ask for assistance whenever they have questions.
6. Scan test booklet when participants have completed it to insure all items have been answered.
Tennessee Self Concept Scale - Follow in order these steps:

1. Administer Tennessee Self Concept Scale which includes (1) question booklet and (2) answer sheet. (NOTE: Do not mark in question booklet.)

2. Ask participants to fill in name and date on answer sheet. (Disregard other blanks.)

3. Read instructions on inside front cover of question booklet aloud. (Disregard instructions that have line marked through.) There is no time limit.

4. Demonstrate how to align page 1 of question booklet with answer sheet. (NOTE: Correct alignment of each page of question booklet with answer sheet is critical.)

5. Demonstrate how to align page 2 of question booklet with answer sheet.

6. Insure that participants understand how to align remaining pages with answer sheet.

7. Insure that participants understand how to mark their response if they wish to change an answer.

8. Instruct participants to ask for assistance whenever they have questions.

9. Scan answer sheet when participants have completed it to insure all items have been answered.

Pretest mailing instructions: Mail the Work Values Inventory test booklet and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale answer sheet to Ms. M. S. Berry in the self-addressed, stamped envelope that has been provided. (Retain the Tennessee Self Concept Scale test booklet for future testing.)

Posttest instructions: Readminister the Work Values Inventory and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale to participants at the time they leave their CETA position or at the end of six months whichever occurs first. Mail completed posttests in envelope that will be provided.
APPENDIX D

CORRESPONDENCE
May 22, 1979

Ms. Margaret Berry
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

Dear Ms. Berry:

In response to your telephone contact of this date, I do hereby acknowledge my awareness of your work in Southwest Virginia with regard to your degree program.

I have tried to support you in this effort and do endorse your efforts in this area.

It is my hope that you will be able to receive a grant from the Department of Labor to complete your dissertation entitled "Study of Self Concepts and Work Values of CETA Participants in Southwestern Virginia".

You have my pledge of continued assistance in this area.

Best regards,

, Director
CETA Regional Operations Center

GDG:Im
WISE COUNTY MANPOWER TRAINING SKILLS CENTER
A DESIGNATED SKILLS CENTER
Manpower Development and Training
Telephone

May 24, 1979

Mrs. Margaret Berry
Blacksburg, VA 24060

Dear Mrs. Berry

We appreciate your working with our trainees in regard to your "Study of Self-concept and Work Values of CETA Participants in Southwest Virginia."

We will continue to cooperate with you in any way that you wish in order to complete this study.

It is my understanding that you will be back in October in order to complete the work with this class.

I hope to see you then.

Sincerely yours

Director
Ms. Margaret Berry  
J.P.I. & S.J.  
Blacksburg, VA 24061

Dear Ms. Berry:

This will serve as my letter of permission for you to conduct testing of newly hired clerical SISTA participants for your study.

Enclosed are the test results from the only clerical position that we have filled since you were by our office. In the event that we have other vacancies and these are filled, we will conduct tests for these clerical positions.

If you have any questions concerning this testing, please contact my secretary, Barbara Edwards.

Sincerely,

County Administrator

BL/bae

Enc.
VPI&SU

Blacksburg, VA 24061
May 7, 1979

County Administrator
Smyth County

Dear:

Thank you for the recent opportunity to visit with you and your secretary to discuss the research study that I am conducting as part of my studies at VPI&SU. I certainly appreciate your willingness to assist me.

I will be in touch by phone from time to time. Meanwhile, if you should have any questions or concerns, please advise me.

Thanks ever so much for your time and assistance!

Sincerely,

Margaret S. Berry
Dear 

On April 23, 1979, I discussed with you by telephone the research study that I am pursuing as part of my studies at VPI&SU. Very briefly, I am including CETA participants in public service employment, work experience, and skill center clerical programs in this study. I am testing each new participant who enters one of these programs during the period April through October. The tests that will be used are the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Work Values Inventory. I wish to retest these CETA participants when they leave the program or at the end of six months, whichever occurs first.

From our conversation, I understand that you do not presently have openings in your clerical slots and that you may not have any openings during the time period mentioned above. If you do fill clerical slots in your program during the April-October, 1979, period, however, I would appreciate very much having the opportunity to include these individuals in my study.

I am enclosing a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience in writing me. If you prefer, you may call me at (office) or (home). I will certainly appreciate your assistance.

Sincerely,

Margaret S. Berry

Enclosure
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The two page vita has been removed from the scanned document. Page 2 of 2
SELF-CONCEPTS AND WORK VALUES OF CETA CLERICAL PARTICIPANTS IN SOUTHWESTERN VIRGINIA

by

Margaret Stidham Berry

(ABSTRACT)

Previous research associated with manpower programs has tended to emphasize economic outcome measures. The focus of this study was on noneconomic outcomes (self-concepts and work values) associated with participation in structured and nonstructured clerical Employment and Training programs. A theoretical framework for the study was that self-concepts and work values were more likely to be enhanced in a structured setting as compared with a nonstructured setting.

The specific problem was to determine which Employment and Training activity in ROC 1, i.e., Group 1 (public service employment and work experience) or Group 2 (skill center), produced the greater change in participants' self-concepts and work values. Two related subproblems were also studied: One problem dealt with changes that occurred in the self-concepts and work values of Subgroups 2A and 2B and the other problem dealt with the relationship of selected demographic variables and self-concepts and work values of Group 1 and Group 2 participants.

ROC 1, located in the Balance of State (prime sponsor), is comprised of 13 counties and 3 cities and towns in southwestern Virginia. The 109 economically disadvantaged female subjects in this study were
pre- and posttested with the *Tennessee Self Concept Scale* and the *Work Values Inventory* from April 1979 through March 1980 and included 36 subjects in Group 1 and 73 in Group 2.

The data for Group 1 revealed a mean self-concept pretest score of 343.53 and a mean posttest score of 341.19, reflecting a net loss of 2.34. Six work values subscales declined between pre- and posttesting while nine increased. The data for Group 2 showed a mean self-concept pretest score of 327.75 which increased to a mean posttest score of 337.68, an increase of 9.88. Only two work values subscales had a mean gain on the posttest. All other subscales reflected a net mean decline.

The pretest self-concept mean for Subgroup 2A was 313.30 and 337.20 for Subgroup 2B. Posttest mean were 329.52 for Subgroup 2A and 344.33 for Subgroup 2B. Subgroup 2A showed declines on means of 13 of the 15 work values subscales; Subgroup 2B had declines on 11 of the subscales.

Correlational analyses—Pearson $r$, point biserial, and Spearman rho—were used to study the relationship between selected demographic variables and work values and self-concepts. In Group 1, three subscales—management, surroundings, and independence—reflected a low correlation with age, two positive and one negative, respectively. Prestige had a low positive correlation with type of occupational experience. In Group 2, altruism had a low correlation with educational level. There was little if any correlation between self-concepts and the variables mentioned above in either Group 1 or Group 2.

It was concluded that (1) self-concepts were enhanced through participation in skill center programs, (2) self-concepts were not
enhanced through participation in public service employment and work experience programs, (3) as self-concepts increased and work values declined in Group 1, there was less need for work to enhance the subjects' feelings of worth, (4) all subjects valued the same four out of five work values subscales highest and the same four out of five subscales lowest, (5) the work values orientation of these Appalachian disadvantaged subjects was a combination of intrinsic, extrinsic, and concomitant valuing, (6) there was generally a lack of relationship between the demographic variables and self-concepts and work values, (7) in Group 1, there was a low positive relationship between age and supervisory relations and management, a low negative relationship between age and independence, and a low positive relationship between type of experience and prestige, and (10) there was a low positive relationship between educational level and altruism in Group 2.