SEX ROLE IDENTITY AND VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF ENROLLEES IN TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL DISPLACED HOMEMAKER PROGRAMS IN VIRGINIA

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

Background of the Problem

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

Changing social structures in America have resulted in large numbers of full-time homemakers who are forced to seek employment due to the cessation of financial support from their spouse or other individual. The term "displaced homemaker" is used in this study to describe an individual who, having been engaged in unpaid full-time homemaking for the majority of her or his adult life, has become the single

head of a household, while the primary financial support of their spouse, family, or other individual has been discontinued.

The vast majority of displaced homemakers are women. The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor estimates there are more than 4 million displaced homemakers in the United States including 83,000 in Virginia (U.S. Department of Labor, Women in the Population, 1979). These figures may be low due to the difficulty in identifying displaced homemakers. Furthermore, it is likely that the number will increase due to the rising divorce rate and longer lifespan of women.

A major contributing factor to the large number of displaced homemakers is the assignment of rigid sex roles to males and females within this society. Though undergoing change, the existence of the boundaries imposed by "social expectations" severely limits individuals in terms of acceptable behaviors and vocations. The traditional role for females is that of wife and mother, whereas males customarily have been the family breadwinner.

> The concept of the "division of labor"--the notion that each individual specializes in certain activities and engages in exchange with other individuals rather than each individual producing all the goods and services he or she requires -- is one of the oldest and most thoroughly accepted concepts in economics (Lloyd, 1975, p. 1).

The division of labor has been practiced throughout history as documented by anthropologists and historians. In primitive societies this practice resulted in the assignment of certain tasks based upon gender. Generally, males were responsible for hunting and providing food while females attended to domestic responsibilities such as child care and food preparation. The same roles have filtered down to modern day culture and are the premise upon which today's labor is based.

Occupational assignment on the basis of gender may have once seemed necessary for the performance of specific tasks; however, technological advances have virtually eliminated physical strength as a prerequisite for employment in most occupations. Despite the changing female role and increased participation of women in the workforce, society's mores have not kept pace with technology (Duncan, 1979; Kievit, 1976). Common beliefs as to the necessity of women staying at home continue to exist in spite of current work requirements and technology (Blake, 1974).

Young females generally fail to consider seriously their occupational role (Kievit, 1976; Matthews, 1974; Sauter, Seidl, & Karbon, 1980; Smith, 1980; Verheyden-Hilliard, 1975). Vocational interest and subsequent choice are based

upon many factors; however, a prevailing influence is the female's perceived sex-appropriateness of specific careers. The sex labeling of occupations is a deeply ingrained feature of attitudes toward work (Shinar, 1975). Limits established by such a labeling system have profound and pronounced implications for the vocational preparation and participation of females. Guidance counselors have frequently been criticized for overtly and subtly encouraging females to enter sex stereotyped occupations (DiSabatino, 1976; Fisher, 1979; Oliver, 1975; Tittle & Denker, 1977; Verheyden-Hilliard, 1975; Wells, 1978). Cultural expectations suggest that the participation of females in the labor force will be brief or sporadic and that "their real career is that of wife and mother" (Zuersher, 1975, p. 119). This traditional role is still prevalent in America; over 40 percent of women over age 16 are engaged in full-time homemaking (Challenges of the 80's, 1979). This concept of homemaking as a sole career contributes to females being underprepared for a vocation. Underpreparation is frequently reflected in the types of jobs women seek. Though increasing numbers of women are entering traditionally male fields, women still comprise the overwhelming majority in a number of occupations. Seventy-five percent of working women are employed in clerical and service occupations or

are doing manual labor in factories such as in the garment industry. Occupations having over 90 percent females include bank teller, typist, secretary, telephone operator, bookkeeper, and nurse (Quinn, 1979).

This occupational segregation provides few opportunities for advancement for several reasons. Differences in upward mobility for men and women interact with the custom of giving men and women qualitatively different jobs (Blake, 1975). Barrett (1979) describes three practices frequently used to maintain occupational segregation. First, women are rarely offered positions of authority, but rather are used as support staff as in the case of overwhelming numbers of female elementary teachers and a disproportionate number of male administrators. Second, jobs held by women are stereotyped according to attributes perceived as feminine. Such qualities as nurturance and caring for others are considered appropriately feminine and are the basis for many socially oriented jobs such as child care and social work. The third practice is that of placing women in work assignments that allow vicarious rather than direct achievements. Examples of this include the nurse who assists the physician and the secretary who prepares her boss for business dealings.

Women's participation in such a limited number of occupations has a definite relationship to the earning differential between females and males. In 1977, women employed full-time earned 59 cents for every $1.00 earned by men (Bomboy, 1979). The reality of this difference is more acutely demonstrated in the context of family income. In 1977, the median income of families headed by women was $7,765. The comparable figure for families headed by men was $17,517 (U.S. Department of Labor, Facts About Women Heads of Households and Heads of Families, 1979).

Displaced homemakers are empirical examples of women who have bought into the American dream of marriage and the promise of "living happily ever after." For these women, the dream has been shattered due to the disability or death of the spouse, marital dissolution, or other event resulting in the loss of primary financial support provided by such person.

> Socialized to believe that marriage would provide financial and emotional security "til death do us part," most displaced homemakers come to middle age unprepared for the transition to family breadwinner and head of household which often faces them (Marano, 1979, p. 1).

Frequently, displaced homemakers are women who have worked for a short time during the early stages of marriage and dropped out of the labor force for child rearing and full-

time homemaking (Bodeen, 1978; Chambers, 1978; Herr & Cramer, 1979; Sommers & Shields, 1978).

> For this generation of older women, the wife-mother roles have taken precedence over the worker role, and, in fact, the idea of commitment to a professional or work role appears inconsistent with the older women's image of the female role (Payne & Whittington, 1976, p. 494).

Programs and centers specifically designed to meet the needs of displaced homemakers have been established across the country. The Displaced Homemakers Network, a national organization established to coordinate communication and provide information and technical assistance to those interested in assisting displaced homemakers, reports 400 centers currently in operation (Network News, 1981). These centers serve less than two percent of the country's four million displaced homemakers (Displaced Homemakers Under CETA Title III, Fact Sheet, 1981). Services within programs vary but generally include personal and vocational counseling. Many displaced homemaker programs offer vocational education which can usually be classified as training for either traditional or nontraditional jobs.

The researcher was unable to locate studies investigating whether displaced homemakers enrolled in traditional programs differ from those in nontraditional programs in terms of vocational interests, sex role or demographic pro-

file. It is likely that displaced homemakers enroll in programs primarily as a result of the program availability; however, it is possible that enrollees in the two types of programs may differ. Similarly, it is possible that instructors in traditional and nontraditional programs may be different in terms of sex role and demography.

A common objective of many centers is assisting the displaced homemaker to realistically identify the personal and occupational options available to her. The matter of available options is an important consideration. However, a crucial factor is the interest and willingness of women to take advantage of an expanding reservoir of employment opportunities. Displaced homemaker programs are sometimes criticized for focusing heavily on personal counseling rather than providing vocational training. "Critics cite the fact that much of the training is sex-stereotyped, that older women are excluded and that training which is available does not lead to viable employment in the private sector" (Vinick & Jacobs, 1980, p. 30). Entry or reentry into the labor force implies a compounded set of problems for the displaced homemaker. She is in need of vocational counseling and training or at least, up-dated skills training (Herr & Cramer, 1979; Vocational Counseling for Displaced Homemakers: A Manual, 1980). Frequently, she finds herself sub-

ject to discrimination due to age and sex when applying for jobs. Racism further complicates the plight of the minority woman (Sommers & Shields, 1978). Displaced homemakers must be prepared to meet and overcome these problems.

While experiencing personal loss and social change, a fundamental need of displaced homemakers is employment. The lack of income is a problem demanding immediate attention.

> Displaced homemakers can benefit, as many other Americans, from mental health and other life style rehabilitation services. Yet, they have, as a first priority, the need for vocational counseling and training leading to paid employment so that they may become independent and have security, self-esteem, dignity, and social respect that comes with that independence (Jacobs, 1980, p. 8).

Positive occupational choice and placement have tremendous impact on the progress and independence of the displaced homemaker. This placement should be based upon a match of the individual's skills and interests with a suitable occupation. This procedure includes career exploration as well as an examination of attitudes towards work and social roles and values. Expanding the displaced homemaker's awareness of careers and sex role attitudes will increase the individual's pool of available options including the possibility of nontraditional careers.

Research specific to displaced homemakers is limited due to the relative recency of recognition and concern for the large number of affected persons. Information is needed which includes demographic profiles as well as data on sex roles and vocational interests; the latter two having implications for the existence of displaced homemakers as a special problem due to their decision to pursue the traditional role of full-time homemaker as a career.

Statement of Purpose

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in the sex role identity of enrollees in traditional displaced homemaker programs and enrollees in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

2. Is there a difference in the vocational interests of enrollees in traditional displaced homemaker programs and enrollees in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

3. Is there a change in the sex role identity of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

4. Is there a change in the vocational interests of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

5. Is there a difference in the sex role identity of instructors in traditional displaced homemaker programs and instructors in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

6. Is there a change in the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

7. What are the demographic characteristics of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

8. What are the demographic characteristics of instructors in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Significance of the Study

There is a major gap in research concerning displaced homemakers as a separate group. Most studies concerning females are limited to atypical groups including college students and mental patients and have little relevance or generalizability to the characteristics, interests, and needs of displaced homemakers (Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976). This study provides information specific to displaced homemakers enrolled in four programs in Virginia.

This study attempted to examine the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs. The study compared the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional programs. By comparing the traditional enrollees to the nontraditional enrollees, the study was able to assess similarities and differences between the two groups as well as measure changes in scores which may be attributed in part to their participation in the displaced homemaker program. With this information, instructors and program planners will be able to better understand sex role percep-

tions and vocational interests of displaced homemakers and plan programs which are responsive to their needs and interests as they are encouraged to prepare for and seek employment. This knowledge may also be beneficial in screening potential program enrollees as well as counseling new and continuing enrollees. Differences in desires for employment, as well as the overall level of change in sex role attitudes, should be important components of employment policies that seek to match available opportunities with the skills and desires of potential workers, and are consonant with improving the status of women and achieving affirmative action goals (Macke, Hudis, & Larrick, 1978). The psychological construct of sex role identity has considerable potential in helping to fill a gap in the body of knowledge dealing with the displaced homemaker.

This study also measured and described the sex role identity of instructors in traditional and nontraditional programs. This information has potential value for use in the selection of instructors for displaced homemaker programs with particular consideration for those involved with the nontraditional programs.

A third component of the study was the collection of demographic data on enrollees and instructors. This feature

provides a profile of those persons directly involved in displaced homemaker programs with implications for program planning and recruitment of enrollees.

Assumptions

In this study the following assumptions were made:

1. Participants in the study had a sex role identity as measured by the BEM Inventory.

2. Participants in the study had vocational interests as measured by the Self-Directed Search.

3. The participants accurately and candidly responded to the instruments used in the study.

Delimitations of the Study

The generalizability of this study was affected by the following delimitations:

1. The study was confined to enrollees and instructors of displaced homemaker programs within Virginia resulting in a relatively small number of research participants.

2. The sample was selected from women enrolled in displaced homemaker programs rather than the general displaced homemaker population within Virginia.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were used in this study:

BEM Inventory. A paper and pencil instrument developed by Sandra Bem consisting of sixty items which distinguishes personality characteristics as feminine or masculine.

Displaced Homemaker. An individual who, having been engaged in unpaid full-time homemaking for the majority of her or his adult life, has become the single head of a household, while the primary financial support of their spouse, family, or other individual has been discontinued.

Nontraditional Displaced Homemaker Program. A program in which displaced homemakers were trained or encouraged to enter occupational areas in which 75 percent or more of the workers are male.

Traditional Displaced Homemaker Program. A program in which displaced homemakers were trained or encouraged to enter occupational areas in which 75 percent or more of the workers are female.

Self-Directed Search. A paper and pencil instrument developed by John Holland which assesses vocational competencies and interests and categorizes them into six occupational areas--Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional.

Sex Role Identity. An awareness of one's own attributes (behavior, personality characteristics, emotional responses, and attitudes) defined as appropriate to one's culture for his or her sex (Sears, 1974). The four types of sex role identity included in this study are:

Androgyny--The integration of high levels of masculine and feminine traits within a single individual (Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976).

Femininity--The collection of behavioral and personality traits traditionally associated with females.

Masculinity--The collection of behavioral and personality traits traditionally associated with males.

Undifferentiated--The low endorsement of both masculine and feminine traits within an individual (Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976).

Sex Stereotyping. The conscious or unconscious values and beliefs which categorize the sexes and direct males and females into those attitudes, interests, careers, actions, and goals considered "appropriate" for their particular sex.

Vocational Interest. An individual's desire for more information or training concerning an occupation or trade.

Summary

The increasing incidence of displaced homemakers is a persistent problem which has generated recent interest due to the rising divorce rate and the longer lifespan of females. Socialized to believe marriage would last until death, many women are not prepared to deal with the economic realities of divorce and widowhood and find themselves ill-equipped to enter the workforce. Factors inhibiting work entry may include sex stereotyped attitudes of roles which may limit the perceived range of acceptable behaviors and careers, as well as a lack of vocational information and skills necessary for obtaining employment.

This study attempted to investigate the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs, and to determine if these variables changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Sex role identity and change was also investigated for instructors in these displaced homemaker programs. Demographic information was collected on enrollees and instructors to provide base data for profiles of each group.

CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature and Research

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

A review of the literature was undertaken to establish a need for the study and to examine social factors contributing to the existence and incidence of displaced homemakers in the United States. The search included a review of studies dealing with divorced and widowed females, sex role identity, sex stereotyping, vocational interests, and the labor patterns of females. This chapter is divided into

three sections. The first section includes information relevant to displaced homemakers including background on the displaced homemaker movement. The development of sex role identity and socialization of females is discussed in the second section. The third section traces the vocational interests and labor patterns of females.

Displaced Homemakers

The American family is experiencing change and stress at a rate unprecedented in this society. With increased mobility and changing lifestyles as well as a reexamination of personal values, many of the mores and laws pertinent to the family have given way to more liberal revisions and interpretations. Displaced homemakers are a product of this changing society. The term displaced homemaker is used in this study to describe an individual who, having been engaged in unpaid full-time homemaking for the majority of her or his adult life, has become the single head of a household, while the primary financial support of their spouse, family, or other individual has been discontinued.

Historically, the two bases for marriage were economic and social (Sawhill, 1976). Expected outcomes of marriage included children and the maintanence of the couple until termination by death. Technological advances in the twenti-

eth century have made it possible for people to better control and limit the number of children conceived, resulting in smaller family size. Advances in medicine have increased the general level of health as well as the life span of males and females giving greater implications to the phrase "til death do us part" in the marriage vows. Changes in social attitudes, influenced in part by technology, no longer stigmatize couples for remaining childless or for deciding to terminate the marriage. As in all periods of transition, there are casualties as well as beneficiaries. Displaced homemakers are one such casualty of this transition.

> Displaced homemakers are those persons caught in the middle--in the middle of changing family structure, in the middle of new divorce laws and changing societal mores, in the middle of life. Changing aspirations and expectations of women have left them stranded, caught between generations. The psychological toll is enormous (Displaced Homemakers: Program Options, 1978, p. 1.1).

Legislative Background. The dilemma of displaced homemakers was initially brought to public attention through the efforts of two California women, Tish Sommers and Laurie Shields (Bodeen, 1978; Burke, 1979; Chambers, 1978; Sommers, & Shields, 1978; Raimy, 1977). Sommers and Shields, in 1975, coined the term "displaced homemaker". The same year the first Displaced Homemakers Assistance Act was drafted

and the Alliance for Displaced Homemakers was organized to work for passage of the bill. In September 1975, the first state bill was passed in California.

As a result of these grassroots efforts, funds for serving displaced homemakers have been allocated through the Education Amendments of 1976 and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Amendments of 1978 (CETA). Descriptions of the term displaced homemakers are included to illustrate the broad based interpretations being used.

The first description is in the Education Amendments of 1976, P.L. 94-482, Title II, Subpart 2 - Basic Grant, Section 120 (b)(L), which authorizes program funding of vocational education for--

> (i) persons who had been solely homemakers but who now, because of dissolution of marriage, must seek employment;
>
> (ii) persons who are currently single heads of households and who lack adequate job skills;
>
> (iii) persons who are currently homemakers and part-time workers but who wish to secure a full-time job; and
>
> (iv) women who are now in jobs which have been traditionally considered jobs for females and who wish to seek employment in job areas which have not been traditionally considered job areas for females, and men who are now in jobs which have been traditionally considered jobs for males and who wish to seek employment in job areas which have not been traditionally considered job areas for males (p. 2188).

A United States Office of Education study in 1978 revealed that half the states had failed to include a program to meet the needs of displaced homemakers in their five-year state plans (Wells, 1978).

A second description, in the Comprehensive Employment and Training Amendments of 1978, P.L. 95-524, Section 3 (7), defines displaced homemaker as an individual who:

> (a) has not worked in the labor force for a substantial number of years but has, during those years, worked in the home providing unpaid services for family members; and
>
> (b) (1) has been dependent on public assistance or on the income of another family member but is no longer supported by that income; or
>
> (2) is receiving public assistance on account of dependent children in the home, especially where such assistance will soon be terminated; and
>
> (c) is unemployed or underemployed and is experiencing difficulty in obtaining or upgrading employment (p. 1913).

The third description of the displaced homemaker has evolved from the Displaced Homemaker Network. In 1976, the Displaced Homemaker Network was established in Washington, D.C. to serve as a clearinghouse for displaced homemaker news and concerns. This organization uses the term displaced homemaker to describe persons who have been engaged in full-time homemaking, are over 35 years of age, and who have lost their means of financial support as a result of

spousal death, divorce, disability, or abandonment (Chambers, 1978; Eliason, 1978; Sommers & Shields, 1978; Vinick & Jacobs, 1980).

By 1977, two model displaced homemaker centers funded as demonstration projects were in their second year of operation in Oakland, California and Baltimore, Maryland. The same year 16 additional states enacted legislation to meet the needs of displaced homemakers. As of April, 1981, displaced homemaker legislation had been passed in 33 states. Virginia is not among this number.

Incidence and Causal Factors. The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor estimates there are approximately 4.13 million displaced homemakers in the United States including 83,000 in Virginia (U.S. Department of Labor, Women in the Population, 1979). Displacement may be attributed to any of several events including divorce, separation, abandonment, death, or disability of the spouse. Subscribers to social tradition, these women have spent the majority of their adult life fulfilling the roles of wife and mother with little or no paid employment. The ranks of displaced homemakers include women from all social strata. The range includes former welfare recipients as well as wives of professionals who stayed home to rear children as the hus-

band established his career (When Women on Their Own Are Thrown Onto the Labor Market, 1977). In Real Women, Real Lives, the Wisconsin Governor's Commission on the Status of Women contends that "women have a fifty-fifty chance of being divorced, separated or widowed by the time they reach middle age" (1978, p. 46).

The increasing number of displaced homemakers is a direct result of a number of factors. One such factor is the longer lifespan of females. Women live approximately eight years longer than men resulting in a 5 to 1 ratio of widows to widowers (Sales, 1978). There are approximately 12 million widows and widowers in the United States--10 million widows and 2 million widowers. "It is estimated that three out of four women now married will eventually become widows" (Peterson & Briley, 1977, p. 7). The likelihood of remarriage for the widow is bleak as women usually marry men older than themselves while men seek younger women for mates. The situation for widowers is quite the opposite due to the expanded pool of younger females available as well as social acceptance of such a union (Sommers, 1974).

An obvious problem facing widows is the change in economic security. Having worked very little or not at all for pay, the displaced homemaker is not eligible for unemploy-

ment compensation and may be too young to receive Social Security. Unless her children are under 18 years old, she cannot qualify for Aid to Families with Dependent Children. If the mate's death followed a long illness, the widow may be faced with tremendous medical debts. Should the family wealth be in real estate or convertible securities, inheritance taxes could force the widow to sell these holdings including her home (Chambers, 1978). If available, Social Security and most life insurance policies are generally inadequate to sustain a single person or family for an extended period of time (Bodeen, 1978; Eliason, 1978; Vinick & Jacobs, 1980).

A second factor resulting in the increasing number of displaced homemakers is the escalating divorce rate. The United States has the highest divorce rate in the world with one in three marriages being terminated (Bomboy, 1979; Grossman, 1977; Marano, 1979). "There were 1,077,000 divorces in the United Staes in 1976. In 1974, there were 970,000, nearly double the 479,000 divorces in 1965" (Bardwick, 1979, p. 119). There are many reasons for the increase in the number of divorces including the social and legal endorsement of marital dissolution resulting in the adoption of no-fault divorce provisions in 47 states (Of Women, Knights and Horses, 1979). Though advantageous to

young marriage partners, no-fault divorce can be financially devastating to older women. Devoid of this bargaining leverage, older women can virtually lose everything they have worked in the home to maintain throughout their marriage.

Movies, literature, and personal accounts abound with stories of divorced husbands who were "taken to the cleaners" by ex-wives. However, according to the International Women's Year Commission Poll, only 14 percent of women are awarded alimony and of that figure, only 45 percent receive payment. Of the 47 percent of divorced women awarded child support only 21 percent collect it on a regular basis (Abeel, 1978; Bodeen, 1978; Sommers & Shields, 1978). At least two states, Pennsylvania and Texas, have abandoned alimony entirely (Yarmon, 1979). Even for working women, the financial cost of divorce is higher for females than males with females experiencing a loss in real income of 29 percent compared to an 11 percent reduction for males (Sawhill, 1976).

Economic and Social Status of Displaced Homemakers. The increasing incidence of displaced homemakers gives rise to an increase in the number of female-headed households. In 1978, women headed one-fourth of all households and about

14 percent of all families (U.S. Department of Labor, Facts About Women Heads of Households and Heads of Families, 1979). Head of household refers to one person in each household, family, or subfamily designated as the "head". Head of family refers to the head of a primary or secondary family and does not necessarily include related persons. Divorced women accounted for one-third of women who headed families while widowed and separated women accounted for 30 percent and 20 percent respectively. The remaining female family heads were single (Grossman, 1977; Johnson, 1978). The median age of women heading households was 42.7 years (Wiskowski, 1978). Of the 8.12 million families headed by women, one of every three was living below the officially defined poverty level which is estimated at $6,191 in 1977, for a non-farm family of four. This one in three figure compares to one in eighteen husband-wife families (Forsythe, 1978-79; Johnson, 1978). With over one-half of divorced women employed, they constitute the largest group of females participating in the labor force.

Though the majority of women have historically selected homemaking as a career, it is not generally recognized as work for which financial remuneration is appropriate. The domestic worker is the exception to this dictum in that she is paid for performing household duties. If, however, she

marries her employer, her status changes from employee to wife and she loses all rights to wages and benefits for the same services she was previously paid to conduct.

> In almost all industrialized countries, the housewife as worker has no right to financial benefits, such as sickness or unemployment benefits that other workers receive through state insurance systems. The social response to this kind of ambivalent status--neither fish nor fowl, neither supplier of emotional resources nor supplier of material ones--has made the role of housewife a low-status one with which women identify reluctantly as evidenced by the defensive comment "I'm just a housewife" (Unger, 1979, p. 294).

What is the value of homemaking? A number of people have tried to assess the worth of the tasks routinely performed by a full-time homemaker. Due to the difficulty in assigning agreeable values for services rendered as well as the fact that the homemaker's services are not included in the Gross National Product, homemaking is often referred to as "the invisible occupation" (Fethke, & Hauserman, 1979). Though unquestionably the work of the homemaker contributes and is essential to the day to day operation of the home, the absence of standards and rates make it difficult to determine the actual value of such services (Giele, 1978; Kahne, 1979; McCarthy, 1976; Nelson, 1977; U.S. Department of Labor, Women and Work, 1977).

Recently there has been a renewed interest in ascribing a monetary value for housework, motivated not so much by

economists as by lawyers. The information is used for legal cases, such as insurance settlements, in the event of the death of a woman who was a wife and mother and whose services must now be purchased from another source or even in divorce cases in which the woman is requesting alimony. In 1978, the American Council of Life Insurance estimated the annual unpaid work of the average homemaker to be worth $17,351 (Chambers, 1978). Similarly, Michael Minton, a Chicago attorney specializing in divorce law, has developed a detailed listing of services, length of time spent per week at each task, and a market value for each service. His calculations estimate the annual value of homemaking services to be $40,823 (Green, 1980).

Without assigning a clear monetary value for household services, most would agree that the full-time homemaker contributes substantially in services to the family unit. In cases of divorce, separation, or widowhood, the displaced homemaker has been, in essence, fired from her position of homemaker and is unemployed after spending a considerable number of years in the position of wife and mother.

In addition to the obvious change in financial status for the displaced homemaker, she also faces the loss of the role of wife. This loss of role threatens self esteem and

feelings of well-being. The problem is compounded for the middle-aged woman whose role of mother may also be diminishing with the increased independence of offspring (Bagby, 1979; Sales, 1978; Sheehy, 1974; Trieff, 1979). In 1967, psychiatrists Holmes and Rahe published a "social readjustment scale" ranking 43 life events according to the amount of stress provoked by each. According to their report, death of one's spouse received the highest number of points--100--while divorce rated 73 points and marital separation 65 points. The ensuing stress may incite some women to take their lives. The National Center for Health Statistics reports data linking suicide with marital disruption.

> With particular reference to deaths from suicide, among white females and both white and non-white males, the suicide rate is higher among the divorced than among people of any other marital status. In the case of non-white females, the suicide rate is highest in the widowed and second highest in the divorced, where the rate is still twice that of the married (Bloom, White, & Asher, 1979, p. 191).

To assist displaced homemakers in coping with the many changes taking place in their life, most displaced homemaker programs concentrate on personal counseling, stress management, and peer support. Former displaced homemakers serve as role models for current program enrollees to prove that the seemingly insurmountable obstacles can be overcome. An equally important need of displaced homemakers is vocational

information and preparation as well as an awareness of work and role attitudes. The availability of such services assists the displaced homemaker in identifying a wider range of career opportunities. The obvious outcome is entry and success in an occupation enabling her to become financially independent and more emotionally stable.

Sex Role Identity and Socialization of Females

Sex role identity is the awareness of one's own attributes--behavior, personality characteristics, emotional responses, and attitudes--defined as appropriate to one's culture for his or her sex (Sears, 1974). "Although there is a substantial body of research and theory on sex typing, our understanding of the process is far from complete" (Mussen, 1969, p. 708). The development of sex role identity is influenced by biological and cultural factors which combine to form the destiny of the individual (Block, 1973).

Sex Role Acquisition. The three main theories which attempt to explain sex role acquisition and development are: a) Identification, b) Social Learning, and c) Cognitive-Developmental. The first theoretical basis for sex role acquisition is Freud's Identification theory. According to Freud, the very young child identifies mainly with the primary caregiver which is the mother in most cases (Lee &

Hertzberg, 1978). At approximately age four, males and females begin to identify with the opposite-sex parent. Referred to as the Oedipal complex (in the case of males) and the Electra complex (in the case of females), the child's feelings become instinctively sexual in nature. Resolution of this stage is based upon a fear of rejection and retaliation which motivates the child to identify with the same-sex parent. It is believed that the emotional tie between parent and child is the stimulus which activates the child's motive to identify with or imitate the parent (Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, & Zellman, 1978; Flake-Hobson, Skeen, & Robinson, 1980).

The second theory accounting for sex role acquisition is Social Learning. Social Learning is the best known and most widely accepted explanation of sex typing. It refers to the reinforcement of sex appropriate behavior and punishment of inappropriate behavior (Kagan, 1964; Mussen, 1969; Robinson & Hobson, 1978; Smart & Smart, 1972). This acknowledgement of behavior may be verbal or nonverbal. It may be overt as in the case of a father urging a crying son to "be a big man, like daddy" or subtle as a mother's disapproving frown to the daughter whose clothes are soiled from playing in the dirt. Other examples include providing children with toys that reinforce a particular sex role,

such as dolls for females and trucks for males. "After years of being reinforced, punished, or ignored for various types of behavior, the child becomes 'conditioned' to take either a masculine or feminine role" (Robinson & Hobson, 1978, p. 16).

The third theory of sex role development is Cognitive-Developmental. Kohlberg (1966) contends that one's sexual identity parallels cognitive development and that the individual assumes an active role in interacting with the environment. According to Kohlberg, the crucial organizer of gender related roles is the child's self-classification as a "boy" or "girl". As the child matures intellectually, she or he can select the behaviors felt to be sex appropriate. Some sex models remain an important component of this theory with minimal emphasis on the role of social reinforcement (Frieze, et al., 1978; Kaplan & Bean, 1976; Mussen, 1969; Robinson & Hobson, 1978).

The fundamental roots of the acquisition of sex role identity lie in the determination of the biological sex of an individual at the time of conception. Researchers differ as to the degree to which genetic factors influence sex role identity. McGuinness (1975) contends that in addition to obvious physical differences between males and females,

there also exist differences in disposition and intellectual capacities which are usually attributed to social influence. Spence and Helmreich discuss the lack of definitive data regarding "the existence of genetically determined differences in the tempermental makeup of men and women" (1978, p. 5). They further indicate that the human personality is highly malleable. It is difficult to isolate gender as the sole variable for studying sex role identity, because cultural experiences begin to affect the infant from the moment of birth.

> In the delivery rooms of many hospitals it is the custom to wrap the newborn baby in either a pink or blue blanket, depending on its sex as determined by the appearance of the genitalia. From this moment on, the child's maleness or femaleness is constantly reinforced. It is difficult, then, to determine the extent to which the child's learning of his [or her] sex role may be influenced by underlying biological predispositions (Hamburg & Lunde, 1966, p. 15).

Frieze, et al., (1978) discuss biological differences in females who were prenatally exposed to androgens. In general, the patient population was more "masculine" than the control group; however, their behavior was well within the range of acceptable behavior for females. The authors also discuss gender reassignment in which infants' sex assignments were changed prior to eighteen months of age. In each case cited, the child developed the reassigned gender and adopted behaviors appropriate to that gender role. Their report suggests:

> One's gender is not preordained by one's sex chromosomes nor by one's prenatal hormonal history. While prenatal hormones may affect some aspects of gender-role identity, this, too, is determined for the most part by the sex of rearing rather than the genetic or prenatal hormone sex. In fact, the effect of rearing is so strong that it can and does override, for the most part, the effects of these biological factors if it is established at a young age (p. 90).

Rosenberg concurs with this belief and speculates that "socialization plays a role so heavy that the biologic component may be irrelevant" (1973, p. 387).

Socialization. Most research pertinent to sex role development centers around socialization processes. These processes begin at birth and continue throughout one's lifetime. The learning of sex roles is cross-cultural as demonstrated by Mead's classic research of three New Guinea tribes (1935). Among the Mundugumor, both males and females tended to display traits considered masculine by Western cultural standards. Both sexes were ruthless, aggressive, and unresponsive. In contrast, both sexes of the Arapesh were cooperative, unaggressive, and responsive to others needs--traits associated with the feminine role in the Western world. Neither tribe differentiated traits on the basis of gender. In the third tribe, the Tchambuli, the personality traits demonstrated were the antithesis of those practiced in Western cultures. Tchambuli women were dominant,

aggressive, and impersonal while the men were dependent and less responsible.

Although specific roles vary somewhat for each culture, there are cross cultural regularities which are prevalent in the majority of civilizations. In most cultures, social institutions are organized around the male. Males are generally dominant and aggressive. They are usually assigned more physically strenuous and dangerous tasks, while females perform established routines in the home and community (Bardwick, 1979; Block, 1973; Chodorow, 1971; Ford, 1970; Mussen, 1969).

"Masculinity and femininity are by no means automatic consequences of being born a boy or girl" (Sears, 1974, p. 133). Instead, sex role identity is a combination of biological and cultural factors which unite to determine which and to what degree sex role behaviors will be internalized. "Children from the first two years of life show an awareness that they are either male or female" (Green, 1976, p. 15). By age four, the majority of children demonstrate sex appropriate behaviors which will undergo only minor changes for the remainder of the individual's life (Frieze, et al., 1978; Green, 1976).

"Sex role stereotyping is learned early, increases with age, and holds true for both sexes as well as across socio-economic levels and religious affiliations" (Oliver, 1975, p. 435). The early formative years of a child are critical in the development of sex role identity as the child responds to a variety of biological and sociological influences. From birth, males and females are treated differently with the assignment of names and clothing appropriate to their sex. In addition, they are surrounded by toys deemed suitable either for males or females though occasionally a plaything may be offered which can be shared by both sexes. Television, literature, and people around the child provide her or him with role models of appropriate behavior patterns. Males are encouraged to be aggressive, dominant, competitive, and unemotional, while females are encouraged to be submissive, gentle, dependent, and emotional. Such behaviors are reinforced until they become a part of the child's identity. The child is taught to believe that males and females are different and perform accordingly in all situations. The most frequent result of these efforts in socialization is most always the development of sex stereotyped attitudes of how males and females respectively are "supposed to behave".

Different social values are attached to different sex roles. In a classic study by Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosencrantz, and Vogel (1979), it was concluded that clinicians hold different concepts of mental health for males and females and that these differences parallel the sex role stereotypes predominant in this culture. This double standard of mental health suggests that "healthy women differ from healthy men by being more submissive, less independent, less adventurous, more easily influenced, less competitive . . . and disliking math and science" (Broverman, et al., 1970, p. 4-5). This constellation of traits comprise a negative assessment of women--an unusual way of describing a mature, healthy individual (Broverman, et al., 1970). Further research by this group indicates that women are perceived as less competent, less logical and less objective than men and that incorporation of these negative traits results in a more negative self-concept for females than males (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972). The study also revealed a significant correlation between self-concept and family size in that women with high self-concept scores had fewer children than those with low scores. Kagan (1964) concurs with Broverman, et al., concerning the devaluation of the feminine role and its resulting effect making women feel less adequate and more

fearful than most men. Frieze and Ramsey (1976) investigated nonverbal behaviors of females observing body posture, location in space, facial cues and voice tones. They concluded that nonverbal behaviors of females frequently communicate low status and submission--attributes traditionally associated with femininity.

> In sex as in race, "separate but equal" does not appear to be a viable condition. Although males and females are perceived to possess different qualities, these qualities are not generally viewed as being of equivalent value to society. Men and masculine characteristics are more highly valued than women and feminine charateristics. Male characteristics are considered to be more socially desirable by members of both sexes (Unger, 1979, p. 35).

Sex role stereotyping is not a new problem but rather a continuing one with increasing significance in the limitations it places on both males and females. Stereotyping is evident in the types of roles females select. Females often project themselves in a parental rather than occupational role (Weitz, 1977; Yorburg, 1974; Zuersher, 1975). Girls tend to view their future roles as those of wife and mother while boys tend to identify with employment. Frequently, the girl assumes the role of wife and mother complete with baby doll while the boy plays a police officer, fire fighter, physician or other occupational role. These social roles are continually reinforced by parents, teachers, television, literature, and social customs. Yorburg (1974)

attributes this in part to sex-typed learning experiences which result in a stronger need for security than for challenge in most women. Frieze, et al. (1978) contend that, as females are expected to be a wife and mother, they choose a husband rather than a job as the major determinate of their future. "Male authority in marriage is institutionalized in our society" (Unger, 1979, p. 289). Though the word "obey" has been removed from "love, honor, and obey" in the marriage vows, married women still derive most of their status from that of their husbands. Neither husbands nor wives pay attention to the attainments of wives in assessing the social status of a married couple (Unger, 1979). This absorption of role is illustrated when, at the conclusion of the traditional wedding ceremony, the marriage official pronounces the couple "man and wife". Hence, the male becomes a "man"--a reference to gender, while the female becomes a "wife"--a reference to role. Brown, Feldberg, Fox, and Kohen (1976) refer to marriage as the "wife/mother package". Though not forced on the female, both husband and wife learn to expect the traditional family situation based on their past experiences.

Friedan (1963) coined the term "feminine mystic" to describe this total familial commitment on behalf of females. This image promotes the domestic aspects of femi-

nine existence--cleaning, cooking, washing, bearing children--into a religion in which the woman must excel lest she be denied her femininity. The "feminine mystic" has been a role traditionally accepted by women through the ages. Weitz (1977) attributes this role adoption to the lack of successful female career models, pressure and attitudes of parents and peers, geographic isolation, and discrimination. O'Leary (1974) discusses the above reasons including male promoters' attitudes toward women and their reluctance to advance females as quickly as males in management positions.

Implications of Sex Role Identity. Strongly sex-typed adults, whether masculine or feminine, are at a disadvantage in their lack of flexibility. Stringent sex roles restrict the range of behaviors and emotions considered acceptable in society (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977). Extreme sex role rigidity, rather than flexibility, has been associated with a variety of disadvantageous traits including decreased self-concept (Rosencrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968), low levels of general intelligence and creativity (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977), low levels of maturity (Block, 1973), low levels of achievement (Horner, 1972), negative mental health (Marecek, 1979; Rosencrantz, et al., 1968), and increased stress levels (Brown & Manela, 1978). These

traits are most pronounced in the incidence of feminine sex role identity of women.

There is growing evidence of an alternative to the strict male/female sex role assignment as this culture begins a slow departure from rigid gender norms (Bardwick, 1979). As the structure of society and the family changes with increasing number of females becoming heads of households and entering the workforce, it is advantageous that they become less sex-typed in attitudes and behaviors. Until recently, masculinity and femininity have been considered to be bipolar opposites (Bem, 1974; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). This concept of "either/or" is giving way to the concept of integration. This integration of both masculine and feminine traits is known as androgyny (Bem 1974; Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Androgyny permits the individual to select those traits, characteristics and emotions believed to be personally desirable regardless of their purported sex appropriateness. In effect, androgyny puts no restrictions on the range of behaviors available to an individual as she or he moves from situation to situation (Bem, 1975). Androgynous individuals are not forced to assume roles on the basis of gender (Bardwick, 1979).

During the 1970's, many psychologists advocated the abandonment of traditional bipolar masculinity-femininity measures in favor of a dualistic concept of sex role identity (Bem, 1974; Block, 1973; Constantinople, 1973; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). This led to the development of the BEM Inventory (1979), an instrument used to determine sex role identity. The BEM is unique in that at least two features distinguish it from most masculinity-femininity scales. The BEM Inventory treats masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions rather than as two ends of a single dimension. One's score may be (a) high on both dimensions indicating androgyny, (b) low on both dimensions indicating an undifferentiated role, or (c) high on one dimension but low on another indicating masculinity or femininity. Secondly, it is based on "a conception of the traditionally sex-typed person as someone who is highly attuned to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and who uses such definitions as the ideal standard against which her or his behavior is to be evaluated" (Bem, 1979, p. 2). The BEM has been widely used with adults and college students.

Though the literature revealed no studies which specifically researched the sex role identity of displaced homemakers, two studies did investigate the sex roles of housewives. In the first study conducted by Jordan-Viola,

Fassberg, and Viola (1976), scores on the BEM Inventory were compared for four groups of females--members of feminist organizations, undergraduate university women, working women, and housewives. Of these groups, housewives scored significantly higher on femininity than did the other subjects.

A second study compared scores on the BEM Inventory of three occupational categories of people--male and female industrial workers, male police officers, and nonworking housewives (Gaudreau, 1977). Gaudreau reported that housewives scored significantly higher on femininity than respondents in the other categories.

Researchers have attempted to correlate sex role identity with a number of demographic variables. Evidence to date seems inconclusive as to the strength of these relationships.

There are discrepancies as to the relationship between age and sex role identity of women. Vanier (1978) reported less traditionalism and sex stereotyping among women under 30 years of age compared to those over 30. In contrast, Sales (1978) and Neugarten and Guttmann (1968) reported female dominance in middle age. Schoech's (1977) research found middle age women to be more androgynous; however, she

cautions the generalizability of this finding as her sample was composed of women described as successful career women. Two studies, conducted by Mason and Bumpass (1975) and Hoffman and Fidell (1979) reported no relationship between sex role and age of women.

Divorced and separated women were reported to be slightly less traditional than those of other marital standings (Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976; Trieff, 1979). Mason and Bumpass (1975) reported no relationship between marital status and sex role while Payne and Whittington (1976) expressed a need for further study particularly in the case of older women.

A number of researchers concurred that higher levels of education were positively related to androgyny and the acceptance of both masculine and feminine traits within an individual (Brown, Perry, & Harburg, 1977; Hoffman & Fidell, 1979; Michaelson & Aaland, 1976; Rosencrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). An exception to this correlation was not noted.

Women with high self-concepts and low femininity scores were reported to have fewer children than women with low self-concept and high femininity scores (Broverman, et al., 1972). Mason and Bumpass (1975) reported no relationship between number of children and sex roles of females.

Mason, Czajka, and Arber (1976) reported a relationship between recent employment and less traditional sex role attitudes of women. Hoffman and Fidell (1979) concur with these findings and specifically link employment with masculine and androgynous roles of women.

Vocational Interests and Labor Patterns of Females

Vocational Interests of Children. Vocational interests and choices of women are directions which are perhaps determined less in adulthood than in childhood. Interest seems to be linked to childhood experiences and early sex role socialization processes in the types of careers that are considered socially acceptable (Prediger & Cole, 1975). The existing sex role stereotypes exert pressure on the individual to behave in prescribed ways as evidenced in vocational desires of young children. Kirchner and Vondracek (1973) investigated the vocational aspirations of three-, four-, and five-year-olds. They found that males are more likely to project a particular occupation while females project parenthood. Also, males perceived the range of available occupations to be greater, while females clustered around the occupations of teacher and nurse. These findings paralleled those of Baruch (1974) in a study of sex role attitudes of fifth-grade females. Of the fifty females included

in the study, over half had career aspirations of being a secretary, nurse, or teacher. Crow and Taebel (1976) corroborated both of these studies in their work with sixth-grade students and occupational sex roles. They concluded that children perceive most occupations and activities as appropriate for either men or women rather than for both sexes. Mitchell (1977) concluded from a study of attitudes toward vocational education that adolescent females are still likely to choose a traditionally female identified program even though they have the option of entering a previously male intensive program. The option of vocational choice does not in itself seem strong enough to induce occupational integration.

> Culturally supported sex stereotypes of occupations are quickly learned by young people and act to channel and limit their aspirations for jobs and careers. These are often reinforced --and occasionally challenged--by the expectations of educators, peers, and parents and by the role models evident in the mass media and in the live experience of young people (McEwen, Brock, Moseley, Muncy, Rich, Davis, & Porter, 1978, p. 1).

Evidence of the internalization and impact of these early experiences and beliefs is documented in the occupational choices of males and females discussed later in this section.

Career Patterns of Females. Despite recent interest in the role and status of women, information concerning men's career choices and patterns dominates the literature. Theories of women's career choices are still in the developmental stage and need considerable research and elaboration. Many of the career models described for men are inappropriate for use with females due to the differing social roles between the two groups. "Men and women have significantly different views of marriage, child-rearing, and work, and these significantly different views affect the manner in which they integrate these activities" (Tittle & Denker, 1977(b), p. 552). In developing a model appropriate for females, it must be acknowledged that "the woman's role as childbearer makes her the keystone of the home, and therefore gives homemaking a central place in her career" (Super, 1957, p. 76). Super (1957) developed a classification system which includes some stages which are unique to women.

1. The stable homemaking pattern. This category includes the woman who marries while in or soon after leaving school. She usually has little or no work experience.

2. The conventional career pattern. This is the pattern of the woman who works for a few months or years after leaving school. After a relatively brief work experience, the young woman marries and becomes a full-time homemaker.

3. The stable working career pattern. This pattern describes the woman who embarks upon a career after leaving school. For this woman, work is a life-time career.

4. The double-track career pattern. This is the category for the dual career woman who combines working and marriage and perhaps takes occasional time out for childbearing.

5. The interrupted career pattern. This sequence is one of working, marriage, and homemaking followed by a return to work when the children are old enough for the mother to leave them. Reentry may also be motivated by financial need or an interest in working.

6. The unstable career pattern. This career pattern describes the woman who alternates sporadically between working and homemaking.

7. The multiple-trial career pattern. This pattern consists of a succession of unrelated jobs resulting in the individual having no genuine life work.

Super's model illustrates ways in which the domestic role of women influences their participation in the work force. Only one of his patterns, the stable working career pattern, complies with the concept of an on-going career for

a woman. All others include varying periods of full-time homemaking, contributing to the economic dependency of the female. The domestic and traditional orientation of women manifests itself in the occupational interests and choices of females.

Holland's Vocational Interest Typology. Holland's theory of career choice (1973) proposes that there are six personality orientations and that occupations can be grouped into six corresponding environments. The theory further posits that people tend to seek an occupational environment which is compatible with their personality type. The six personality types are (1) Realistic, (2) Investigative, (3) Artistic, (4) Social, (5) Enterprising, and (6) Conventional. A description of each with corresponding occupational areas follows:

The Realistic type is described as conforming, honest, materialistic, practical, modest, and stable. Realistic occupations include skilled trades, technical, and some service occupations.

The Investigative type is described as analytical, critical, curious, independent, intellectual, and rational. Investigative occupations include scientific and some technical occupations.

The Artistic type is described as emotional, disorderly, expressive, imaginative, impulsive, and intuitive. Artistic occupations include artistic, musical, and literary occupations.

The Social type is described as cooperative, friendly, generous, understanding, idealistic, and tactful. Social occupations include educational and social welfare occupations.

The Enterprising type is described as adventurous, domineering, self-confident, impulsive, ambitious, and pleasure-seeking. Enterprising occupations include managerial and sales occupations.

The Conventional type is described as conscientious, conservative, obedient, practical, efficient, and inhibited. Conventional occupations include office and clerical occupations.

Based upon this typology of personality types and corresponding occupational groups, Holland developed the Self-Directed Search (SDS) (1977); a paper and pencil instrument which measures an individuals' interests and competencies in each of the six areas. Raw scores are computed for each of the six areas and ranked in order of preference. Holland

(1979) reports relatively small overlap between the distribution scores of females and males. Females' scores on the SDS are more frequently distributed in the areas of Artistic, Social, and Conventional. This distribution is correlated with the occupational distribution of females in the work force (Harren & Biscardi, 1980). Historically, women have gravitated toward professions that utilize skills of nurturance and empathy (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Barrett, 1979; Berger, 1978; Lloyd, 1975). They choose in greater frequence those courses and jobs socially defined as appropriate for women (Kievit, 1976; Steiger, 1974).

Females' Participation in the Labor Force. A number of researchers attribute females' overwhelming participation in traditional careers to the socialization process (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Heppner, 1978; Report on Women in Virginia, 1978; Weitz, 1977; Yorburg, 1974; Zuersher, 1975). This process encourages feminine behavior and the belief that a female's major role should be that of a wife and mother. The role of housewife has been romanticized to the exclusion of reality (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971, Bem & Bem, 1973). Consequently, females tend to seriously underestimate their participation in the labor force (U.S. Department of Labor, Women and Work, 1977). Ninety percent of all females will work outside the home at some time during their lives (Bom-

boy, 1979). More than 50 percent will work for up to 30 years (Fisher, 1979).

> According to the estimates of economists, the twenty-year-old wife with one child can be expected to work outside the home for a total of 25 years; 22 years if she has two children; and 17 years when there are four or more children (Nelson, 1977, p. 36).

It appears that women are underprepared to competitively enter the world of work.

"The combined effects of discrimination and socialization have caused women to be concentrated in a few, low paying fields" (Steiger, 1974, p. 6). Though increasing numbers of women are entering nontraditional jobs, the majority remain clustered in a small group of traditional occupations. Often referred to as "pink collar jobs", these positions include clerical and service work which command relatively low salaries (Howe, 1977). Minimum wage is standard with few opportunities for advancement. Seventy-five percent of working women are employed in clerical and service occupations or doing factory work. Of the 16 percent categorized as professionals, almost two-thirds are teachers and nurses. The Census Occupational Classification System lists 440 jobs with the majority of women found in only 20. Occupations with over 90 percent female employees include bank teller, typist, secretary, bookkeeper, telephone operator,

and nurse (Quinn, 1979). "This homogenization of America's women is the major consequence of our sex-role ideology" (Bem & Bem, 1973, p. 7).

> The result of women's occupational segregation in the labor market is one of low wages. Economists have found that wherever women are cordoned off into a circumscribed number of occupations and industries, the consequences are low wages. This phenomenon occurs even in the fastest growing industries (Reider, 1977(b), p. 3).

Earnings Differential Between Females and Males. The existence of a large gap between the earnings of women and men is as old as recorded history. In the Bible, the book of Leviticus (27: 1-4) describes a conversation between the Lord and Moses in which adult males were valued at 50 shekels of silver and adult females at 30 shekels--a ratio strikingly similiar to today's difference in pay.

"During the Industrial Revolution in nineteenth-century England, workers had no bargaining power and employers based wages on the perceived subsistence levels of the workers" (Barrett, 1979, p. 34). Women's wages were set at approximately 60 percent of men's. Many employers believed single women's needs were less than the needs of men with families to support, and that married women were merely supplementing their husbands' incomes.

The wage differential has changed little over the years. In 1955, women earned 64 cents for every dollar earned by men (Bomboy, 1979; Couch, 1980). By 1979, this had dropped to 57 cents for women compared to $1.00 for men. On the average, a woman who completes four years of college still earns less than a man with only an eighth grade education (Sokoloff, 1980).

How does this earning differential translate into real income? Less than two percent of all women who work earn $10,000 or more a year and only one percent earn $25,000 or more a year (Deegan, 1979). In 1973, full-time, year round female workers had a median income of $6,488 while males earned $11,468 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975 Handbook on Women Workers, 1975). In 1977, the median income of families headed by women was $7,765. The comparable figure for families headed by men was $17,517 (U.S. Department of Labor, Facts About Women Heads of Households and Heads of Families, 1979).

Factors Influencing the Participation of Women in the Work Force. The concept of women working is not new as women have always worked in America.

> In frontier society, they worked in the home to produce goods and services for family consumption. In an agricultural economy, they worked in the fields alongside husbands and fathers. Throughout the nation's history women have engaged in the

> production of household goods and services for sale or exchange (Couch, 1980, p. 1).

The issue today is not so much whether women work but rather the types of work they perform. The single most influential event affecting females' participation in paid employment was the outbreak of World War II. Women were employed in virtually every type of occupation as the demand for workers increased dramatically in nearly every field. The success women demonstrated in these jobs made it difficult for America to continue to believe that women could not perform "masculine" jobs (Frieze, et al., 1978). This resulted in a dramatic change in attitude that was to affect the future of women's participation in the labor force (Filene, 1975).

The number of women in the work force has increased drastically since World War II. The number of women working outside the home doubled from 1949 to 1974 (Rieder, 1977). This increase has been due almost entirely to the changed labor market behavior of married women (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975 Handbook on Women Workers, 1975). By mid-1977, over 40 million women were in the labor force. This represents 59 percent of all women over 18 years of age and accounts for 41 percent of all workers (Couch, 1980; Report on Women in Virginia, 1978; Rieder, 1977).

Factors other than changed attitudes toward women working contributed to the increased participation of women in the world of work. These include (a) improved contraceptive methods resulting in fewer children per family, (b) later marriages, (c) rising divorce rate, (d) rising affluence and technological advances making housework less arduous and time consuming, (e) increased educational level of women, (f) increased inflation resulting in the need for a second income in the two parent family, (g) social changes resulting from the women's movement, and (h) the increased life expectancy of females (Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Rieder, 1977(b); U.S. Department of Labor, 1975 Handbook on Women Workers, 1975).

Vocational Needs of Displaced Homemakers. Most women who work do so out of economic need (Bomboy, 1979). Of all working women, 67 percent are either single, divorced, widowed, separated, or married to husbands earning less that $7,000 a year (Rieder, 1977). Employment and income are essential needs of displaced homemakers as they have lost the financial support that was previously provided by their spouse or other individual.

Displaced homemakers are a poignant example of the social belief system which discourages females from actively

preparing for and pursuing a career. Displaced homemakers are:

> Products of the times during which their values were developed, and they are limited by [their] orientations in terms of sex-stereotyped self-attitudes, values, and needs which narrow their alternatives in life adjustment and career decision making (Trieff, 1979, p. 2).

These women are in need of vocational guidance and counseling to first make them aware of the increasing range of occupations available and second, to assist them in identifying career interests and obtaining the training necessary for employment (Evans, 1979; Heddesheimer, 1980). Displaced homemakers must be assisted in recognizing and possibly changing their stereotyped attitudes concerning female work roles to enable them to succeed in the workforce (Vocational Counseling for Displaced Homemakers: A Manual, 1980).

Displaced homemaker program personnel expressed a need for the encouragement of displaced homemakers to prepare for and enter nontraditional vocational careers (Displaced Homemakers: Program Options, 1978; Fossedal, 1980; Jacobs, 1980; Marano, 1979; Of Women, Knights and Horses, 1979; Vinick & Jacobs, 1980). Nontraditional careers offer more opportunities for better pay and upward mobility than do many traditionally female jobs (Marano, 1979). With technological advances, physical strength is rarely a factor qual-

ifying one for entrance into a nontraditional career (U.S. Department of Labor, Women and Work, 1977). The primary barrier to women's entry into nontraditional careers is that of attitude (Frieze, et al., 1978; LaFerriere, 1978; Report on Women in Virginia, 1978; U.S. Department of Labor, Women and Work, 1977). Displaced homemakers must be encouraged to develop and internalize feelings of competence and security in nontraditional areas. This may be achieved through career exploration and preparation in nontraditional areas, personal and peer counseling, and successful apprenticeship experiences.

Summary

Changes in the social structure of the American family have resulted in increasing numbers of women who have been full-time homemakers being forced to enter the workforce due to the discontinuation of financial support from the spouse or other provider. Referred to as "displaced homemakers," this group of women has been estimated to exceed four million in the United States with approximately 83,000 residing in Virginia. The primary reasons for the increasing number of displaced homemakers are (a) an escalation of the divorce rate, (b) the typically longer lifespan of females, as well as (c) the vocational underpreparation of females.

Socialized to believe their roles in life are those of wife and mother, displaced homemakers are generaly unprepared to assume the role of worker outside the home. Women frequently internalize the stereotyped traits attributed to females valuing such qualities as nurturance, dependence, submissiveness, and helplessness. Sex stereotyping limits the range of behavior perceived as acceptable with particular implications for the constraints imposed upon females. This stereotyping is evidenced in the occupational segregation of women. Employed females are clustered in a small group of traditional occupations which command relatively low salaries and offer few opportunities for career advancement. "This homogenization of America's women is the major consequence of our sex-role ideology" (Bem & Bem, 1973, p. 7).

Displaced homemakers are a poignant example of the social belief system which discourages females from actively preparing for and pursuing a career. These women are in need of vocational guidance and counseling to assist them in making career decisions as well as providing them with the education or skills training to enable them to obtain employment. Displaced homemakers must also be assisted in recognizing and possibly changing their stereotyped attitudes concerning female work roles to enable them to succeed in the workforce.

CHAPTER III

Research Design and Methodology

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of the instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

This chapter describes the research methodology used for this study. The following components are identified (a) the subjects, (b) research design, (c) general procedures, (d) instrumentation, (e) research questions, and (f) analysis of data.

Subjects

The sample for this study consisted of 35 female enrollees in displaced homemaker programs and 10 instructors of those programs within Virginia. Ten enrollees were eliminated from the study because they were no longer enrolled in the displaced homemaker program at the time the posttest was administered. All enrollees met the definition of displaced homemaker as established for this study. Displaced homemaker refers to an individual who, having been engaged in unpaid full-time homemaking for the majority of her or his adult life, has become the single head of a household, while the primary financial support of their spouse, family, or other individual has been discontinued.

Displaced homemaker programs in operation in Virginia were identified through contacts with the National Displaced Homemaker Network, the Office of Vocational Education of the State Department of Education, and the Governor's Employment and Training Council. Nine programs were identified. The following processes were used to select the programs to provide the study sample.

1. Program directors were contacted in person and by telephone to discuss the study and determine their interest in participating. As a result of these contacts, four programs were eliminated from consideration; two due to the

choice of the program director not to participate, one due to a loss of funding, and one because the program did not provide direct services to displaced homemakers.

2. The remaining five programs were categorized as either "traditional" or "nontraditional". Programs were classified as traditional if displaced homemakers were trained or encouraged to enter occupational areas in which 75 percent or more of the workers are female. Nontraditional classification applied to programs which prepared enrollees to enter occupational areas comprised of 75 percent or more male workers. The 75 percent figure was based upon a synthesis of previous research studies which used a range of 70 to 75 percent (Farmer, 1978; Rieder, 1977; Rj Associates, 1976).

3. From the five programs, four were selected--two traditional and two nontraditional. The fifth program was excluded due to its open-entry policy, a factor complicating the pre/posttest procedure planned.

The study sample was comprised of enrollees and instructors from four displaced homemaker programs in Virginia. The four programs are listed in Table 1 with the classification and number of enrollees and instructors participating in the study.

TABLE 1

Classification of Study Participants

Program Location	Number of Enrollees	Number of Instructors
Traditional		
Waynesboro	6	3
Lynchburg	10	3
Nontraditional		
Alexandria	13	3
Big Stone Gap	6	1
Total	35	10

Design

The design used for this study was descriptive. In an effort to solve problems, researchers in educational, governmental, industrial, and political organizations often conduct surveys (Van Dalan, 1976). The purpose of descriptive research is "to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately" (Issac & Michael, 1971, p. 18). Descriptive research which observes but does not directly control variables is also classified as survey research.

General Procedures

Arrangement with Programs. After the sample was identified, each program director was contacted again by telephone to further explain the proposed research and to confirm their willingness to participate. After permission to conduct the study was granted, dates and times of testing were arranged to coincide with the beginning and end of the program cycle. Interviews were also scheduled with program directors to obtain background and operational information concerning each program.

Collection of Data. The researcher conducted the testing at each program site, meeting with all displaced homemakers enrolled in each program. Subjects participated on a

voluntary basis and confidentiality was assured. The testing procedure took approximately one hour at each pre- and posttest administration. The interval between pre- and posttesting ranged from five to eight weeks depending upon program length.

For the pretest, each subject received the appropriate instrument used to obtain demographic information. Of the enrollees, half in each program received the BEM Inventory and half received the Self-Directed Search. This division of the group was done to reduce the possibility of test sensitization due to the reuse of instruments for posttesting. Kerlinger (1973) recommends the use of a control group to lessen the effect of familiarity with the instrument. Tuckman (1979) acknowledges test effect as a threat to internal validity and also encourages the use of a control group. It was on this basis that the group was divided. Of the instructors, all received the BEM Inventory for the pretest. Welch and Walberg (1970) minimize the effect of pretest sensitization believing it to be a source of bias that has been overstressed. Therefore, due to the small number of instructors involved, the researcher chose to pretest the entire group. For the posttest, all enrollees received the BEM Inventory and the Self-Directed Search while all instructors were administered the BEM Inventory.

Instrumentation

The instruments selected for this study were the BEM Inventory and the Self-Directed Search. Instruments for obtaining demographic and program information were developed specifically for use in this study. These included (a) Enrollee Information, (b) Instuctor Information, and (c) Program Information Instruments. Copies of the above mentioned instruments are included in Appendices A, B, C, D, and E, respectively.

The BEM Inventory, often referred to in the literature as the BEM Sex Role Inventory, is a paper and pencil instrument consisting of 60 personality characteristics. Of the 60 items, 20 are stereotypically feminine, 20 are stereotypically masculine, and 20 are filler items. The subject indicates on a seven point scale how well each of the 60 characteristics describes her or himself. The scale ranges from 1 ("Never or almost never true") to 7 ("Always or almost always true"). Scoring is based upon the difference between an individual's femininity and masculinity scores and its relationship to group medians. The BEM Inventory is designed for use with adults and college students but is considered comprehensible to upper elementary children (Bem, 1979).

The BEM Inventory has been significant in sex role research due to two features distinguishing it from most masculinity-femininity scales. The BEM Inventory treats masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions rather than as two ends of a single dimension. One's score may be (a) high on both dimensions indicating androgyny, (b) low in both dimensions indicating an undifferentiated sex role, or (c) high on one dimension but low on another indicating masculinity or femininity. Secondly, it is based on "a conception of the traditionally sex-typed person who is highly attuned to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and who uses such definitions as the ideal standard against which her or his own behavior is to be evaluated" (Bem, 1979, p. 2).

Test-retest reliability figures for the BEM Inventory over a four week period are masculinity r = .90, femininity r = .93, and androgyny r = .93 (Bem, 1974). Bem (1974) reports very low correlations between the masculinity and femininity scores (masculinity r = .11 femininity r = -.14) maintaining the independence of these scores. Factor analysis of the BEM further supports this finding (Gaudreau, 1977; Walkup & Abbot, 1978; Water, Waters, & Pincus, 1977). This separation of masculinity and femininity is the theoretical basis for the development of the BEM. Acceptable

construct validity of the BEM is supported by studies relating sex role to nurturance, independence, self-esteem, and anxiety (Babladelis, 1978; Bem, 1975; Bem, 1977; Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976; Jones, Chernovetz, & Hansson, 1978; Jordan-Viola, Fassberg, & Viola, 1976). Cross validation with a number of similar inventories including the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, California Psychological Inventory, and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey produced significant correlations to support the convergent validity of the BEM (Bem, 1974; Bem, 1976; Bem 1977; Bem, 1981; Wakefield, Sasek, Friedman, & Bowden, 1976).

The Self-Directed Search (SDS) is a paper and pencil instrument which assesses vocational competencies, preferences, and interests. This information is translated into a typology of six personality types based upon characteristics of people and environments within given occupational groups (Holland, 1979). The six personality types are (1) Realistic, (2) Investigative, (3) Artistic, (4) Social, (5) Enterprising, and (6) Conventional. Holland (1973) contends that most people and environments can be classified into one of these categories and that vocational choice, satisfaction, and achievement is based largely upon an optimal match between personality and environment.

> People search for environments which will let them exercise their skill and abilities, express their

> attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles . . . A persons's behavior is determined by an interaction between his or her personality and the characteristics of the environment (Holland, 1979, p. 4).

The Self-Directed Search consists of a 14 page test booklet and an interpretive occupational guide. The SDS is a self-administered, self-scored, and self-interpreted vocational tool. Subjects indicate their interest and competency in a variety of activities and occupations which are divided into the six personality areas. These areas are designated by initial only (R, I, A, S, E, C) on the test instrument. Totals are determined by adding the number of responses from each area. These totals are ranked in order of expressed preference. The top three scores produce a code which is interpreted using the Occupational Finder to determine vocations which are congruent with the subject's interest and abilities. For this study, subjects were given only the assessment information as the instrument was used for pre- and posttesting and was not being used for vocational counseling. The SDS is designed for use with persons aged 15 and older with an estimated seventh-grade reading level (Holland, 1979).

Holland (1979) reports split-half reliability coefficients for the summary scales ranging from .83 to .95 indicating a high degree of internal consistency. Test-retest

reliability over a four week period ranged from r = .56 to r = .95 with the most above r = .75 indicating moderate to high levels of correlation.

Cutt (1977) reports clear content validity of the SDS based upon item content and format. Holland (1979) refers to over 300 research studies as evidence of the instrument's construct validity. Criterion-related validity has been documented by research which compared scores of college students vocational choice at one and three year interims. Accuracy rates ranged from 63 to 73 percent indicating moderate levels of predictive validity (Gottfredson & Holland, 1975; Touchton & Magoon, 1977). The criterion-related validity of the SDS is comparable and sometimes exceeds that of similiar interest inventories including the Strong Vocational Interest Inventory and the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (Dolliver, 1975; Gottfredson & Holland, 1975; Wiggins & Weslander, 1977).

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in the sex role identity of enrollees in traditional displaced homemaker programs and enrollees in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

2. Is there a difference in the vocational interests of enrollees in traditional displaced homemaker programs and enrollees in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

3. Is there a change in the sex role identity of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

4. Is there a change in the vocational interests of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

5. Is there a difference in the sex role identity of instructors in traditional displaced homemaker programs and instructors in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

6. Is there a change in the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its compeletion?

7. What are the demographic characteristics of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

8. What are the demographic characteristics of instructors in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Analysis of Data

Analysis procedures included the calculation of descriptive statistics of the study sample using chi square to determine the probability of enrollment in a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program on the basis of sex role identity or vocational interests. Chi square was also used to analyze the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs in terms of their involvement with traditional or nontraditional programs. Statistically significant results were determined at the .05 alpha level. Frequencies and percentages were calculated on pre- and posttest results for the BEM Inventory and the Self-Directed Search to determine if changes in sex role identity or vocational interests occurred from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion. The BEM Inventory was scored using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS User's Guide, 1979) to determine sex role identity based upon individual masculine and feminine mean scores in relation to group medians. The Self-Directed Search was hand scored as was demographic information on enrollees and instructors.

Summary

The sample for this study consisted of 35 enrollees in displaced homemaker programs and 10 instructors in those

programs in Virginia. The four programs involved in the study included two which prepared women to enter traditional occupations and two which prepared women to enter nontraditional occupations.

Enrollees were tested using the BEM Inventory, the Self-Directed Search, and Enrollee Information Instruments. Instructors were administered the BEM Inventory and Instructor Information Instruments. Descriptive analyses of the data included the chi square test of significance, as well as the computation of ranges, means, frequencies, and percentages.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of the Data

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section includes a description of each of the four displaced homemaker programs involved in the study. The second section addresses each of the research questions.

Displaced Homemaker Program Information

Information regarding displaced homemaker programs was obtained through personal interviews with each program director. The Program Information Instrument (Appendix E) served as a guide for the collection of these data. This section reports background and operational information for the programs included in this study.

Waynesboro. The first of two traditional programs included in this study was operated by the Consultation & Learning Center (CLC). The CLC was an independent consulting organization offering a variety of workshops and training programs to assist individuals in improving job performance. The organization worked with a range of individuals from upper management to social service agencies.

One aspect of their training program was the Springboard Series. Designed to meet the needs of displaced homemakers, the Springboard Series was an eight-week CETA sponsored program which had been in operation since February, 1980, and was funded through September, 1981. The program objectives included increasing self-awareness and self-confidence, improving communication and coping skills, educational and vocational assessment, and the development of job seeking skills. Secondary objectives included the establishment of a peer support system for displaced homemakers,

increasing the enrollees' awareness of community resources, and encouraging them to be more assertive. The program objectives were based upon a needs assessment of the community conducted by the local Manpower Council.

The Springboard Series operated on an eight-week cycle incorporating training and learning experiences from three areas: 1) Self assessment to assist participants in restoring self-esteem and developing self-confidence, 2) Survival skills including budgeting, nutrition, legal aid, and health services to assist individuals in gaining control over their lives, and 3) Job development and job seeking skills. A minimum of 64 hours of classroom training was allocated for each of the three areas. In addition, each participant was placed on a job site for a minimum of five days. The job sites were non-profit organizations or insitutions and could be classified as traditional in terms of the types of positions a woman would be likely to hold. The Springboard Series was flexible in its ability to meet individual needs such as making arrangements for enrollees to complete General Educational Development (GED) requirements.

Potential enrollees were identified through contacts with local social service agencies as well as public service brochures which had been distributed throughout the region.

To have been considered for the program, the person must have been certified as CETA eligible by the Virginia Employment Commission. After eligibility had been determined, the individual was interviewed by a CLC staff member to determine interests and goals and the extent to which the Springboard Series could meet their needs. Women over 40 years of age were given top priority as these women were considered most acutely in need of immediate attention.

Upon selection, the new enrollee received a physical examination as well as a battery of psychological tests including the Wide Range Interest-Opinion Test (WRIOT), Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT), Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, Sixteen Personality Factors, Prediction of Auto-Lethality Scale, and the Bender-Gestalt.

In addition to instruction, services available to enrollees included personal counseling, financial assistance (minimum wage for 30 hours per week), and reimbursed mileage for transportation. Enrollees were assisted in arranging child care if needed. Two weeks before completing the program, the enrollee was referred to the Virginia Employment Commission for assistance in job placement. Client follow-up included a telephone contact after 30 days and a post card after six months. Last year a Christmas party was held

for all past and present enrollees with about 50 percent attending. Informal support groups following program completion have had limited success.

The program had the capacity to accommodate twelve people during each eight-week cycle. Sixty-four people were served last year including one male program completor. The staff at CLC expressed a need to cultivate additional funding sources due to the limitations and tenuousness of government programs. It was anticipated that there would be a shift toward serving the needs of the middle age or older woman.

At the time of the study, the Springboard Series had three full-time staff members; a career and education director, a program director, and a secretary. Two part-time people assisted in administration and bookkeeping. Much of the instruction was conducted by contract consultants. The people involved with the program were previously associated with CLC.

Evaluation was an on-going practice for the Springboard Series and was admittedly a difficult process to address. As many of the program's objectives concerned attitudes and behavior, it was difficult to assess long term program effect. Program personnel cited two goals by which they

determined program success--a more positive attitude toward self and work on behalf of the clients as well as a positive placement of the client whether it be in an educational or job setting.

Lynchburg. The second of the traditional programs included in this study was the Displaced Homemaker Project of the Women's Resource Center in Lynchburg, Virginia. The Displaced Homemaker Project was a CETA sponsored program which had been in operation since March, 1980, and was funded through September, 1981. The program objectives included self-development, assisting women in developing job seeking skills, and career planning. Secondary objectives included increasing assertive behavior as well as an awareness of social and sex roles. The program director stated that the very concept of working outside the home is perceived as nontraditional for these women. Consequently, a strong foundation needed to be established to make them feel comfortable with any work other than household responsibilities. Program objectives were based on work done by the Women's Resource Center as a part of a Vocational Education grant.

The Displaced Homemaker Project operated on a twelve week cycle which included four weeks of classroom instruction and eight weeks of on-the-job experience. Program com-

ponents varied for each group of enrollees depending upon their needs but usually included topics such as assertiveness training, stress and time management, money management, resume and interview techniques, and career education. On-the-job experience was obtained by placement in nonprofit organizations or institutions such as child care centers, libraries, and nursing homes.

Clients for the Displaced Homemaker Project were recruited by a variety of techniques including classified advertisements in the newspaper, public service announcements on the radio, brochures distributed to service organizations and churches, public speaking engagements to civic organizations as well as contacts with the Virginia Employment Commission. Potential enrollees must have met CETA eligibility requirements and be interviewed by a program staff member.

Intake procedures for new enrollees consisted of a personal interview and included the development of an "employability plan." This plan included biographical information as well as information concerning past work experience, perceived barriers to employment and ways to overcome the problems. The assessment procedure extended into the classroom with vocational assessment provided by the enrollees' com-

pletion of a series of standardized tests which included the Career Ability Placement Survey, Career Orientation Placement and Evaluation Survey, and the California Occupational Preference System.

Services available to enrollees included personal counseling, financial assistance (minimum wage), assistance in arranging child care, reimbursement for transportation, job placement, as well as a medical examination. Clients were contacted twice by mail, one month and three months after program completion.

At the time of the study, the program had the capacity to accommodate eleven people during the cycle. Thirty-one clients had been served to date. The program director did not perceive serving larger numbers of people but rather increasing the level of services available as well as possibly the length of the program cycle. A more formal follow-up procedure was planned with the inclusion of support groups.

The project staff consisted of a full-time director, two supervisors, and a part-time secretary. The staff was selected on the basis of personal contacts. Much of the instruction was conducted on a contractual basis by previously identified community contacts.

There were a number of evaluation procedures in effect at the Lynchburg program. The project staff requested the enrollees to complete an evaluation following each class session. The enrollees evaluated the program on a weekly basis with a large scale review upon completion of the four week class core. Enrollees were given the opportunity to evaluate instructors who may have been there for a single program. At the end of the twelve week cycle, the enrollees evaluated each of the program components including the staff, class sessions, and work experiences.

Alexandria. The first of two nontraditional programs included in this study was the Woman's Pre-Apprenticeship Corp III (WEPAC) in conjunction with the Alexandria Commission on the Status of Women. WEPAC was a CETA sponsored program in operation since March, 1980, and was funded through May, 1981. The primary program objective was to identify unemployed and underemployed females and to provide them with skills for a nontraditional occupation. The secondary program objective cited by the project director was to assist these women in breaking out of a welfare cycle by acquiring saleable and profitable job skills. Program objectives were based on two previous WEPAC cycles as well as a needs assessment conducted by the Alexandria Commission on the Status of Women.

WEPAC was a thirteen-week training program providing skills training for displaced homemakers interested in entering the trades. The first four weeks of the program consisted of approximately a half-day of job readiness classes and a half-day of skills training. For the skills training, two weeks were spent in carpentry and two weeks in electromechanics, so that each enrollee would have exposure and experience in each. One hour of physical fitness activities was included in the program each day to assist the enrollees in developing stamina and strength. The fifth week of the program was devoted to career exploration and readiness. Enrollees heard a variety of speakers, including union representatives, personnel directors, and program graduates who provided them with information on job opportunities and realistic expectations. During this week, enrollees also learned about resumes, job applications, and conducted mock interviews. The last eight weeks of the program were spent acquiring skills training in either carpentry or electromechanics, based upon the individual choice of the enrollee. The project director stressed that job placement was encouraged and may take place at any time during the program cycle.

Potential WEPAC clients were recruited by advertisements in the classified section of the newspaper, by flyers placed in public places, and by referral of the Virginia

Employment Commission. CETA eligibility must have been determined prior to enrollment. The intake procedure included a personal interview as well as small group orientations. The project director said that due to the competitive nature of admittance to this particular program, potential clients were often "wise" to the appropriate answers they should give the interviewer to increase their chances of acceptance in this program. This information was taken into account at the time the enrollees were tested for the purpose of this study by reassuring confidentiality of their responses. Enrollees were verbally encouraged to honestly and candidly respond to the questionnaires. The researcher reiterated that subjects' responses in no way affected their enrollment in that particular program. A variety of locally developed instruments were used to assess experience and interest in nontraditional careers, as well as reading and math levels.

Services provided by WEPAC included financial assistance (minimum wage), assistance in arranging child care, bus tokens to cover transportation costs, vocational training, and job placement. Counseling and legal service needs were met through referrals. Client follow-up was limited to those who lost jobs and requested assistance in obtaining new positions. WEPAC had the capacity to accommodate 30 people at a time and had served over 60 women to date.

Anticipated program growth included offering training in a different occupation, possibly auto mechanics, as well as writing a program manual for others interested in establishing nontraditional programs for displaced homemakers.

At the time of this study, WEPAC was staffed by a project director, two outreach coordinators who handled job development, two vocational teachers, and a secretary. Part-time instructors were used for physical education and basic skills (reading and math) for those enrollees who were pursuing their GED. While several staff members were already affiliated with the Alexandria Commission on the Status of Women, others were identified through personal contacts and on referral from the Virginia Employment Commission.

Evaluation of WEPAC was based upon teacher and enrollee course appraisal, a standard CETA evaluation form, as well as the job placement rate.

Big Stone Gap. The second of two nontraditional programs included in this study was the Appalachian Women's Employment and Information Project, part of Women's Work World. Women's Work World was an independent agency established in August, 1979, to assist rural women in obtaining training and employment. The Appalachian Women's Employment

and Information Project (AWEIP) was privately funded through foundation grants from a variety of sources including the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation, the Appalachian Peoples Service Organization, and the American Friends for Service Organization. The program objectives included assisting women in developing decision making skills, increasing community resources available to meet women's needs, and encouraging women to explore and enter nontraditional occupations. Secondary objectives included assisting women in obtaining employment training and educational information which would provide them with employability skills. Program objectives were based upon the needs expressed by women seeking assistance from Women's Work World.

AWEIP was based on annual funding and did not adhere to a specific program cycle but was, instead, based upon client needs. Participants were not charged for any services and remained involved as long as they chose. Program components were based upon a survey of community needs. The program was divided into two main components--(a) job readiness including personal counseling and (b) resource development. A series of seminars were held weekly to provide displaced homemakers with information on such topics as vocational exploration, options and problems in nontraditional careers, discrimination, legal rights of women, and divorce. At the

time this study was initiated, efforts were underway to establish a program in conjunction with Mountain Empire Community College to train women for mining careers.

Potential participants were identified by public service announcements, community meetings, personal contacts, and a newsletter. Applicants were screened to determine interests; however, there were no eligibility requirements for program acceptance. Though participants were not screened on an economic basis, the program director believed most, if not all, would have met CETA eligibility requirements.

Services available included personal counseling, financial assistance, child care, transporation, and job placement. Client follow-up was by personal contact and telephone and was not on a scheduled basis. AWEIP had the capacity to serve approximately 15 women at a time with 225 served to date. One staff member worked four days per week. Outside consultants assisted with group seminars. Consultants and instructors were selected according to their educational and experiential background in relation to group needs. Project evaluation was based upon a cooperative review by the Board of Directors and project staff.

Analysis of Research Questions

The BEM Inventory was used to measure sex role identity of enrollees and instructors in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. Sex role identity was classified as androgynous, feminine, masculine, or undifferentiated. The Self-Directed Search was used to measure vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. Vocational interest was classified as Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, or Conventional. Demographic data were collected using the Enrollee Information and Instructor Information Instruments.

Research Question One. Is there a difference in the sex role identity of enrollees in traditional displaced homemaker programs and enrollees in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Based upon pretest scores, the results of the chi square test were significant (chi square = 9.99, df = 3, $p < .02$) indicating that enrollment in a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program was not independent of and may have been related to sex role identity of the enrollee (See Table 2).

Table 2

Pretest Comparison of Sex Role Identity of One-half of the Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Androgynous	Feminine	Masculine	Undifferentiated	
Traditional	(2.21) 0	(1.1) 2	(1.1) 0	(2.58) 5	7
Nontraditional	(3.79) 6	(1.89) 1	(1.89) 3	(4.42) 2	12
n =	6	3	3	7	19

(Expected cell frequency)

chi square = 9.99, df = 3, $p < .02$

Based upon posttest scores, the results of the chi square test were significant (chi square = 14.52, df = 3, $p < .01$) indicating that enrollment in a traditional or non-traditional displaced homemaker program was not independent of and may have been related to the sex role identity of the enrollee (see Table 3).

Research Question Two. Is there a difference in the vocational interests of enrollees in traditional displaced homemaker programs and enrollees in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Based upon pretest scores, the results of the chi square test were not significant (chi square = 4.9, df = 5, $p > .05$) indicating that enrollment in a traditional or non-traditional displaced homemaker program was not dependent upon vocational interests of the enrollee (see Table 4).

Based upon posttest scores, the results of the chi square test were significant (chi square = 11.17, df = 5, $p < .05$) indicating that enrollment in a traditional or non-traditional displaced homemaker program was not independent of and may have been related to vocational interests of the enrollee (see Table 5).

Table 3

Posttest Comparison of Sex Role Identity of Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Androgynous	Feminine	Masculine	Undifferentiated	
Traditional	(4.59) 2	(3.2) 1	(3.2) 3	(5.03) 10	16
Non-traditional	(5.43) 8	(3.8) 6	(3.8) 4	(5.97) 1	19
n =	10	7	7	11	35

(Expected cell frequency)

chi square = 14.52, df = 3, $p < .01$

Table 4

Pretest Comparison of Vocational Interests of One-half of the Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Realistic	Investigative	Artistic	Social	Enterprising	Conventional	
Traditional	(1.12) 0	(0) 0	(0) 0	(6.19) 6	(0) 0	(1.69) 3	9
Nontraditional	(.88) 2	(0) 0	(0) 0	(4.18) 5	(0) 0	(1.31) 0	7
n =	2	0	0	11	0	3	16

(Expected cell frequency)

chi square = 4.9, df = 5, $p > .05$

Table 5

Posttest Comparison of Vocational Interests of Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Realistic	Investigative	Artistic	Social	Enterprising	Conventional	
	(1.83)	(.91)	(1.83)	(8.23)	(1.37)	(1.83)	
Traditional	0	0	1	9	2	4	16
	(2.17)	(1.09)	(2.17)	(9.77)	(1.63)	(2.17)	
Non-traditional	4	2	3	9	1	4	19
n =	4	2	4	18	3	8	35

(Expected cell frequency)

chi square = 11.17, df = 5, $p < .05$

Research Question Three. Is there a change in the sex role identity of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

Sex role identity of 36.84 percent of the enrollees in displaced homemaker programs changed from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion. Of these changes, 28.57 percent moved to a less sex-typed role (androgyny), while 71.43 percent moved to a more sex-typed role (femininity or masculinity). Of the enrollees whose sex role identity changed, 14.29 percent were in a traditional program while 85.71 percent were in a nontraditional program (see Table 6).

Of the enrollees who received pre- and posttests, differences were recorded between traditional and nontraditional groups for each sex role category. In a pretest comparison between program types, traditional enrollees' sex role identity was either feminine or undifferentiated while sex role identity of nontraditional enrollees was distributed throughout the four sex role categories. In a posttest comparison, 71.4 percent of traditional enrollees were undifferentiated. A higher percentage of nontraditional than traditional enrollees were reported in masculine, feminine, and androgynous sex role categories (see Table 7).

Table 6

Sex Role Identity of Enrollees
in Displaced Homemaker Programs

Enrollee	Program Type	Pretest	Posttest
1	Traditional	U	U
2	Traditional	U	U
3	Traditional	F	F
4*	Traditional	U	M
5	Traditional	U	U
6	Traditional	U	U
7	Traditional	A	A
8	Nontraditional	U	U
9	Nontraditional	A	A
10*	Nontraditional	M	A
11	Nontraditional	A	A
12*	Nontraditional	A	M
13	Nontraditional	M	M
14*	Nontraditional	U	F
15*	Nontraditional	F	A
16*	Nontraditional	A	F
17*	Nontraditional	U	M
18	Nontraditional	A	A
19	Nontraditional	A	A

n = 19

* = Changes in sex role identity over program cycle

Legend

A = Androgynous
F = Feminine
M = Masculine
U = Undifferentiated

Table 7

Sex Role Identity of One-half
of the Enrollees in Traditional and
Nontraditional Programs: Pre- and Posttest

	Traditional		Nontraditional	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Androgynous	0	14.3	50	41.7
Feminine	28.6	14.3	8.3	25
Masculine	0	0	25	25
Undifferentiated	71.4	71.4	16.7	8.3
Total Percentage	100	100	100	100
n =	7		12	

All enrollees received the BEM posttest to determine sex role identity. A high percentage (62.5) of traditional enrollees was found in the undifferentiated category while nontraditional enrollees dominated the androgynous, feminine, and masculine categories (see Table 8).

Research Question Four. Is there a change in the vocational interests of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

Of enrollees who received pre- and posttests to determine vocational interests, 18.75 percent indicated a change in category of interests. All of the changed score subjects were enrollees in a traditional displaced homemaker program. Of those who changed, 66.7 percent stayed within the group typically considered feminine (Social and Conventional) while 33.3 percent moved from a traditionally feminine occupational career area (Social) to a traditionally male dominated career area (Enterprising) (see Table 9).

Pre- and posttest vocational interest distributions were similiar between traditional and nontraditional enrollees with one exception. On the posttest, 11.1 percent of the traditional enrollees expressed a preferred interest in the Enterprising area while nontraditional enrollees did not express interest in this area (see Table 10).

Table 8

Posttest Sex Role Identity of Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Androgynous	12.5	42.1
Feminine	6.3	31.6
Masculine	18.7	21.1
Undifferentiated	62.5	5.2
Total Percentage	100	100
n =	16	19

Table 9

Vocational Interests of Enrollees in Displaced Homemaker Programs

Enrollee	Program Type	Pretest	Posttest
1	Traditional	S	S
2	Traditional	S	S
3	Traditional	S	S
4*	Traditional	S	E
5	Traditional	C	C
6*	Traditional	C	S
7	Traditional	C	C
8*	Traditional	S	C
9	Traditional	S	S
10	Nontraditional	S	S
11	Nontraditional	R	R
12	Nontraditional	R	R
13	Nontraditional	S	S
14	Nontraditional	S	S
15	Nontraditional	S	S
16	Nontraditional	S	S

n = 16

* = Changes in vocational interest over program cycle

Legend

R = Realistic
S = Social
E = Enterprising
C = Conventional

Table 10

Vocational Interests of One-half of the Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs: Pre- and Posttest

	Traditional		Nontraditional	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Realistic	0	0	28.6	28.6
Investigative	0	0	0	0
Artistic	0	0	0	0
Social	66.7	55.6	71.4	71.4
Enterprising	0	11.1	0	0
Conventional	33.3	33.3	0	0
Total Percentage	100	100	100	100
n =	9		7	

All enrollees were posttested to determine vocational interests. Traditional enrollees displayed higher interests in Social, Enterprising, and Conventional vocational areas while nontraditional enrollees indicated higher interests in Realistic, Investigative, and Artistic areas (see Table 11).

Research Question Five. Is there a difference in the sex role identity of instructors in traditional displaced homemaker programs and instructors in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Based upon pretest scores, the results of the chi square test were not significant (chi square = 4, df = 3, $p > .05$) indicating that instructor's involvement in a traditional or nontraditional program was not dependent upon sex role identity of the instructor (see Table 12).

Based upon posttest scores, the results of the chi square test were not significant (chi square = 4.62, df = 3, $p > .05$) indicating that instructor's involvement in a traditional or nontraditional program was not dependent upon sex role identity of the instructor (see Table 13).

Research Question Six. Is there a change in the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion?

Table 11

Posttest Vocational Interests of Enrollees in Traditional and Nontraditional Progarms

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Realistic	0	21.1
Investigative	0	10.5
Artistic	6.3	15.8
Social	56.3	47.3
Enterprising	12.4	5.3
Conventional	25	0
Total Percentage	100	100
n =	16	19

Table 12

Pretest Comparison of Sex Role Identity of Instructors in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Androgynous	Feminine	Masculine	Undifferentiated	
Traditional	(1.2) 1	(.6) 1	(1.8) 2	(2.4) 2	6
Non-traditional	(.8) 1	(.4) 0	(1.2) 1	(1.6) 2	4
n =	2	1	3	4	10

(Expected cell frequencies) chi square = 4, df = 3, $p > .05$

Table 13

Posttest Comparison of Sex Role Identity of Instructors in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs

	Androgynous	Feminine	Masculine	Undifferentiated	
Traditional	(3.) 3	(.6) 1	(.6) 0	(1.8) 2	6
Non-traditional	(2.) 2	(.4) 0	(.4) 1	(1.2) 1	4
n =	5	1	1	3	10

(Expected cell frequencies) chi square = 4.62, df = 3, $p > .05$

Sex role identity of 40 percent of the instructors in displaced homemaker programs changed from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion. Of these changes, all were to less sex-typed roles with 75 percent moving to androgyny and 25 percent to undifferentiated. Seventy-five percent of those who changed were instructors in traditional programs while 25 percent of those who changed were in non-traditional programs (see Table 14).

Differences in pre- and posttest sex role identity of instructors is reported by traditional and nontraditional programs in Table 15. In a pretest comparison between program types, the percentage distribution of instructors was different for each sex role. In a posttest comparison, the percentage of instructors with an androgynous sex role was the same for traditional and nontraditional programs while all other distributions varied.

Research Question Seven. What are the demographic characteristics of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Information concerning demographic data of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs was collected using the Enrollee Information Instrument (Appendix C). The data were analyzed separately for traditional and nontraditional subjects (see Table 16).

Table 14

Sex Role Identity of Instructors
in Displaced Homemaker Programs

Instructor	Program Type	Pretest	Posttest
1	Traditional	A	A
2*	Traditional	M	A
3	Traditional	F	F
4	Traditional	U	U
5*	Traditional	M	U
6*	Traditional	U	A
7	Nontraditional	U	U
8	Nontraditional	A	A
9	Nontraditional	M	M
10*	Nontraditional	U	A

n = 10

* = Changes in sex role identity over program cycle

Legend

A = Androgynous
F = Feminine
M = Masculine
U = Undifferentiated

Table 15

Sex Role Identity of Instructors in Traditional and Nontraditional Programs: Pre- and Posttest

	Traditional		Nontraditional	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Androgynous	16.7	50	25	50
Feminine	16.7	16.7	0	0
Masculine	33.3	0	25	25
Undifferentiated	33.3	33.3	50	25
Total Percentage	100	100	100	100
n =	6		4	

Table 16

Demographic Profile of Enrollees

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Age	$\bar{x}$ = 32.37	29.2
Race - White	% = 43.75	47.37
Black	% = 56.25	52.63
Education (years)	$\bar{x}$ = 11.06	11.63
Marital Status - Single, never married	% = 31.25	31.58
Married	% = 0	15.79
Separated	% = 43.75	42.1
Divorced	% = 12.5	5.26
Widowed	% = 12.5	5.26
If Ever Married, How Many Times - 1	% = 72.73	76.92
2	% = 27.27	23.08
Length of Marriage/Primary Relationship (years) - 1-5	% = 54.55	42.86
6-10	% = 9.09	35.72
11-15	% = 18.18	7.14
20-35	% = 18.18	14.29
	$\bar{x}$ = 10	8.4
Who Initiated Termination of Marriage/Primary Relationship - Enrollee	% = 63.64	83.34
Spouse	% = 18.18	8.33
Death of Spouse	% = 18.18	8.33

Table 16 Demographic Profile of Enrollees
(continued)

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Years Since Termination -		
Less than 1	% = 63.64	16.67
1-2	% = 18.18	25
2-4	% = 9.09	25
4-6	% = 0	8.33
6-8	% = 9.09	0
8-10	% = 0	25
Children	$\bar{x}$ = 2.8	1.8
Children at Home	$\bar{x}$ = 1.3	1.3
Employed Prior to Marriage	% = 72.73	64.29
Years Employed	$\bar{x}$ = 5.3	7.1
Time Since Last Employed	$\bar{x}$ = 8.1 years	9.7 months
Number of Positions	$\bar{x}$ = 2	5
Positions Held* - Clerical	% = 37.5	47.37
Sales	% = 18.75	21.05
Aide	% = 31.25	47.37
Domestic	% = 12.5	42.11
Factory	% = 31.25	26.31
Food Service	% = 12.5	36.84
Income - Below $4,000	% = 68.75	73.69
$4,000 - $6,999	% = 12.5	15.79
$7,000 - $9,999	% = 6.25	5.26
$10,000 - $12,999	% = 0	5.26
$13,000 - $15,999	% = 0	0
$16,000 or more	% = 12.5	0

* = Multiple response questions

Table 16 Demographic Profile of Enrollees
(continued)

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Income Sources* - Salary	% = 100	68.42
Savings/ insurance	% = 6.25	5.26
Alimony/ child support	% = 18.75	10.51
Welfare/ AFDC	% = 50	31.57
Disability	% = 6.25	0
Social Security	% = 6.25	5.26
Parents/ children	% = 6.25	0
Other	% = 12.5	21.05
Years in Community	$\bar{x}$ = 16.7	10.9
How Enrollee Learned of Program* - Radio	% = 0	5.26
Brochure/poster	% = 0	10.51
Newspaper	% = 31.25	26.31
Social Service	% = 37.5	15.79
Friends/family	% = 12.5	31.57
Other	% = 25	21.05
Goals* - Self improvement	% = 56.25	52.63
Employment	% = 68.75	78.94
Learn a skill	% = 25	42.1
Financial security	% = 0	52.63
Complete education	% = 12.5	15.78

* = Multiple response questions

Table 16 Demographic Profile of Enrollees
(concluded)

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Services Desired* - Job placement	% = 12.5	10.52
Specific training	% = 18.75	15.78
Child care	% = 0	10.52
Transportation	% = 0	36.84
More money	% = 0	21.05
n =	16	19

* = Multiple response questions

Traditional. Sixteen of the study participants were enrolled in traditional displaced homemaker programs. The mean age for this group was 32.37 years with a range of 18 to 55 years. The race of the subjects was categorized as either White or Black. Enrollees indicating White as their race accounted for 43.75 percent of the subjects; enrollees indicating Black as their race accounted for 56.25 percent of the subjects. The mean level of education was 11.06 years with a range of 9 to 13 years.

The marital status of the enrollees was reported as follows: 31.25 percent were single, never married; 43.75 percent were separated; 12.5 percent were divorced; and 12.5 percent were widowed. Of those who had ever been married, 72.73 reported one marriage while 27.27 percent reported two marriages. Reported length of marriage revealed that 54.55 percent of the subjects had been married or in a primary relationship for one to five years; 9.09 percent were married for six to ten years; 18.18 percent were married for eleven to fifteen years and 18.18 percent reported marriages lasting twenty to thirty-five years. The mean length of marriage was ten years.

In response to which party initiated the end of the relationship, 63.64 percent of the subjects answered that

they initiated the termination; 18.18 percent reported the spouse initiated the action; and 18.18 percent reported death of spouse as the determinate. Relationships terminated for less than one year were reported by 63.64 percent of the subjects; 18.18 percent had been terminated from one to two years; 9.09 percent from two to four years; and 9.09 percent for eight years. The mean number of children for this group was 2.8 with a range of 0 to 7. The mean number of children at home as 1.3.

In response to the questions concerning employment, 72.73 percent indicated that they had worked for pay prior to marriage or the relationship. The mean number of years of paid employment was 5.3 with a range of 0 to 20. The mean length of time since holding the last paid employment position was 8.1 years with a range of from less than 1 to 35 years. The mean number of paid employment positions was two with a range of 0 to 4. Responses to the types of paid employment positions held were categorized into six areas. Multiple responses were given by several subjects resulting in a reported percentage in excess of 100. For this group, 37.5 percent had held clerical positions; 18.75 percent sales; 31.25 percent aide positions (includes child care and nursing); 12.5 percent domestic experience; 31.25 percent factory or laborer jobs; and 12.5 percent waitress or food service jobs.

Information concerning annual income was requested in ranges with 68.75 percent reporting less than $4,000; 12.5 percent reporting $4,000 to $6,999; 6.25 percent reporting $7,000 to $9,999; and 12.5 percent reporting $16,000 or more. Source of income was a multiple response item on the questionnaire. All subjects, 100 percent, reported salary as a source of income as all were paid minimum wage during their program enrollment. As to other income sources, 6.25 percent reported income from savings or insurance; 18.75 percent received alimony or child support; 50 percent received some type of welfare (usually Aid to Families with Dependent Children); 6.25 percent received disability; 6.25 percent received Social Security; 6.25 percent reported financial support from family or children; and 12.5 percent reported income from other sources.

Mobility of the subjects was reported in the length of time each had lived in the community where they were residing at the time of the study. The mean length of residence was 16.7 years with a range of four months to forty-six years.

Information concerning the enrollees' involvement with the displaced homemaker program was addressed with three multiple response questions. As to how subjects learned of

the program, 31.25 percent reported that they received information from newspapers; 37.5 percent made contacts through social service agencies; 12.5 percent learned of the program through family or friends; and 25 percent received program information from other services.

The last two questions sought information concerning personal goals and availability of program services. Responses were classified into categories to facilitate reporting. In response to goals they hoped to achieve as a result of enrollment in the displaced homemaker program, 56.25 percent responded with answers classified as self-improvement; 68.75 percent hoped to obtain employment; 25 percent wanted to learn a skill; and 12.5 percent hoped to complete their education. Of this group, 18.75 percent responded to the last question which asked the enrollee to indicate services she would like to have available that were not being offered by the program. Of the total group, 12.5 percent would have liked to receive job placement and 18.75 percent would have liked to receive specific skills training.

Nontraditional. Nineteen of the study participants were enrolled in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The mean age for this group was 29.2 years with a

range of 21 to 50 years. The race of the subjects was categorized as either White or Black. Enrollees indicating White as their race accounted for 47.37 percent of the subjects; enrollees indicating Black as their race accounted for 52.63 percent of the subjects. The mean level of education was 11.63 years with a range of 5 to 14 years.

The marital status of the enrollees was reported as follows: 31.58 percent were single, never married; 15.79 percent were married; 42.1 percent were separated; 5.26 percent were divorced; and 5.26 percent were widowed. Of those who had ever been married, 76.92 percent reported one marriage while 23.08 percent reported two marriages. Reported length of marriage revealed that 42.86 percent of the subjects had been married or in a primary relationship for one to five years; 35.72 percent were married for six to ten years; 7.14 percent were married for eleven to fifteen years; 14.29 percent reported marriages lasting twenty to thirty-five years. The mean length of marriage was 8.4 years.

In response to which party initiated the end of the relationship, 83.84 percent of the subjects answered that they initiated the termination; 8.33 percent reported the spouse initiated the action; and 8.33 percent reported death

of the spouse as the determinate. Relationships terminated for less than one year were reported by 16.67 percent of the subjects; 25 percent had been terminated from one to two years; 25 percent from two to four years; 8.33 percent from four to six years; and 25 percent from eight to ten years. The mean number of children for this group was 1.8 with a range of 0 to 6. The mean number of children at home was 1.3.

In response to the questions concerning employment, 64.29 percent indicated that they had worked for pay prior to marriage or the relationship. The mean number of years of paid employment was 7.1 with a range of 2 to 13. The mean length of time since holding the last paid employment position was 9.7 months with a range of less than one to three years. The mean number of paid employment positions was five with a range of 1 to 14. Responses to the types of paid employment held were categorized into six areas. Multiple responses were given by several subjects resulting in a reported percentage in excess of 100. For this group 47.37 percent had held clerical jobs; 21.05 percent sales; 47.37 percent aide positions (includes child care and nursing); 42.11 percent domestic experience; 26.31 percent factory or laborer jobs; and 36.84 percent waitress or food service jobs.

Information concerning annual income was requested in ranges with 73.69 percent reporting less than $4,000; 15.79 percent reporting $4,000 to $6,999; 5.26 percent reporting $7,000 to $9,999; and 5.26 percent reporting $10,000 to $12,999. As to sources of income, 68.72 percent reported salary; 5.26 percent reported income from savings or insurance; 10.51 percent received alimony or child support; 31.57 percent received some type of welfare (usually Aid to Families with Dependent Children); 5.26 percent received Social Security; and 21.05 percent reported income from other sources.

Mobility of the subjects was reported in the length of time each had lived in the community where they were residing at the time of the study. The mean length of residence was 10.9 years with a range of six months to thirty-two years.

Information concerning the enrollees' involvement with the displaced homemaker program was addressed with three multiple response questions. As to how subjects learned of the program, 5.26 percent reported that they received information from a radio announcement; 10.51 percent from posters or brochures; 26.31 percent received information from the newspaper; 15.79 percent made contacts through

social service agencies; 31.57 percent learned of the program through family or friends; and 21.05 percent received program information from other sources.

The last two questions sought information concerning personal goals and availability of program services. Responses were classified into categories to facilitate reporting. In response to goals they hoped to achieve as a result of enrollment in the displaced homemaker program, 52.63 percent responded with answers classified as self-improvement; 78.94 percent hoped to obtain employment; 42.1 percent wanted to learn a skill; 52.63 percent wanted to achieve financial security; and 15.78 hoped to complete their education. The final question asked the enrollee to indicate services she would like to have available that were not being offered by the program. Of the total group, 10.52 percent would like to receive job placement; 15.78 percent would like to receive specific skills training; 10.52 percent requested child care; 36.84 percent were in need of transportation; and 21.05 percent wanted more money.

Research Question Eight. What are the demographic characteristics of instructors in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs?

Information concerning demographic data of instructors in displaced homemaker programs was collected using the Instructor Information Instrument (Appendix D). The data were analyzed separately for traditional and nontraditional subjects (see Table 17).

Traditional. Six of the study participants were instructors in traditional displaced homemaker programs. All of the traditional program instructors were White females. One instructor in this group displayed several demographic traits that appeared significantly different from the other instructors. For that reason, two sets of calculations were computed for some of the responses. The figures contained within the parentheses are calculations based upon the deletion of the data on the one exceptional instructor. The mean age of the group was 49.7 (45.6) years with a range of 33 to 70 (33 to 60).

The marital status of the instructors was reported as follows: 66.6 percent were married; 16.7 percent were separated; and 16.7 percent were divorced. The mean number of times married was 1.17 (1.) with a range of one to two. The mean number of children for this group was 2.17 (2.6) with a range of 0 to 4.

Table 17

Demographic Profile of Instructors

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Sex - Female	% = 100	50
Male	% = 0	50
Age	$\bar{x}$ = 49.7	40.75
Race - White	% = 100	100
Black	% = 0	0
Marital Status - Married	% = 66.6	50
Separated	% = 16.7	0
Divorced	% = 16.7	50
Times Married	$\bar{x}$ = 1.17	1.25
Children	$\bar{x}$ = 2.17	1.75
Education (years)	$\bar{x}$ = 16.16	14.5
Teaching Experience (years)	$\bar{x}$ = 7.6	1
Levels of Teaching Experience*		
- Elementary	% = 50	33.3
Junior High	% = 75	0
High School	% = 75	66.7
Adult	% = 25	66.7
Taught All Female Classes Before - Yes	% = 0	0
No	% = 100	100

* = Multiple response question

Table 17 Demographic Profile of Instructors
(concluded)

	Traditional	Nontraditional
Time Affiliated with Program (months)	$\bar{x}$ = 10.6	11.5
Former Displaced Homemaker	% = 33.3	50
Mode of Displacement - Divorce	% = 100	100
n =	6	4

The mean level of education was 16.16 (15.4) years with a range of 12 to 20 (12 to 17). The mean number of years of teaching experience was 7.6 (0.25) with a range of 0 to 45 (0 to 2). Instructors reported having taught the following subjects: history, government, English, health, values clarification, self-awareness, sex education, drug education, parent education, and general education courses. In reply to a multiple response question concerning levels of teaching experience, of those with previous teaching experience, 50 (33.3) percent had worked with elementary students; 75 (66.7) percent had worked with junior high; and 75 (66.7) percent had worked with high school students; and 25 (0) percent had worked with adults. Subject areas taught in the displaced homemaker programs by this group of instructors included employment seeking skills, career education, consumer education, self-awareness, and survival skills. The mean number of months affiliated with the program was 10.6 with a range of 9 to 12. Of the traditional instructors, 33.3 percent indicated that they had once been displaced homemakers as a consequence of divorce.

Nontraditional. Four of the study participants were instructors in nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. Two of the instructors were female and two were male. All were White. The mean age of the group was 40.75 years with a range of 26 to 54.

Marital status of the group was equally distributed between married and divorced with 50 percent of the group falling into either category. The mean number of times married was 1.25 with a range of one to two. The mean number of children for this group was 1.75 with a range of 0 to 3.

The mean level of education was 14.5 years with a range of 12 to 16. The mean number of years of teaching experience was one year with a range of 0 to 2. Nontraditional instructors reported having taught the following subjects: career education, industrial arts, electronics, and maintenance mechanics. In reply to a multiple response question concerning levels of teaching experience, of those with previous teaching experience 33.3 percent had worked with elementary students; 66.7 percent had worked with high school students; and 66.7 percent had worked with adults. Subject areas taught in the displaced homemaker programs by this group of instructors included employment seeking skills, career education, carpentry, and electromechanics. The mean number of months affiliated with the program was 11.5 with a range of 6 to 18. Of the nontraditional instructors, 50 percent indicated that they had once been displaced homemakers as a consequence of divorce.

Summary

Based upon test scores, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference in the sex role identity of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs both before and after program activities. While most enrollees did not change in their sex role identity, those enrollees who did change were enrolled in nontraditional programs and tended to move toward more sex-typed roles.

Sex role identity was not a significant factor of instructors' involvement in traditional and nontraditional programs at either the pre- or posttest stage. Sex role identity of nearly half of the instructors moved toward less sex-typed roles from the beginning to the end of the program cycle.

The data suggested a significant difference in vocational interests existed only at the posttest stage for enrollees. While most enrollees did not change in their vocational interests from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, those enrollees who did change were in traditional displaced homemaker programs. Change in category of vocational interests remained within those occupational areas typically considered feminine. Data on all enrollees

indicated a wider distribution of vocational interests at the posttest stage.

Demographic data were very similar for enrollees in traditional and nontraditional programs with few exceptions. The traditional enrollees reported a greater mean number of children, as well as less time since termination of the relationship than the nontraditional enrollees. Another significant difference was the length of time since last paid employment with traditional enrollees reporting a greater length of time than nontraditional enrollees.

Demographic data were similar for instructors in traditional and nontraditional programs with some exceptions. Traditional instructors reported a greater mean age, higher mean years of education, as well as a higher mean number of years teaching experience than nontraditional instructors. None of the instructors in either group had ever taught all female classes prior to involvement with these displaced homemaker programs.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section offers a summary of the problem, research methods, data analysis, and findings. In the second section, the conclusions of the study are presented. The final section gives recommendations for future research.

Review of the Sample, Research Methods, Data Analysis, and Findings

Subjects. The sample for this study consisted of 35 enrollees in displaced homemaker programs and 10 instructors in those programs in Virginia. All enrollees met the definition of displaced homemaker as established for this study. Two types of displaced homemaker programs were included in the study--traditional and nontraditional.

Of the enrollees, 45.8 percent were in traditional programs, while 54.2 percent were in nontraditional programs. Race was classified as either White or Black with 45.8 percent of the enrollees classified as White and 54.2 percent Black. The mean educational level of enrollees was 11.34 years. Distribution of marital status was as follows: 31.43 percent single, never married; 8.57 percent married; 42.86 percent separated; 8.57 percent divorced; and 8.57 percent widowed. Of those who had ever been married, 75 percent had been married once and 25 percent had been married twice. The mean length of marriage was 9.2 years. The mean number of children was 2.3. A majority, 68.51 percent of the women, had worked for pay prior to marriage. The mean number of positions held was 3.5. Most all work experience was in traditional jobs including clerical, sales, aide positions, and factory work. The most common sources

of income reported were salary (CETA program enrollees received minimum wage) and welfare (Aid to Families with Dependent Children). The majority, 73.84 percent, of the enrollees considered employment a goal they hoped to achieve as a result of program involvement.

Of the instructors, 80 percent were female and 20 percent male. All instructors were White with a mean age of 45.22 years. Distribution of marital status indicated that 60 percent were married, 10 percent separated and 30 percent divorced. The mean number of marriages was 1.21. The mean number of children was 1.96. The mean level of education was 15.33 years. The mean number of years teaching experience was 4.3; however, this figure was skewed due to the relatively high number of years experience (45) reported by one instructor. If data for this exceptional person were deleted, the mean number was .63 years. None of the instructors had taught all female classes prior to involvement with these programs. The mean length of time affiliated with the program was 11.05 months. Twenty percent of the instructors indicated that they had once been a displaced homemaker as a consequence of divorce.

Research Methods. The research design used for this study was descriptive. The study investigated six research questions to determine differences in sex role identity and

vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs as well as measured change in scores on these variables. Sex role identity and change was also investigated for instructors in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs.

General Procedures. Approval to conduct the research was obtained from program directors. Pre- and posttest data collection was conducted at each program site from December, 1980, to March, 1981.

Instrumentation. The instruments selected for this study were the BEM Inventory, measuring sex role identity, and the Self-Directed Search, measuring vocational interests. Demographic data were collected using the Enrollee Information and the Instructor Information Instruments. Program information was obtained through interviews with the directors using the Program Information Instrument.

Analysis of Data. The chi square test (.05 alpha) was used to determine independence of enrollment in a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program based upon (1) sex role identity and (2) vocational interests of enrollees. Chi square was also used to determine independence of instructors' involvement in a traditional or nontraditional program and sex role identity of instructors.

Frequencies and percentages were calculated to determine change in sex role identity and vocational interests. Descriptive statistics were calculated to provide a profile of instructors and enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs.

Findings. The findings of the study were summarized as follows:

1. Enrollment in a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program was not independent of and may have been related to sex role identity of the enrollee.

2. Enrollment in a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program was not dependent upon vocational interests of the enrollee.

3. Sex role identity of 36.84 percent of the enrollees in displaced homemaker programs changed from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion. Of these changes, 28.57 percent moved to a less sex-typed role (androgyny), while 71.43 percent moved to a more sex-typed role (femininity or masculinity).

4. Vocational interests of enrollees changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle for 18.75 percent of the sample. Of those who changed, 66.7 percent stayed

within the group typically considered feminine (Social and Conventional) while 33.3 percent moved from a traditionally feminine occupational career area (Social) to a traditionally male dominated career area (Enterprising).

5. Instructor's involvement in a traditional or nontraditional program was not dependent upon the sex role identity of the instructor.

6. Sex role identity of 40 percent of the instructors in displaced homemaker programs changed from the beginning of the program cycle to its completion. Of these changes, all were to less sex-typed roles with 75 percent moving to androgyny and 25 percent to undifferentiated.

Conclusions

It can be concluded that there was a significant difference in the sex role identity of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs both before and after program activities. Therefore, sex role identity was a significant variable for these selected displaced homemaker program enrollees. However, due to the small sample, generalizability to the population of displaced homemakers is only speculative.

In addition, the data suggested that while most enrollees did not change in their sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, those enrollees who did change were enrolled in nontraditional programs and tended to move toward more sex-typed roles. As indicated in the literature, strongly sex-typed attitudes may impair the enrollees' ability to perform in nontraditional occupational settings where flexibility is desirable if not necessary.

Sex role identity was not a significant factor of instructors' involvement in traditional and nontraditional programs at either the pre- or posttest stage. Therefore, sex role identity was not a variable determining instructor involvement with a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program. Sex role identity of 40 percent of the instructors moved toward less sex-typed roles from the beginning to the end of the program cycle suggesting an increased flexibility in role. The androgynous role of these instructors could provide a role model which may encourage enrollees to consider a wider range of behavioral and career options.

The data suggested a significant difference in vocational interests existed only at the posttest stage. Thus, it may be concluded that program enrollment may not be con-

tingent upon vocational interest but rather may be dependent upon program availability. In addition, the data suggested that while most enrollees did not change in their vocational interests from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, those enrollees who did change were in traditional displaced homemaker programs. Change in category of vocational interests remained within those occupational areas typically considered feminine.

Data on all enrollees indicated a wider distribution of vocational interests at the posttest stage. The career exploration component included in all programs may have attributed to the increased range of vocational interests expressed by enrollees.

Recommendations

This study was confined to four displaced homemaker programs in the Commonwealth of Virginia. Due to the small enrollments in these programs, data were not generalizable to the displaced homemaker population. With this in mind, the following recommendations were made:

1. Follow-up enrollees to determine if enrollment in traditional or nontraditional programs is related to occupational choice.

2. Follow-up enrollees to determine if sex role identity changed following entry into the world of work.

3. Replicate the study with a larger random sample to obtain data with greater generalizability to the displaced homemaker population.

4. Study nontraditional enrollees on the job to determine problems encountered and needs not addressed by nontraditional displaced homemaker programs.

5. Compare sex role identity and vocational interests of displaced homemakers to that of potential displaced homemakers.

6. Investigate possible relationships between sex role identity and job satisfaction.

7. Study sex role attitudes of males and their willingness to work with females in nontraditional settings.

8. Study sex role attitudes of females and their willingness to work with males in nontraditional settings.

9. Develop more accurate and thorough evaluation procedures.

10. Investigate reasons why vocational educators and local directors are not utilizing resources, human and financial, to meet the needs of displaced homemakers.

11. Investigate locus of control as related to displaced homemakers.

12. Develop and implement educational strategies designed to prevent the problem of displacement from occuring.

13. Using a case study approach, investigate underlying reasons for displacement.

Summary

There was a significant difference in sex role identity of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs both before and after program activities. The data suggested a significant difference in vocational interests existed only at the posttest stage. Change in sex role identity or vocational interests over the period of the program cycle was minimal. The greatest change noted was in the case of instructors with almost half of the subjects changing to a less sex-typed sex role identity over the program cycle.

The researcher acknowledged the lack of generalizability of this study. Considering this, a number of research topics were recommended which would help to fill the obvious void in research pertinent to displaced homemakers.

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Appendix A

BEM INVENTORY

BEM INVENTORY

Developed by Sandra L. Bem, Ph.D.

Social Security Number _____

Name of Program _____

DIRECTIONS

On the opposite side of this sheet, you will find listed a number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics to describe yourself, that is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you each of these characteristics is. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Example: sly

Write a 1 if it is **never or almost never true** that you are sly.
Write a 2 if it is **usually not true** that you are sly.
Write a 3 if it is **sometimes but infrequently true** that you are sly.
Write a 4 if it is **occasionally true** that you are sly.
Write a 5 if it is **often true** that you are sly.
Write a 6 if it is **usually true** that you are sly.
Write a 7 if it is **always or almost always true** that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is **sometimes but infrequently true** that you are "sly," **never or almost never true** that you are "malicious," **always or almost always true** that you are "irresponsible," and **often true** that you are "carefree," then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3	Irresponsible	7
Malicious	1	Carefree	5

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1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true

*

Defend my own beliefs		Adaptable		Flatterable	
Affectionate		Dominant		Theatrical	
Conscientious		Tender		Self-sufficient	
Independent		Conceited		Loyal	
Sympathetic		Willing to take a stand		Happy	
Moody		Love children		Individualistic	
Assertive		Tactful		Soft-spoken	
Sensitive to needs of others		Aggressive		Unpredictable	
Reliable		Gentle		Masculine	
Strong personality		Conventional		Gullible	
Understanding		Self-reliant		Solemn	
Jealous		Yielding		Competitive	
Forceful		Helpful		Childlike	
Compassionate		Athletic		Likable	
Truthful		Cheerful		Ambitious	
Have leadership abilities		Unsystematic		Do not use harsh language	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings		Analytical		Sincere	
Secretive		Shy		Act as a leader	
Willing to take risks		Inefficient		Feminine	
Warm		Make decisions easily		Friendly	

*

Appendix B

THE SELF-DIRECTED SEARCH

THE SELF DIRECTED SEARCH

A Guide to Educational and Vocational Planning

by John L. Holland, Ph.D.

This booklet may help you explore what occupation to follow. If you have already made up your mind about an occupation, it may support your idea or suggest other possibilities. If you are uncertain about what occupation to follow, the booklet may help you to locate a small group of occupations for further consideration. Most people find that filling out this booklet is helpful and fun. If you follow the directions carefully, page by page, you should enjoy the experience. Do not rush: you will gain more by approaching the task thoughtfully. Use lead pencil, so you can erase easily.

Social Security Number _____

Name of Program _____

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ACTIVITIES

Blacken under "L" for those activities you would like to do. Blacken under "D" for those things you would dislike doing or would be indifferent to.

R

	L	D
Fix electrical things	☐	☐
Repair cars	☐	☐
Fix mechanical things	☐	☐
Build things with wood	☐	☐
Drive a truck or tractor	☐	☐
Use metalworking or machine tools	☐	☐
Work on a hot rod or motorcycle	☐	☐
Take Shop course	☐	☐
Take Mechanical drawing course	☐	☐
Take Woodworking course	☐	☐
Take Auto mechanics course	☐	☐
Total No. of L's	☐	

I

	L	D
Read scientific books or magazines	☐	☐
Work in a laboratory	☐	☐
Work on a scientific project	☐	☐
Build rocket models	☐	☐
Work with a chemistry set	☐	☐
Read about special subjects on my own	☐	☐
Solve math or chess puzzles	☐	☐
Take Physics course	☐	☐
Take Chemistry course	☐	☐
Take Geometry course	☐	☐
Take Biology course	☐	☐
Total No. of L's	☐	

A

	L	D
Sketch, draw, or paint	☐	☐
Attend plays	☐	☐
Design furniture or buildings	☐	☐
Play in a band, group, or orchestra	☐	☐
Practice a musical instrument	☐	☐
Go to recitals, concerts, or musicals	☐	☐
Read popular fiction	☐	☐
Create portraits or photographs	☐	☐
Read plays	☐	☐
Read or write poetry	☐	☐
Take Art course	☐	☐
Total No. of L's	☐	

S

	L	D
Write letters to friends	☐	☐
Attend religious services	☐	☐
Belong to social clubs	☐	☐
Help others with their personal problems	☐	☐
Take care of children	☐	☐
Go to parties	☐	☐
Dance	☐	☐
Read psychology books	☐	☐
Attend meetings and conferences	☐	☐
Go to sports events	☐	☐
Make new friends	☐	☐
Total No. of L's	☐	

E

	L	D
Influence others	☐	☐
Sell something	☐	☐
Discuss politics	☐	☐
Operate my own service or business	☐	☐
Attend conferences	☐	☐
Give talks	☐	☐
Serve as an officer of any group	☐	☐
Supervise the work of others	☐	☐
Meet important people	☐	☐
Lead a group in accomplishing some goal	☐	☐
Participate in political campaign	☐	☐
Total No. of L's	☐	

C

	L	D
Keep your desk and room neat	☐	☐
Type papers or letters for yourself or for others	☐	☐
Add, subtract, multiply, and divide numbers in business, or bookkeeping	☐	☐
Operate business machines of any kind	☐	☐
Keep detailed records of expenses	☐	☐
Take Typewriting course	☐	☐
Take Business course	☐	☐
Take Bookkeeping course	☐	☐
Take Commercial math course	☐	☐
File letters, reports, records, etc.	☐	☐
Write business letters	☐	☐
Total No. of L's	☐	

COMPETENCIES

Blacken under Y for "Yes" for those activities you can do well or competently. Blacken under N for "No" for those activities you have never performed or perform poorly.

R	Y	N
I have used wood shop power tools such as power saw or lathe or sander	☐	☐
I know how to use a voltmeter	☐	☐
I can adjust a carburetor	☐	☐
I have operated power tools such as a drill press or grinder or sewing machine	☐	☐
I can refinish varnished or stained furniture or woodwork	☐	☐
I can read blueprints	☐	☐
I can make simple electrical repairs	☐	☐
I can repair furniture	☐	☐
I can make mechanical drawings	☐	☐
I can make simple repairs on a TV set	☐	☐
I can make simple plumbing repairs	☐	☐
Total No. of Y's	☐	

I	Y	N
I understand how a vacuum tube works	☐	☐
I can name three foods that are high in protein content	☐	☐
I understand the "half-life" of a radioactive element	☐	☐
I can use logarithmic tables	☐	☐
I can use a slide rule to multiply or divide	☐	☐
I can use a microscope	☐	☐
I can identify three constellations of the stars	☐	☐
I can describe the function of the white blood cells	☐	☐
I can interpret simple chemical formulae	☐	☐
I understand why man-made satellites do not fall to the earth	☐	☐
I have participated in a scientific fair or contest	☐	☐
Total No. of Y's	☐	

A	Y	N
I can play a musical instrument	☐	☐
I can participate in two- or four-part choral singing	☐	☐
I can perform as a musical soloist	☐	☐
I can act in a play	☐	☐
I can do interpretive reading	☐	☐
I can do modern interpretive or ballet dancing	☐	☐
I can sketch people so that they can be recognized	☐	☐
I can do a painting or sculpture	☐	☐
I can make pottery	☐	☐
I can design clothing, posters, or furniture	☐	☐
I write stories or poetry well	☐	☐
Total No. of Y's	☐	

S

	Y	N
I am good at explaining things to others	☐	☐
I have participated in charity or benefit drives	☐	☐
I cooperate and work well with others	☐	☐
I am competent at entertaining people older than I	☐	☐
I can be a good host (hostess)	☐	☐
I can teach children easily	☐	☐
I can plan entertainment for a party	☐	☐
I am good at helping people who are upset or troubled	☐	☐
I have worked as a volunteer aide in a hospital, clinic, or home	☐	☐
I can plan school or church social affairs	☐	☐
I am a good judge of personality	☐	☐
Total No. of Y's	☐	

E

I have been elected to an office in high school or college	☐	☐
I can supervise the work of others	☐	☐
I have unusual energy and enthusiasm	☐	☐
I am good at getting people to do things my way	☐	☐
I am a good salesperson	☐	☐
I have acted as leader for some group in presenting suggestions or complaints to a person in authority	☐	☐
I won an award for work as a salesperson or leader	☐	☐
I have organized a club, group, or gang	☐	☐
I have started my own business or service	☐	☐
I know how to be a successful leader	☐	☐
I am a good debater	☐	☐
Total No. of Y's	☐	

C

I can type 40 words a minute	☐	☐
I can operate a duplicating or adding machine	☐	☐
I can take shorthand	☐	☐
I can file correspondence and other papers	☐	☐
I have held an office job	☐	☐
I can use a bookkeeping machine	☐	☐
I can do a lot of paper work in a short time	☐	☐
I can use a calculating machine	☐	☐
I can use simple data processing equipment such as a keypuch	☐	☐
I can post credits and debits	☐	☐
I can keep accurate records of payments or sales	☐	☐
Total No. of Y's	☐	

OCCUPATIONS

This is an inventory of your feelings and attitudes about many kinds of work. Show the occupations that *interest* or *appeal* to you by blackening under Y for "Yes." Show the occupations that you *dislike* or find *uninteresting* by blackening under N for "No."

	Y	N
Airplane Mechanic	☐	☐
Fish and Wildlife Specialist	☐	☐
Auto Mechanic	☐	☐
Carpenter	☐	☐
Power Shovel Operator	☐	☐
Surveyor	☐	☐
Construction Inspector	☐	☐
Radio Operator	☐	☐
Filling Station Worker	☐	☐
Tree Surgeon	☐	☐
Long Distance Bus Driver	☐	☐
Locomotive Engineer	☐	☐
Machinist	☐	☐
Electrician	☐	☐
Total **R** Y's	☐	

	Y	N
Sociologist	☐	☐
High School Teacher	☐	☐
Juvenile Delinquency Expert	☐	☐
Speech Therapist	☐	☐
Marriage Counselor	☐	☐
School Principal	☐	☐
Playground Director	☐	☐
Clinical Psychologist	☐	☐
Social Science Teacher	☐	☐
Director of Welfare Agency	☐	☐
Youth Camp Director	☐	☐
Personal Counselor	☐	☐
Psychiatric Case Worker	☐	☐
Vocational Counselor	☐	☐
Total **S** Y's	☐	

	Y	N
Meteorologist	☐	☐
Biologist	☐	☐
Astronomer	☐	☐
Medical Laboratory Technician	☐	☐
Anthropologist	☐	☐
Zoologist	☐	☐
Chemist	☐	☐
Independent Research Scientist	☐	☐
Writer of Scientific Articles	☐	☐
Editor of a Scientific Journal	☐	☐
Geologist	☐	☐
Botanist	☐	☐
Scientific Research Worker	☐	☐
Physicist	☐	☐
Total **I** Y's	☐	

	Y	N
Speculator	☐	☐
Buyer	☐	☐
Advertising Executive	☐	☐
Manufacturer's Representative	☐	☐
Television Producer	☐	☐
Hotel Manager	☐	☐
Business Executive	☐	☐
Restaurant Manager	☐	☐
Master of Ceremonies	☐	☐
Salesperson	☐	☐
Real Estate Salesperson	☐	☐
Publicity Director	☐	☐
Sports Promoter	☐	☐
Sales Manager	☐	☐
Total **E** Y's	☐	

	Y	N
Poet	☐	☐
Symphony Conductor	☐	☐
Musician	☐	☐
Author	☐	☐
Commercial Artist	☐	☐
Free-Lance Writer	☐	☐
Musical Arranger	☐	☐
Journalist	☐	☐
Portrait Artist	☐	☐
Concert Singer	☐	☐
Composer	☐	☐
Sculptor/Sculptress	☐	☐
Playwright	☐	☐
Cartoonist	☐	☐
Total **A** Y's	☐	

	Y	N
Bookkeeper	☐	☐
Business Teacher	☐	☐
Budget Reviewer	☐	☐
Certified Public Accountant	☐	☐
Credit Investigator	☐	☐
Court Stenographer	☐	☐
Bank Teller	☐	☐
Tax Expert	☐	☐
Inventory Controller	☐	☐
IBM Equipment Operator	☐	☐
Financial Analyst	☐	☐
Cost Estimator	☐	☐
Payroll Clerk	☐	☐
Bank Examiner	☐	☐
Total **C** Y's	☐	

SELF-ESTIMATES

1. Rate yourself on each of the following traits as *you really think you are when compared with other persons your own age.* Give the most accurate estimate of *how you see yourself.* Circle the appropriate number and *avoid rating yourself the same in each ability.*

	Mechanical Ability	Scientific Ability	Artistic Ability	Teaching Ability	Sales Ability	Clerical Ability
High	7	7	7	7	7	7
	6	6	6	6	6	6
	5	5	5	5	5	5
Average	4	4	4	4	4	4
	3	3	3	3	3	3
	2	2	2	2	2	2
Low	1	1	1	1	1	1
	R	I	A	S	E	C

	Manual Skills	Math Ability	Musical Ability	Friend-liness	Managerial Skills	Office Skills
High	7	7	7	7	7	7
	6	6	6	6	6	6
	5	5	5	5	5	5
Average	4	4	4	4	4	4
	3	3	3	3	3	3
	2	2	2	2	2	2
Low	1	1	1	1	1	1
	R	I	A	S	E	C

HOW TO ORGANIZE YOUR ANSWERS

Start on page 1. Count how many times you said L for "Like." Record the number of L's or Y's for each group of Activities, Competencies, or Occupations on the lines below.

	R	I	A	S	E	C
Activities	___	___	___	___	___	___
Competencies	___	___	___	___	___	___
Occupations	___	___	___	___	___	___
Self Estimates (What number did you circle?)	___	___	___	___	___	___
	___	___	___	___	___	___
Total Scores (Add the five R scores, the five I scores, the five A scores, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___	___

The letters with the three highest numbers indicate your summary code. Write your summary code below. (If two scores are the same or tied, put both letters in the same box.)

SUMMARY CODE

Highest	2nd	3rd
☐	☐	☐

Appendix C

ENROLLEE INFORMATION

Social Security Number _____

Name of Program _____

This information is being collected to provide a more complete picture of enrollees in displaced homemaker programs in Virginia. All information is confidential. Your participation in this project will enable program providers to learn more about displaced homemakers and how to meet their unique needs. Thank you for your willingness to participate.

Please check the most appropriate answer for the information requested. Feel free to ask questions. Thank you again.

1. Age: _____ Years

2. Race:
   _____ White
   _____ Black

3. Highest level of education completed: _____

4. Current marital status:

   _____ Single, never married
   _____ Married
   _____ Separated
   _____ Divorced
   _____ Widowed

5. Number of times married: _____

6. Length of last marriage/primary relationship:

   _____ Years

7. How was the end of the last marriage/relationship

initiated:

_____ By you
_____ By spouse
_____ By death of spouse

8. How long since marriage/relationship ended:

_____ Months or _____ Years

9. Number of children: _____

10. Number of children living with you: _____

11. Did you work for pay before marriage:

_____ Yes
_____ No

12. Approximate length of time you have worked for pay:

_____ Years

13. Length of time since last paid employment position: (do not count present position)

_____ Months or _____ Years

14. Number of paid employment positions you have held in the past five years: (include part-time jobs)

_____

15. Titles or descriptions of paid employment positions you have held:

16. Current income (annually)

_____ Below $4,000
_____ $4,000 - 6,999
_____ $7,000 - 9,999
_____ $10,000 - 12,999
_____ $13,000 - 15,999
_____ $16,000 or more

17. Current sources of income: (check all that apply)

_____ Salary
_____ Savings/insurance
_____ Alimony/child support
_____ Welfare (AFDC)
_____ Disability
_____ Social Security
_____ Parents/children
_____ Other
_____ None

18. Length of residence in this community or town:

_____ Months or _____ Years

19. How you learned of this displaced homemaker program:

_____ Radio
_____ Television
_____ Brochure/poster
_____ Newspaper
_____ Social service agency
_____ Friends/family
_____ Other

20. What are three goals you hope to achieve as a result of enrolling in this displaced homemaker program?

21. What services would you like to have available that this displaced homemaker program does not currently offer?

Appendix D

INSTRUCTOR INFORMATION

Social Security Number _____

Name of Program _____

This information is being collected as part of a project to provide a profile of instructors in displaced homemaker programs in Virginia. All information is confidential. Thank you for your willingness to participate.

1. Sex:
   _____ Female
   _____ Male

2. Age: _____ Years

3. Race:
   _____ White
   _____ Black

4. Current marital status:

   _____ Single, never married
   _____ Married
   _____ Separated
   _____ Divorced
   _____ Widowed

5. Number of times married: _____

6. Number of children: _____

7. Highest level of education completed: _____

8. Teaching experience: _____ Years

9. Subject areas you have taught in the past:

10. Levels of teaching experience:

_____ Elementary
_____ Junior High
_____ High School
_____ Adult

11. What subject area(s) did you teach in this displaced homemaker program?

12. Have you taught all female classes prior to your involvement with this displaced homemaker program?

_____ Yes
_____ No

13. Length of time you have been affiliated with this displaced homemaker program?

_____ Months

14. Have you ever been a displaced homemaker?

_____ Yes
_____ No

15. If yes, were you:

_____ Abandoned
_____ Divorced
_____ Widowed

Appendix E

PROGRAM INFORMATION

Name and location of program

Length of time in operation

Funding source(s)

_____ Voc Ed
_____ CETA
_____ Foundation Grants
_____ Tuition
_____ Other (specify)

Stated program objectives

Secondary program objectives (anticipated outcomes not included in primary objectives)

Method of determining objectives

Description of program

Length of cycle

Program components and amount of time spent on each

Method of determining components

Outreach/recruitment procedures

Client selection procedure

Client intake procedure

Services available to client

_____ Personal counseling
_____ Legal aid
_____ Financial assistance
_____ Child care
_____ Transportation
_____ Vocational training
(specific availability, delivery system)
_____ Job placement
_____ Other (specify)

Client follow-up

Program capacity

Number of people served to date

Anticipated program growth (3 years)

Number of staff and position titles

Staff/instructor selection criteria

Evaluation procedures

Appendix F

PARTICIPATING DISPLACED HOMEMAKER PROGRAMS

Consultation & Learning Center, Inc.

Women's Resource Center

Alexandria Commission on the Status of Women

Women's Work World

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SEX ROLE IDENTITY AND VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF ENROLLEES IN TRADITIONAL AND NONTRADITIONAL DISPLACED HOMEMAKER PROGRAMS IN VIRGINIA

by

Sandra Eileen Howlett

(ABSTRACT)

There were two primary purposes of this study. The first purpose was to describe and compare the sex role identity and vocational interests of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs. The second purpose was to determine if sex role identity and vocational interests changed from the beginning to the end of the program cycle. Secondary purposes of this study included (a) a description of the sex role identity of instructors in displaced homemaker programs and a determination of change of sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, as well as (b) the establishment of demographic profiles of enrollees and instructors.

The sample consisted of 35 enrollees and 10 instructors in four displaced homemaker programs in Virginia. The

instruments used in this study were the BEM Inventory and the Self-Directed Search. Program information and demographic information on enrollees and instructors was also collected. Descriptive analysis was used for the study.

It can be concluded that there was a significant difference in the sex role identity of enrollees in traditional and nontraditional displaced homemaker programs both before and after program activities. Therefore, sex role identity was a significant variable for these selected displaced homemaker program enrollees. However, due to the small sample, generalizability to the population of displaced homemakers is only speculative.

In addition, the data suggested that while most enrollees did not change in their sex role identity from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, those enrollees who did change were enrolled in nontraditional programs and tended to move toward more sex-typed roles. As indicated in the literature, strongly sex-typed attitudes may impair the enrollees' ability to perform in nontraditional occupational settings where flexibility is desirable if not necessary.

No significant difference was found in the sex role identity of instructors in traditional and nontraditional programs at either the pre- or posttest stage. Therefore,

sex role identity was not a variable determining instructor involvement with a traditional or nontraditional displaced homemaker program. Sex role identity of 40 percent of the instructors moved toward less sex-typed roles from the beginning to the end of the program cycle suggesting an increased flexibility in role. The androgynous role of these instructors could provide a role model which may encourage enrollees to consider a wider range of behavioral and career options.

The data suggested that a significant difference in vocational interests existed only at the posttest stage. Thus, it may be concluded that program enrollment may not be contingent upon vocational interest but rather may be dependent upon program availability. In addition, the data suggested that while most enrollees did not change in their vocational interests from the beginning to the end of the program cycle, those enrollees who did change were in traditional displaced homemaker programs. Change in category of vocational interests remained within those occupational areas typically considered feminine.

Data on all enrollees indicated a wider distribution of vocational interests at the posttest stage. The career exploration component included in all programs may have

attributed to the increased range of vocational interests expressed by enrollees.