THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

Work Self-Concept of Long-Term Employed

Adults with Mental Handicaps

by

Shelley Ann Kinash

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

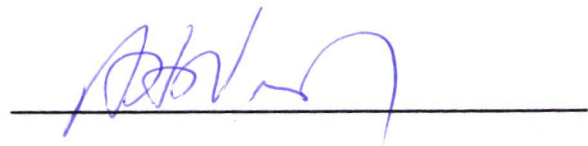DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

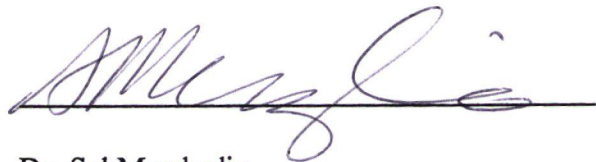CALGARY, ALBERTA

SEPTEMBER, 1995

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Work Self-Concept of Long-Term Employed Adults with Mental Handicaps" submitted by Shelley Ann Kinash in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.
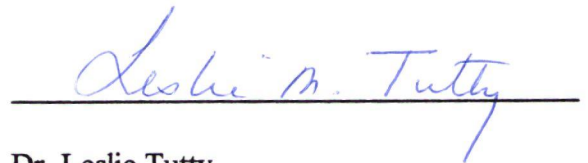
_____

Supervisor, Dr. Aldred H. Neufeldt

Department of Educational Psychology

_____

Dr. Sal Mendaglio

Department of Educational Psychology

_____

Dr. Leslie Tutty

Faculty of Social Work

20 September, 1995
_____

Date

ii

ABSTRACT

Thirty-one long term employed adults with mental handicaps recounted their reasons for initially accepting and then remaining in their jobs and completed two self-report instruments designed to measure self-concept. The purpose of the research was to discover reasons why some adults with mental handicaps remain in the same job for many consecutive years. Fifty-eight percent of research participants gave reasons which were not job specific (Extra-Job) for accepting employment, of which the modal reason was money (7/31). Fifty-two percent of the participants gave reasons which were specific to the job (Intra-Job) for remaining employed, of which the modal reason was interpersonal (9/31). A significant shift in reasons over time was not evident. Seventy-one percent of participants offered the same type of reason for both accepting and remaining employed. There were no differences between self-concept scores of participants who gave Intra-Job reasons versus Extra-Job reasons for remaining in their jobs. Secondary results revealed that the participants scored higher on the reflected appraisals and self-attribution scales, than on the social comparison scale, and indicated that the first two were more important. The participants also scored higher on the ethical, social, and work facets of self-concept and indicated that these facets were more important than athletic and physical appearance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Today, many adults with mental handicaps work in regular jobs alongside their non-disabled peers. While the employment rate of Canadian adults with disabilities does not even begin to approximate that of non-disabled adults, the chasm appears to be diminishing (if only slightly). Neufeldt and Friio (1994) present statistics collected by the Health Activity Limitation Surveys (HALS). Of Canadians between the ages of 15 and 64, 40.4% who self-reported to have a disability (inclusive of but not restricted to mental handicap), and 70% without disabilities were employed in 1986. In 1991, 48.2% with disabilities and 72.9% without disabilities were employed. In other words, the discrepancy in rates of employment between adults without and with disabilities was 29.6% in 1986 and 24.7% in 1991.

For adults with mental handicaps, an increased rate of employment is largely due to the supported employment movement. "Supported employment," as defined by the Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services (1990) is "...paid employment in an integrated competitive work setting where on-going, individualized training and support is provided to a person with a disability" (Sylvestre & Gottlieb, 1992, p. 25). Neufeldt and Friio (1994) state that since the late 1970s, many of the sheltered workshops have made efforts to help consumers secure community integrated employment. According to a 1983 report of the Canadian Council on Rehabilitation and Work, 25,000 Canadians, 70% of whom were mentally handicapped, were receiving services from sheltered workshops (Health and Welfare Canada, and Employment and Immigration Canada, 1989). In 1988, the Canadian Council on Rehabilitation and Work studied supported employment. Three hundred and twenty-four organizations were identified as providing some

form of employment support. Of the 208 organizations who returned questionnaires, 152 reported providing supported employment services as defined above. Some of these services were based out of sheltered workshops (better known today as vocational training centres). Others were separate programs, formed expressly for the purpose of providing supported employment. Twenty-four hundred persons (an average of sixteen per program) reportedly held community integrated jobs (Health and Welfare Canada, and Employment and Immigration Canada, 1989, p. 28). Wehman and Parent (1992) made a general comment that "today [in the United States], more than 20,000 individuals with severe disabilities are successfully working in integrated jobs because of the supported employment services they have received" (p. 259).

While more adults with mental handicaps are now part of the workforce, employment profiles are far from ideal. Test, Bond Hinson, Solow and Keul (1993) refer to "generations" in the current employment history of adults with mental handicaps. In the "first generation," program achievement was measured largely by numbers of individuals with mental handicaps who secured jobs. In the "second generation," satisfactory supported employment placement is not sufficient; issues surrounding quality of placement have become predominant in the literature. Test et al. (1993) include the following as second generation issues - "providing quality services, and improving the quality of workers' lives including increased community integration, empowerment and choice, and personal futures planning" (p. 38).

One the barriers to "quality of workers' lives" is the short duration of jobs. High job turnover results in problems for the employee, employer, supported employment program, and society at large. The Roeher Institute (1992) identifies the economic problems faced by employees who move from job to job - "if having a job is likely to mean working for only a brief

period of time, securing earnings adequate to address basic and disability-related costs is a major dilemma" (p. 144). High job turnover places extensive time and money demands on the employer for rehiring and retraining. Supported employment programs must dedicate time, energy and staff resources to helping the same person secure job after job (Shafer, Banks & Kregel, 1991). Many of the supported employment programs serving adults with mental handicaps rely upon government funding (Shafer, Banks & Kregel, 1991), thereby demanding tax-payers' money (Bell, 1988; Hill, Banks, Handrich, Wehman, Hill & Shafer, 1987). Wehman and Kregel (1985) state that "the cost of dependency in terms of public income maintenance and other forms of assistance places a tremendous strain on our nation's economy" (p. 3).

Adults with mental handicaps tend to repeat a pattern of securing a job, working in it for a short time, quitting or being fired, securing another job, working in it for a short time and so on. While studies differ in the duration over which they are conducted and in the means used to calculate job retention, the consistent overall finding is that very few adults with mental handicaps remain employed in the same position for two years or longer. For example, in Shafer, Banks and Kregel's (1991) study of 302 supported employees, just less than 30% remained employed in their original positions two years into the study. The modal length of time for which participants maintained employment was nine months. Although this study was conducted in the United States, the problem of work longevity exists in Canada as well. A report addressing "Canada's employment-related problems for persons with disabilities" produced by The Roeher Institute in 1992 stated that "...employed persons with disabilities...are more likely [than persons without disabilities] to be working in full-time jobs lasting less than six months" (p. 144).

One of the factors which may contribute to short durations of employment is the type of position usually secured by adults with mental handicaps. The overwhelming majority of supported employees work in entry-level, non- or low-skilled jobs, such as dishwashing, bussing tables, cleaning or assembling. For example, a study of 214 adults with mental handicaps placed into supported employment in Virginia revealed that the vast majority (93.5%) were employed in "entry-level, non-skilled positions." Of the 93.5%, 41.5% were employed in food service, 41% in janitorial, and 11% in laundry occupations (Hill, Banks, Handrich, Wehman, Hill & Shafer, 1987, p. 75). Once again, the study is American, but the predominance of entry-level, non- or low-skilled jobs in the employment profile of adults with mental handicaps is also true for Canadians. A report by Health and Welfare Canada, and Employment and Immigration Canada (1989) stated that "persons with disabilities [in Canada] are more likely [than persons without disabilities] to be employed in agricultural and service occupations" (p. 29).

Entry-level, non- or low-skilled jobs have high employee turnover rates regardless of whether or not the employees have disabilities. Richardson, Koller and Katz (1990) found no difference in "numbers of jobs left per year" between a sample of 100 employees with disabilities and 52 employees without disabilities, none of whom had the qualifications to graduate beyond entry-level employment. Shafer, Banks and Kregel (1991) mention results of a National Hotel and Restaurant Association study which found that more than 2,300 individuals in entry-level positions remained in their jobs for less than five months (p. 108).

Some researchers suggest that employee turnover rates are tied to the status of the jobs. Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982), for example, describe self-perceptions of individuals in high status positions.

...members of occupational groups often develop occupational self-images: sets of beliefs, attitudes, and evaluations regarding their work. By stressing certain highly valued aspects of the work - the skill it requires, its social utility, the prerequisites it affords - an occupational self-image can provide work motivation and work satisfaction. The person in a high-status occupation is aided in maintaining a flattering self-image by the prestige of his occupation... (p. 401,402)

Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) juxtapose the societal perception of low-status positions as follows: "Low-ranking occupations, however, do not command favourable society-wide evaluations; the public evaluates many jobs as unappealing or, offentimes, distasteful [sic]" (p. 402). Many of the jobs held by adults with mental handicaps are low-status. Dishwashing, table bussing, and janitorial jobs, for example, involve cleaning-up other people's wastes. These positions have no educational prerequisites, and seldom yield opportunities for occupational advancement. These jobs offer the majority of employees few causes to feel good about themselves.

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs, esteem needs follow physiological, safety, and belongingness. Esteem needs (the need to feel good about ourselves) may be the key to understanding employment patterns. Franken (1988) explains that "the job becomes a vehicle for satisfying the esteem needs. Jobs can provide an opportunity to achieve and to develop competence. Further, a job can give us prestige, status, recognition, and appreciation" (p. 462). Franken explains that people seek jobs to fulfil esteem needs. "It is not surprising, within the context of Maslow's theory, that more and more people should look for jobs that, in addition to giving them money, will allow them to satisfy the esteem needs" (p. 462). It is also not surprising

that entry-level, non- or low-skilled positions do not satisfy many people's esteem needs. Individuals with unsatisfied esteem needs may quit their jobs or perform in ways which provoke dismissal.

There is a minority of individuals with mental handicaps who maintain their jobs for many years. Why do they remain in their jobs? Are their reasons for remaining the same or different from their reasons for initially accepting their jobs? Are their esteem needs being met? How do long-term employed adults with mental handicaps think and feel about themselves (self-concept)?

Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) explored many of these questions with a sample of individuals without disabilities, employed in a low-status occupation. The researchers' interviews with 144 psychiatric attendants supported their hypothesis that because entry-level, non- or low-skilled jobs offer minimal initial appeal in and of themselves, people in such occupations accept their employment for reasons which have little to do with the specific job, such as money (Extra-Job reasons), and then find reasons specific to the job for remaining, such as "humanitarian interest in patients' welfare" (Intra-Job reasons). Although the researchers did not test the assertion, they also suggested that individuals build a self-concept around their reasons for remaining employed. If employees do indeed build a self-concept around their reasons, then the self-concepts of employees who remain for reasons specific to the job should differ from the self-concepts of those who remain for reasons which are not specific to the job.

The current research is based on the Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) study. The purpose of the research is to explore what enables some adults with mental handicaps to maintain community integrated employment for above average lengths of time (two years or more). Specifically, the research explores whether the majority of long-term employed adults with mental

handicaps accept their jobs for reasons which have little to do with the specific job (Extra-Job) and then find a reason specific to the job for remaining (Intra-Job), and whether there are differences in facets of self-concept, principles of self-concept formation, valence scores, and/or factors of work self-concept between employees who give Intra-Job reasons for remaining and employees who give Extra-Job reasons for remaining. The research is approached from the perspective of adults with mental handicaps. Dore (1987) stresses the importance of seeking the impressions of the consumers.

> It is uncommon in the field of mental handicap to approach problems...starting from the point of view of people with a mental handicaps themselves. ...The large majority of people who have a mental handicap know what pleases them, what bothers them, what they want and don't want, and are very capable of expressing it... If they don't express this often enough, it's because we don't ask their opinions very often. (p. 36)

The intention is that this research will be practically applied to helping adults with mental handicaps who have a history of moving through job after job. An awareness of the reasons for employment and self-concepts of employees who have maintained their jobs for many years can lead to intervention which facilitates employment longevity for others.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Over time, developments in vocational rehabilitation have resulted in systems of community support for adults with mental handicaps. One particular system of vocational rehabilitation, supported employment, has largely contributed to the increased participation of adults with mental handicaps in the workforce. Examination of employment profiles reveals that adults with mental handicaps primarily work in entry-level, non- or low-skilled jobs characterized by high rates of employee-turnover.

A minority of individuals maintain their jobs for many consecutive years. Long durations of employment are surprising given the improbability of such positions satisfying the employee's esteem needs. To the researcher's knowledge, studies have not explored long-term employed adults with mental handicaps' reasons for remaining in their jobs.

Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) explored reasons for employment held by a different group of individuals working in low-status occupations - psychiatric attendants. The results of their research indicated that there was a significant shift in reasons over time from initially accepting the job to remaining in the job in terms of whether or not the reasons were specific to the job in question. Although Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) did not test the assertion, they suggested that after employees find reasons specific to the job for remaining, they build a self-concept around those reasons. If the self-concept construct is to be properly explored, a number of components must be recognized - facets of self-concept, principles of self-concept formation, valence, and work self-concept.

History of Vocational Rehabilitation for Adults with Mental Handicaps

The Canadian Vocational Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons (VRDP) Act defines

vocational rehabilitation as "any process of restoration, training and employment placement

including services related thereto, the object of which is to enable a person to become capable of

occupation" (Marlett & Day, 1984). Although the Act was not legislated until 1961, vocational

rehabilitation began centuries before that date.

The sixteenth century saw the inception of workhouses (Marlett & Day, 1984). In the

sixteenth to eighteenth centuries people with mental handicaps with no families (by virtue of death

or abandonment), and other individuals with similar life circumstances (for example, people with

mental illnesses, and people who were poverty stricken), were placed in hospitals and

workhouses, both of which had a vocational component (Gerdtz, 1993). Marlett and Day (1984)

report that one of the first vocational programs within a hospital setting was in the early 1600's; a

work program was added to a hospice for the aged by the Catholic order of St. Vincent de Paul.

Gerdtz (1993) describes another first in the 1700's when vocational training was added to the

Bicetre Hospital in Paris.

The nineteenth century was characterized by a rapid expansion of scientific knowledge and

an interest in application of scientific discovery (Gerdtz, 1993). Researchers distinguished mental

handicaps from mental illnesses and defined the importance of developing specialized services for

each. For adults with mental handicaps, the importance of vocational training was emphasized.

According to Gerdtz (1993), research did not result in better quality of life for people with mental

handicaps. The workhouses (sometimes referred to as poorhouses) and work farms continued to

operate. The first institutions for people with mental handicaps in North America were erected

from 1850 through 1870 (Wolfensberger, 1972, p.15). The first Canadian "centre for mentally retarded persons" opened in 1859 in Orillia, Ontario. It was a "branch operation of the provincial lunatic asylum" (National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1977, p. 7).

Due to several factors, vocational rehabilitation did not develop in the early twentieth century. Wolfensberger (1972) reports that from about 1920 through to 1960 conditions and research in the field of mental handicap "lay dormant and stagnant" (p. 123). He attributes this dormancy to a period of "genetic alarm" in which false information about genetic origins of cognitive impairment spawned an emphasis on eugenics and societal protection from people with disabilities (Wolfensberger, 1972, p. 123). Hitler's actions were symptomatic of the various scientific theories and dogma of the times. In 1929, in Germany, Hitler began publicly asserting his beliefs regarding the benefit of "removing" people with disabilities from society. In 1939 his plan began to be operationalized (Gerdtz, 1993). Another factor contributing to the dormancy of vocational rehabilitation services was the depression in the 1920's and 1930's. The financial constraints on families were extreme and resulted in a "flood of admissions" to institutions (Gerdtz, 1993). Vocational rehabilitation efforts within institutions were undoubtedly restricted or even suspended as funding restraints resulted in a bare subsistence for the residents (Gerdtz, 1993).

Two forces seem to have been instrumental in promoting the development of vocational rehabilitation towards the middle of the twentieth century. The first was the end of the second world war (1939-1945). Marlett and Day (1984) report that "there was a flurry of activity to establish support for returning soldiers" (p. 87). The support was offered largely through "voluntary agencies" (Marlett & Day, 1984). It is likely that some of these agencies also provided

support for other individuals excluded from the workforce such as adults with mental handicaps. In any case, even if the end of the war did not result in immediate direct services for adults with mental handicaps, the "flurry" of support for soldiers provided opportunity for development of vocational rehabilitation models.

The second force promoting the development of vocational rehabilitation for adults with mental handicaps in this period was the parent movement. The National Institute on Mental Retardation [NIMR] (1977) reports that, "for reasons not yet clearly understood, the 1950's and early '60's [sic] saw a spontaneous and almost world-wide formation and growth of associations for parents and volunteers who banded together for mutual support and common action" (p. 15). The parents united to demand and create services for their sons and daughters. In addition to creation of services, parents educated society about mental handicap, and in so doing, effected attitude change. The NIMR (1977) stresses the significance of the parent movement. They state, "it must be remembered that until parent groups established their own services, the professional community [were]...convinced that retarded persons were hopeless cases" (p. 25). The parents' efforts were initially focussed on securing schooling for their children. As their sons and daughters entered adulthood, parent associations developed activity centres and sheltered workshops. The provincial governments often contributed financial resources and specialized services such as "vocational training programs" (NIMR, 1977).

The Kennedy family gave the parent movement "a tremendous boost." John F. Kennedy, President of the United States, "took a special interest in mental retardation." In 1962, the Kennedy family announced that John F.'s sister, Rosemary, had a mental handicap. Rosemary's presence in the Kennedy family was publicly influential in two ways. The announcement made it

easier for other parents to admit that they too had a son or daughter with a mental handicap. John F. Kennedy's understanding and heightened empathy for the talents and needs of individuals with mental handicaps led him to support research and services (NIMR, 1977).

Knowledge and services established through the parents' movement created preconditions by which the principle of "normalization" could receive greater acceptance and practical application. Normalization is defined as "utilization of means which are as culturally normative as possible, in order to establish and/or maintain personal behaviors and characteristics which are as culturally normative as possible" (Wolfensberger, 1972, p. 28). The principle originated in Scandinavia and it was brought to awareness in North America in about 1969 (NIMR, 1977). Wolfensberger was largely responsible for reframing a 'value' into a 'principle' by defining normalization and "systematically investigating its implications" (NIMR, 1977, p. 50). The parent movement was largely responsible for demonstrating the principle in action. With dissemination of information on the importance of the principle of normalization and its corollaries, rehabilitation practitioners began to accept employment as an essential culturally normative activity for all adults regardless of disability.

Sheltered workshops were erected for adults with mental handicaps and other disabilities. Canada's first community workshop was the Institut de Sourdsmuet in Montreal which opened in 1948 (Marlett & Day, 1984). This workshop primarily served individuals who were deaf. The NIMR (1977) reports that the first Canadian workshop operated by an 'Association for the Mentally Retarded' opened in Toronto in 1957. The number of workshops, and correspondingly, the number of participants with mental handicaps increased steadily for many years. According to a 1983 report of the Canadian Council on Rehabilitation and Work, 25,000 Canadians, 70% of

whom were mentally handicapped, were receiving services from sheltered workshops (Health and Welfare Canada, and Employment and Immigration Canada, 1989).

Perhaps the most telling indication of the state of the sheltered workshops in the 1960's and 1970's is the literature written in this period. Rice (1964) was the administrative superintendent of the Provincial Training School in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan. The Provincial Training School was an institution with 350 "trainees." They had an industrial area, a farm area and a summer camp. Rice explained that they had three "streams of training" - "industrial, pre-industrial, and socialization." Individuals who were assessed as capable of participating in the industrial program produced and sold clothes racks, snow fences, lawn chairs, wastepaper baskets, and vegetables. Services for individuals with mental handicaps were "...designed for the various levels of maturity found in [the] trainable population." At the time the article was written, personnel were trying to "develop a more sophisticated program." The sophistication sought by the authors was a program that would divide the trainees into seven "levels of maturity."

In 1966, Berendsen published an article entitled "Sheltered workshops for the mentally retarded in Canada - Part II." Both Part I and Part II resulted from a "cross-country tour" of sheltered workshops. He divided Part II into five sections. The first section, entitled "Industrial environment" recommends applications of business principles, including a diagram of improved work station layout. The second section, entitled "Pricing of jobs and payment of trainees" reviews the steps to deriving a contract price and how to complete time studies to determine rates of pay for trainees. The third section, entitled "Training in social adjustment" reviews some of the training techniques Berendsen came across in his tour. He concludes this section by writing, "Social training also includes the imaginative use of spare time, and so there should be a period,

perhaps after lunch, which can be used for outdoor games, dancing or other activities involving physical exercise" (p. 7). In the fourth section, "Choice of products," Berendsen recommends that "...the two approaches to production (sub-contracting and manufacture) should be combined in order to assure a permanent source of activity for the trainees" (p. 8). Finally, Berendsen reviews farm training projects across Canada.

In respect to industrial production and profit, both McCoshen (1974), a manpower course instructor, and Rockel (1978), director of the Special Assistance Branch of the Saskatchewan Department of Industry and Commerce, discuss the potentially conflicting roles of sheltered workshops. Both authors point-out that sheltered workshops are intended to 'fill time' for the participants, and 'turn-a-profit.' Rockel (1978) opens his article with the question, "Should you sell what people can make, or should you make what will sell?" (p. 3).

One of the most influential documents of the 1970's was a monograph by DuRand and Neufeldt (1975) published by the National Institute on Mental Retardation. A version of the monograph, entitled "Comprehensive vocational services" was published as a chapter in a book in 1980. In the article, DuRand and Neufeldt (1980) identify a continuum of employment opportunities. Listed in order of increasing worker independence, the continuum includes: sheltered employment; sheltered industry; semi-sheltered employment; competitive work with support, and; individual competitive employment. The authors state that "the key to a successful and satisfactory career depends on a person's choice among the various types of work" (p. 284). DuRand and Neufeldt's (1975/1980) model of the career continuum made options operational. The monograph undoubtedly helped some programs bring formerly vague conceptions of employment to consciousness, resulting in services which were more directed and specific.

Throughout the 1970's and into the 1980's one of the emphases in vocational rehabilitation was on methods (such as task analysis) of teaching adults with mental handicaps specific 'benchwork' skills (Condeluci, 1992, p. 3; Ridgely, 1992, p. 18; Wehman, Hill, Wood & Parent, 1987, p. 11; Wehman & Kregel, 1985, p. 3). For example, in the 1970s and 1980s, Mark Gold was instrumental in demonstrating that even adults with severe mental handicaps were capable of mastering complex assembly tasks (for example, constructing bicycle brakes) through non-threatening systematic instruction (Gold, 1980).

Another emphasis in this period was on community integrated employment. Neufeldt and Friio (1994) state that since the late 1970's, many of the sheltered workshops have made efforts to help consumers secure community integrated employment. Many associations for persons with disabilities subsequently changed their program descriptives from "sheltered workshops" to "vocational training centres." Supported employment divisions of the vocational training centres were established and dedicated to helping adults with mental handicaps secure and maintain employment in the community.

A number of non-facility based programs (programs which are not operated out of sheltered workshops) were established. For example, many community colleges established transitional vocational programs for adults with mental handicaps. Although many supported employment programs started prior to 1980, many researchers designate the 1980s as the 'prime-time' of the "supported work movement" (Mozingo, Ackley & Bailey, 1994; Yan, Mank, Sandow, Rhodes & Olson, 1993). Throughout the late 1970's and the 1980's, demonstration projects proved successful in placing adults with mental handicaps into community employment (Wehman & Kregel, 1985, p. 3). For example, ten research and development centres, two of

which had a vocational focus were established in Canada through the support of the Canadian

Association for the Mentally Retarded (now entitled the Canadian Association for Community

Living) (Marlett & Day, 1984). Wehman and colleagues, whose literature continues to dominate

the employment spectrum of research in mental handicap, initiated their vocational rehabilitation

program in Virginia in 1979 (Wehman & Kregel, 1985, p. 4).

Supported Employment

Defining Terms of Supported Employment

"Supported employment" as defined by the Ontario Ministry of Community and Social

Services (1990) is "...paid employment in an integrated competitive work setting where on-going

individualized training and support is provided to a person with a disability" (Sylvestre &

Gottlieb, 1992, p. 25). Theorists identify a number of key elements of "supported employment."

First, the program focus is employment. Skills training is considered to be a means to an end,

rather than the end itself, as in some vocational training centres. In fact, in some cases, program

participants do not receive any pre-employment training; such participants first assume the job and

then receive their training at the job-site (Griffin & Lowry, 1989; Hill, Banks, Handrich, Wehman,

Hill & Shafer, 1987; Parent, Kregel, Metzler & Twardzik, 1992; Schalock, McGaughey &

Kiernan, 1989; Bissonnette, 1994; Wehman, Hill, Wood & Parent, 1987; Wehman & Kregel,

1985; Wehman & Parent, 1992). Griffin and Lowry (1989) state that employment "consist[s] of

regular wages, regular working conditions, and job security" (p. 497). While the majority of

researchers do not define supported employment by wages, Schalock, McGaughey and Kiernan

(1989) use wages to draw a distinction between supported and competitive employment. They

state that supported employment usually pays less than, whereas competitive employment always

pays minimum wage or greater. Wehman, Hill, Wood and Parent (1987) do not specify wage rates in "supported" employment, but state that a defining characteristic of "competitive" employment is work for at least minimum wage.

The second key element of supported employment is ongoing support for employees (Griffin & Lowry, 1989; Hill et al., 1987; Moseley, 1988; Mozingo, Ackley & Bailey, 1994; Parent, Kregel, Metzler & Twardzik, 1992; Schalock, McGaughey & Kiernan, 1989; Sylvestre & Gottlieb, 1992; Wehman & Kregel, 1985; Wehman & Parent, 1992). Moseley (1988) defines support as "...any activity needed to sustain paid work by persons with disabilities including supervision, training, and transportation" (p. 211). Wehman, Hill, Wood and Parent (1987) more specifically list elements of support including "job placement" (job search and matching a person to a job), "job site training" (often called "job coaching"), "ongoing assessment" (also described as "ongoing monitoring of client performance"), and "permanent follow-along" (p.12). To this list, Wehman and Kregel (1985) add "advocacy" (p. 4). Sylvestre and Gottlieb (1992) add "planning for employment," and "personal support" (p. 26). Bissonnette (1994), Griffin and Lowry (1989), and Sylvestre and Gottlieb (1992) add "job development" (primarily involving tailoring jobs to the talents/needs of the individual, or "job carving").

The third key element of supported employment is "full participation." In other words, severity of disability does not exclude anyone from employment (Griffin & Lowry, 1989; Sylvestre & Gottlieb, 1992). While Griffin and Lowry (1989) specify that supported employment serves the needs of individuals with "severe" disabilities, the vast majority of authors do not specify level of disability (Hill et al., 1987; Moseley, 1988; Mozingo, Ackley & Bailey, 1994; Schalock, McGaughey & Kiernan, 1989; Wehman, Hill, Wood & Parent, 1987; Wehman &

Kregel, 1985; Wehman & Parent, 1992). Sylvestre and Gottlieb (1992) state that supported

employment was originally intended to serve the needs of people with severe disabilities, but that

funding constraints and "pressures to demonstrate program effectiveness" have resulted in a shift

in services towards individuals with less demanding disabilities. They cite a study by Annable

(1989) revealing that approximately 88% of people receiving employment support at workshops

do not have "severe" or "profound" disabilities. McGarrity (1993) explains that although there is

a common assumption that people with mild mental handicaps do not require supported

employment, research and experience proves otherwise (p. 122). Addressing the employment

needs of consumers with "mild" or "moderate" disabilities can be viewed as a valuable program

contribution providing that individuals with more "severe" disabilities also receive appropriate

support.

The fourth key element of supported employment is community integrated employment.

Hill et al. (1987) define "community integrated employment" as "regular work sites where there

are interactions with persons without disabilities" (p. 73). Griffin and Lowry (1989) further

specify that the social contact must be with individuals who are not "paid caregivers" (p. 459).

Wehman and Parent (1992) cite the American Federal Register (1987) which precisely specifies

that an integrated work site is one in which "no more than eight individuals with a disability [are]

employed" (p.259). Parent, Kregel, Metzler and Twardzik (1992) cite Shafer and Nisbet (1988)

in their specification that workplace integration must satisfy both the "environment's required

level" and the "worker's desired level" (p. 29). Finally, researchers such as Chadsey-Rusch,

Gonzalez, Tines and Johnson (1989); Parent, Kregel, Metzler and Twardzik (1992), and Yan,

Mank, Sandow, Rhodes and Olson (1993) distinguish between physical and social integration.

The important measure of community integrated employment is not whether employment sites maintain a specified proportion of employees with/without disabilities, but whether employees with disabilities have social contact with their colleagues within/outside work in task-related and unrelated contexts.

<div align="center">Benefits of Supported Employment</div>

Benefits of Supported Employment to Adults with Mental Handicaps

Many researchers list the advantage of supported employment and community integrated employment to adults with mental handicaps. Nanus (1980) asserts that "...the right to work is one of the most important human rights available to a mentally retarded person in his quest for respect and achievement" (p. 77). He explains that "the workplace provides a rich learning environment built upon social interaction with other human beings, and the exercise of skills of teamwork, organization, and ingenuity" (p. 77). Wehman and Parent (1992) specify the benefits of supported employment. The authors explain that the supported employment model enables adults with mental handicaps to be included in community integrated jobs. They state that the presence of a job coach allows employees to learn job-specific skills at the actual job-site. Further, the job coach helps connect the employee so that he/she may fully participate in the social climate of the workplace (p. 259). Wehman and Parent (1992) document the benefits of community integrated employment to adults with mental handicaps.

The advantages of participating in these socially integrated employment situations are the same for persons with mental retardation as for their non-handicapped co-workers. These include opportunities for the development of friendships, the establishment of support networks, access to the community, and personal enjoyment. Perhaps most important is the status associated with working in integrated employment settings that changes perceptions of persons with severe disabilities to one of being valued and productive members of society. (p. 259)

Benefits of Supported Employment to Society

A number of researchers claim that supported employment reduces costs to society. Bell (1988) completed a single-subject benefit-cost analysis. For 50 consecutive months, Bell (1988) tracked the progress of one "severely mentally handicapped" supported employee in Canada. On the cost side of the equation, Bell (1988) included the costs of the training program. He took two approaches to calculating cost and reported both. In one case he included only the cost of the job coach. In the second case, he doubled the cost of the job coach to compensate for administrative program costs. On the benefit side of the equation, Bell (1988) included wages earned by the employee and savings to society because the employee did not participate in other programs. The researcher concluded that "the programme was a profitable social investment" (p. 14). More specifically, using the cost calculation which includes administrative costs, if the employee would have continued in school rather than securing employment, there was a return of at least $3.50 for every $1.00 of cost.

Hill et al. (1987) conducted a large-scale benefit-cost analysis. The researchers analysed costs and benefits of supported competitive employment to 214 consumers in Virginia, as well as

the costs and benefits to the American taxpayer. The results showed a financial gain for the consumers and a reduction of cost for the taxpayers. The taxpayer's cost reduction was achieved primarily through "decreased service expenditures for public schools, sheltered workshops, and activity centres due to placement of consumers into employment" (p. 77). The researchers summarize their results as follows,

> Results of the benefit-cost analysis indicate that supported competitive employment is a financially prosperous venture from both perspectives. That is, from the consumers' perspective, for every $1.00 relinquished in taxes, supplemental security income, and forgone workshop earnings, $1.97 was received in increased income; the net benefit per year was $3,894 per consumer. From the taxpayers' perspective, for every $1.00 expended for the funding of supported competitive employment programs and in lost tax revenues realized by the provision of targeted jobs tax credits, $1.87 was accumulated in benefits; the net yearly benefit to the taxpayer was $4,063 per consumer. The authors conclude that supported competitive employment is a financially profitable venture for both consumers and taxpayers. (p. 71)

To the researcher's knowledge, benefit-cost analyses using equivalent numbers of subjects have not been conducted in Canada. It must be pointed out that the American employment system has a few differences that might subtly effect the results. For example, in the United States, tax credits are used as one type of incentive to hire individuals with disabilities. While Canadian employers are also offered hiring incentives such as partial wage reimbursement for employees with mental handicaps in training, tax credits are not one of the available incentives. As another example, the Canadian version of the American "supplemental security income" is

based on different qualifying criteria, different rates of support payments, and different formulae

for calculation of base earnings before deductions from support payments. While such systemic

differences may effect the column totals, the systems are similar enough that the sum total figures

in American and Canadian benefit-cost analyses would be very similar.

Employment Profiles of Adults with Mental Handicaps

While there are many benefits of supported employment, it is not the vocational panacea

for adults with mental handicaps. Community integrated employees with disabilities tend to be

"under employed" (Neufeldt & Mathieson, 1995). Neufeldt and Mathieson (1995) cite Barnes'

(1990) description of "under employment" as "...poorly paid, low-skilled, low-status jobs which

are both unrewarding and undemanding" (p. 182).

The overwhelming majority of supported employees work in entry-level, non- or low-

skilled jobs such as food services (particularly dishwashing), janitorial/custodial, building services

and assembly. In reference to adults with "severe" disabilities, Griffin and Lowry (1989)

comment that among those "fortunate enough to find work," "entry level jobs such as clerical and

service positions are typical" (p. 495).

Moseley (1988) points out the irony of placing adults with mental handicaps into entry-

level, non- or low-skilled positions.

Another opinion about workers with disabilities is that they will be successful in low level,

repetitive jobs that are frequently characterized by high turnover. One of the key elements

in the process of establishing community work stations, for example, has been to seek out

those jobs which have the highest vacancy rate and which the employer has difficulty

filling or keeping filled. Since many studies of work have reported that the amount of

satisfaction people derive from a particular task is suggested by the rate of turnover of

those who work that job, one must question the placement of individuals who will need

considerable support in the best of circumstances into positions that no one has found

satisfactory. (p. 215)

Moseley's (1988) comments imply that under employed individuals remain in jobs for short

lengths of time. For the majority of adults with mental handicaps, entry-level, non- or low-skilled

positions and high job turnover 'go hand-in-hand.'

Adults with mental handicaps tend to repeat a pattern of securing a job, working in it for a

short time, quitting or being fired, securing another job, working in it for a short time and so on.

While studies differ in the duration over which they are conducted and in the means used to

calculate job retention, the consistent overall finding is that very few adults with mental handicaps

remain employed in the same position for two years or longer. Fabian, Edelman and Leedy

(1993) commented that despite developments in supported employment technology over the last

five years, job retention rates remain disappointing (p. 29).

Schalock, McGaughey and Kiernan (1989) conducted two national American surveys of

agencies providing either community employment or sheltered employment services to adults with

mental handicaps. The first survey included 12,006 adults 'placed' in supported employment[1] between October 1984 and September 1985. The second survey examined 8,125 supported employees placed between the same time periods in 1985-1986. In the first 12 month period, 22.6%, and in the second 12 month period, 21.7%, of supported employees left their jobs before 60 days had passed. The researchers presented the "top six [job] categories" secured by the supported employees during the 12 month periods. For both time periods, the modal job type was "food and beverage"- just under 23% in 1984-1985, and over 24% in 1985-1986. The other five occupational types included: building services; packaging/materials handling; assembly; lodging and related, and; miscellaneous clerical.

Test, Bond Hinson, Solow and Keul (1993) interviewed 34 supported employees from North Carolina. Just over 82% had been employed in the same job for two years or less, almost 53% of whom were employed for less than one year. In other words, less than 18% of employees maintained their positions for over two years. The researchers did not specify the types of jobs secured by employees.

Shafer, Banks and Kregel (1991) studied 302 supported employees in Virginia over a 24-month period (1989-1991). Approximately 40% of research participants were no longer employed in the same job six months after they had initially been placed. Twelve months after

---

[1] Schalock, McGaughey and Kiernan (1989) define "competitive employment" as "unsubsidized employment where payment is at or above the minimum wage (including certain enclaves, work crews, and employment in regular jobs, even when follow-along services are provided" (p. 81). This definition is consistent with the definition of "supported employment" provided in the current research. In order to facilitate consistency and comprehension, data included under the heading of "competitive employment" in Schalock, McGaughey and Kiernan's (1989) study will be included under the heading of "supported employment" in the current study, even though the researchers used this term to identify a different set of data.

initial placement, approximately 56%, eighteen months after initial placement, approximately 66%, and two years after initial placement, approximately 70% of participants were no longer employed in their original job. The vast majority of research participants worked in food services (48.7%) or custodial (35.4%). The remaining employees secured the following types of work: bench work (4.2%); stock clerk (4%); laundry (3.2%); unskilled labour (1.8%); grounds keeping (1.4%); transportation (.8%); human services (.4%), and; clerical (.2%).

Hill et al. (1987) studied 214 supported employees in Virginia over an eight year period (July 1978 to April 1986). The researchers report that "approximately 70% of all clients placed into supported competitive employment remained employed for at least six months. The average length of time that consumers have been employed during the study period is 21 months" (p. 75). The vast majority of research participants (93.5%) were employed in "entry-level, non-skilled positions." Of the 93.5%, 41.5% were employed in food service, 41% in janitorial, and 11% in laundry occupations.

Wehman, Hill, Wood and Parent (1987) examined the employment profiles of 21 supported employees in Virginia, all of whom measured intelligent quotients below 40. Because four of the participants held more than one job in the eight year study period, data for 28 jobs is presented. Only six jobs lasted over two years. Of the remaining 22 jobs, 16 did not last even a year. The researchers commented that "virtually all" of the employees worked in "entry-level service positions" (p. 13).

Comparison with the Employment Profiles of Adults Without Mental Handicaps

Results from two studies and personal correspondence reported in a third indicate that there is no significant difference between the job turnover rates of employees with mental

handicaps and employees without mental handicaps working in similar jobs. Fifty-four employers

in Virginia, all of whom had employed adults with mental handicaps, responded to a survey asking

them to compare the job turnover rates of their employees with and without mental handicaps

(Shafer, Hill, Seyfarth & Wehman, 1987). They responded to the job turnover item using a three-

point Likert scale where a rating of 1 = employees with mental handicaps leave the company

sooner than employees without mental handicaps; 2 = employees with mental handicaps stay

about the same length of time as employees without mental handicaps, and; 3 = employees with

mental handicaps stay with the company longer than employees without mental handicaps. The

mean score was 2.61 with a standard deviation of .59. This score indicates that, overall,

employers participating in the study believed that employees with mental handicaps remain

employed for the same length of time or longer than employees without mental handicaps.

In a study conducted by Richardson, Koller and Katz (1990) in Aberdeen, Scotland, one

of the measures was job turnover. "Job turnover" was operationally defined as "the number of

jobs held per year in the labour force" (p.486). The researchers compared the job turnover rates

of 100 adults with mental handicaps and 52 comparison subjects without mental handicaps

matched on the basis of age, gender, and social class of the head of the household during

childhood. Both groups were employed in entry-level, non- or low-skilled occupations. Results

of the study indicated that there were no significant differences between employees with mental

handicaps and comparison subjects on the job turnover measure. In other words, adults in entry-

level, non- or low-skilled occupations with and without mental handicaps showed similar patterns

of employment retention.

Wehman and Kregel (1985) report personal communication with P. Nelan in 1983 which indicates that employees in similar positions to those held by adults with mental handicaps may experience similar job turnover rates. Wehman and Kregel (1985) wrote that "...according to the National Hotel and Restaurant Association, the average length of employment before job separation for workers in occupations similar to those held by clients in our study was only 5 months" (p. 4).

In summary, the literature indicates that, regardless of whether or not individuals have a disability, if they are employed in entry-level, non- or low-skilled positions, they are likely to remain in the same job for few consecutive months. However, the employment profiles of a minority of individuals are not consistent with the norm; despite their entry-level jobs, they remain in the same position for many consecutive years.

<u>Adults with Mental Handicaps and Reasons for Employment</u>

Very little research has examined reasons for employment from the perspective of adults with mental handicaps. Test, Bond Hinson, Solow and Keul (1993) interviewed 34 supported employees from North Carolina. One of the interview questions was why the employees took their current jobs. Fifty percent replied that they "wanted or needed the job." Another 26.5% replied that they accepted the job "because of the money."

Richardson, Koller and Katz (1990) explored why adults with mental handicaps leave their jobs. The top two reasons given by 125 research participants for leaving their jobs were "not enough pay," and "generally disliked, fed up." For males, money was the modal reason (55 of 318 reasons), followed by general dislike (39 of 318 reasons). Females gave the same two reasons with reversed frequency (general dislike - 24 of 172 reasons, money - 15 of 172 reasons).

While these studies asked adults with mental handicaps their reasons for accepting, and their reasons for leaving jobs, to the current researcher's knowledge, studies have never asked long-term employed adults with mental handicaps their reasons for remaining in jobs.

Relationship Between Low Social Status of Jobs and Employment Retention

Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) explored the reasons why employees in jobs with low social status accept and remain in their jobs. To the current researcher's knowledge, no parallel research has been conducted since 1959. Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) interviewed 81 male and 63 female psychiatric attendants. Self-reported reasons for employment were classified into two work stages (reasons for taking job and reasons for remaining in job) by two conditions (intrinsic - "pertaining to the work itself" and extrinsic - "pertaining to the externals of the job"). The majority of participants (83%) gave extrinsic reasons for accepting their jobs (eg. needing money). A slight majority (53%) gave intrinsic reasons for remaining (eg. "humanitarian interest in patients' welfare"). A chi-square analysis showed a statistically significant shift from reasons for accepting to reasons for remaining in terms of extrinsic/intrinsic characteristics ($X^2 = 40.96$, d.f. = 1, p < .001). The modal intrinsic reason for remaining was dedication to patient care. Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) interpreted the results as support for their hypothesis that "...people in low-status occupations may seize upon some aspect of their work which is highly valued, either throughout the society or in the work subculture [as in the case of the psychiatric attendants] and build a self-image around it" (p. 402). The implication of Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) interpretation is that employees build a self-concept around their reasons for remaining in their jobs. If this is the case, then the self-concepts of individuals who gave intrinsic versus extrinsic reasons for remaining should differ. The researchers did not test this proposition.

Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) hypotheses that the majority of research participants would give extrinsic reasons for accepting their jobs and intrinsic reasons for remaining were based on the low social status of the psychiatric attendant position. Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) state that "members of occupational groups often develop occupational self-images" (p. 401). They define "occupational self-images" as "sets of beliefs, attitudes and evaluations regarding their work" (p. 401). The researchers state that the occupational self-image motivates employees to remain in their jobs. They explain that "the person in a high-status occupation is aided in maintaining a flattering self-image by the social prestige of his occupation" (p. 401). On the contrary, employees in low-status occupations may not be "aided in maintaining a flattering self-image" (p. 401) and thus may not be motivated to remain in their jobs. Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) state that "low-ranking occupations...do not command favourable society-wide evaluations; the public evaluates many jobs as unappealing or, offentimes, distasteful [sic]" (p. 402).

The implications for the psychiatric attendants and for adults with mental handicaps who are employed in positions with low social status are: because the jobs offer little initial appeal in and of themselves, individuals may accept the positions for reasons which are unrelated to the specific job in question; because many individuals' esteem needs are not met through jobs with low social status, the majority of employees will quit the job or perform in ways which provoke dismissal, and; individuals who remain in the positions of low social status may find reasons specific to the job for remaining and build a self-concept around these reasons.

<u>Esteem Needs</u>

Robbins (1994) and Franken (1988) both begin their discussion of work motivation with Maslow's "hierarchy of needs." Maslow (circa 1954) believed that humans are driven to satisfy a set of basic needs. Franken (1988) states that "Maslow posits that humans are born with a set of needs that not only energize but direct behavior" (p. 460). Maslow identified five sets of needs - physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow's need-fulfilment model arranges the five needs on a pyramid with physiological on the bottom and self-actualization at the top. Maslow believed that needs must be fulfilled in order, beginning at the bottom of the pyramid. Maslow identified two "subsidiary sets" of esteem needs (Franken, 1988). The first includes "...desires for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence," and the second includes "...the need for reputation and prestige, status, fame, glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity, or appreciation" (Franken, 1988, p. 462). Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) research regarding low-status occupations relates primarily to the second set of esteem needs.

Some authors comment that employment has the potential to play an influential role in fulfilling adults' esteem needs. Nanus (1980) comments that,

> dignity, status, and self-esteem derive from the nature of the work one has and from one's own as well as other's perceptions of how well one is doing. ...A good job provides the worker with a sense of mastery over his environment and is a powerful - perhaps the most powerful - molder of his sense of self-identity. (p. 76,77)

Ridgely (1992) states that, "through work, we find our status in life; ...employment can help enhance this status" (p. 18).

In his review of the self-concept construct, Gecas (1982) addresses the "self-esteem motive." He states, "the motivation to maintain and enhance a positive conception of oneself has been thought to be pervasive, even universal" (p. 20). Gecas (1982) reviews research indicating that esteem needs are motivational and result in a "wide range of psychological and behavioral phenomena" (p. 22). Gecas (1982) lists examples of such phenomena - "...self-esteem has been found to affect conformity or persuasibility, interpersonal attraction, moral behavior, educational orientations, and various aspects of personality and mental health" (p. 22). The message conveyed by Gecas' (1982) review of the "self-esteem motive" is that people have a need to feel good about themselves. If they do not feel good about themselves, they will change their circumstances, reinterpret the situation, or remember details selectively. If they do not practice one or more of these means of coping they will suffer negative consequences. The implication for employment is that individuals whose work situations do not lead them to feel good about themselves may leave, reframe the work situation, or remain employed and unhappy.

Work Self-Concept

The "work self-concept" construct describes the way in which an employee thinks and feels about him/herself in the context of work. Hines, Durham and Geoghegan (1991) define "work self-concept" as "how the individual perceives self as an employee with regard to abilities to function in a competent, responsible, and productive manner in a working setting" (p.189). Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) convey a broader perspective of the construct, defining it as "...sets of beliefs, attitudes, and evaluations regarding their work" (p. 401). Work self-concept is one facet of the broader construct - self-concept.

Self-Concept

Definition of Self-Concept

"Self-concept" is defined as "the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings with reference to the self as an object" (Rosenberg, 1989, p. 34). "Self" is conceptualized as a process, while self-concept is the product of that process (Gecas, 1982). The sub-components of self-concept are identity, affect and evaluation; the affective and evaluative components comprise self-esteem (Gecas, 1982).

Components of Self-Concept

In a comprehensive review of self-concept theory and research, Marsh (1990) presents seven major features of self-concept as included in Shavelson et al.'s (1976) model:

1. It is organized or structured, in that people categorize the vast amount of information they have about themselves and relate these categories to one another;

2. It is multifaceted, and the particular facets reflect a self-referent category system adopted by a particular individual and/or shared by a group;

3. It is hierarchical, with perceptions of personal behavior at the base moving to inferences about self in subareas, and then to inferences about the self in general;

4. The hierarchical general self-concept - the apex of the model - is stable, but as one descends the hierarchy, self-concept increasingly becomes situation-specific and less stable;

5. Self-concept increasingly becomes multifaceted as the individual moves from infancy to adulthood;

6. Self-concept has both a descriptive and an evaluative aspect, such that individuals may

describe themselves ("I am happy") and evaluate themselves ("I do well in mathematics"),

and;

7. Self-concept can be differentiated from other constructs such as academic achievement.

(Marsh, 1990, p. 83,84)

Two of the major features of self-concept - facets of self-concept and principles of self-concept

formation are described below.

Facets of Self-Concept

Contemporary models and theories of self-concept have down-played the role of the

global self-concept. Self-concept is commonly presented in terms of multiple facets. Pyryt and

Mendaglio (1994), for example, include five facets in their Self-Perception Scale - ethical, social,

athletic, physical appearance, and academic. Gorrell (1990) defines self-concept as a "collection

of beliefs about oneself, arranged in some sort of hierarchical structure" (p. 73). He explains that,

"it has long been recognized that there is no unitary self-concept, but rather a collection of

concepts ranging from relatively enduring and influential concepts to relatively trivial and

evanescent" (p. 73).

Principles of Self-Concept Formation

The literature introduces various perspectives to explain how social factors influence

formation and subsequent development of self-concept. When referring to the influencers of self-

concept, Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982) use the label, "principles of self-concept formation,"

whereas Mendaglio and Pyryt (1995) use either the label "theoretical approaches" or "theoretical

perspectives." "Principles of self-concept formation" will be used in the current research.

Mendaglio and Pyryt (1995) include three principles of self-concept formation in their

psychometric instrument - The Pyryt Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale. The three principles are "reflected appraisals," "social comparison," and "attribution." In their introduction to a text chapter entitled, "Principles of self-concept formation," Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982) label the third principle, "self-attribution," and include a fourth principle - "psychological centrality." Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982) explain that "the principle of psychological centrality rests on the proposition that the self-concept is a structure whose diverse components have unequal salience and importance" (p. 176,177). The "unequal salience" of self-concept facets is addressed above. Pyryt and Mendaglio (1994) address "unequal importance" through a "valence" scale as described below. Pyryt and Mendaglio (1994) present "valence" as an aid to the interpretation of self-concept scores, rather than as a principle of self-concept formation.

For the purposes of the current research, three principles of self-concept formation are addressed. The first of the three principles is termed "reflected appraisals." Basically, we see ourselves as we perceive others to see us. The second is termed "social comparison." This principle explains that others serve as the reference point by which we compare and then form an impression of ourselves. The third principle, self-attribution, recognizes the role that self-observations of our own behavior play in the way we think and feel about ourselves.

Reflected appraisals.

The basic tenet of reflected appraisals is that "...we tend to see ourselves as we think others see us" (Rosenberg & Kaplan, 1982, p. 174). The reflected appraisals principle finds its theoretical rationale in social construction theory; notably, "reflected appraisals" and "social construction" are sometimes used synonymously (see, for example, Jahoda, Markova & Cattermole, 1988). Founding theories in the reflected appraisals principle are George Herbert

Mead's (circa 1934) discussion of "becom [ing] objects to ourselves" and "taking the role of the

other;" Charles Horton Cooley's (circa 1912) discussion of the "looking-glass self" (Rosenberg &

Kaplan, 1982) and Goffman's (circa 1950) presentation of "taking a line" and social "face"

(1950/1982). Primary issues involved with the reflected appraisals principle are the relative effect

on self-concept formation and change of: discrepancy between actual and perceived views of

others; consensus, or alternatively, discord in the perceptions of significant others (Rosenberg &

Kaplan, 1982), and; the relative strength of various others to effect changes in self-concept (Pyryt

& Mendaglio, 1994).

Social comparison.

The basic tenet of the social comparison principle is that "...one may judge oneself by

comparing oneself to [others]" (Rosenberg & Kaplan, 1982, p. 175). The ideas of William James

(circa 1890) were instrumental in founding the social comparison principle. He derived the

equation that self-esteem equals success divided by pretentions (Rosenberg & Kaplan, 1982).

The proposed origins of "pretentions" are comparisons with others. The primary issue involved

with the social comparison principle is the 'other' with whom the subject compares. Boersma,

Chapman and Battle (1979) cite literature indicating that one's immediate peers (for example,

work colleagues at a job-site) serve as the primary group for social comparison. Rosenberg and

Kaplan (1982) cite Pettigrew's (1967) list of comparison sources - "those in one's peer group,

others in the same social categories, remote reference groups, and a single person" (p. 175).

Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982) also observe that comparisons may be situational or general.

<u>Self-attribution</u>.

Proponents of the "self-attribution" principle believe that, "...individuals come to 'know'

their own attitudes, emotions and other internal states partially by inferring them from

observations of their own overt behavior and/or circumstances in which this behavior occurs"

(Bem, 1972, p. 5, as cited by Rosenberg & Kaplan, 1982, p. 176). The "self-attribution" principle

finds its theoretical origins in the works of behaviorists such as Skinner and Bandura (Rosenberg

& Kaplan, 1982). The behaviorists discounted the role of internal processes in self-concept

formation, emphasizing the role of past learning, antecedents and consequences (Rosenberg &

Kaplan, 1982). Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982) cite Bandura (1977) who wrote, "our own actions

teach us new things about ourselves, modifying our self-concepts" (p. 176).

<div align="center">Valence</div>

The Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale (PMSPS) includes a "valence" component to

assist in interpretation of the self-concept scores. The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology defines

"valence" as "a term used generally by Gestalt psychologists for the attracting or repelling

influence of objects or activities" (Wallerstein, 1964, p. 309). In this case, the relative attraction

or importance is to the various facets of self-concept; an employee may feel that work is very

important whereas physical appearance is unimportant. Mendaglio and Pyryt (1995) state that,

"since we are interested in their subjective assessment, we feel that an indication of the students'

evaluation of the self-referent importance of those areas [facets of self-concept] is necessary in

obtaining a clearer picture of their self-concepts" (p. 5). Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982) state that;

...self-concept is a structure whose diverse components have unequal ... importance. Some dispositions are central to the individual's feeling of worth, whereas others are peripheral. Some people pride themselves on their attractiveness and care little about their literary skill; for others, the reverse is the case. It thus follows that if we are to understand what difference a particular self-concept component makes for one's global feelings of worth, we must know not simply how one evaluates oneself in that regard but also how much importance one attaches to it. (p. 177)

Valence scores assist in interpretation of the self-concept scores. If, through the valence scale, an individual indicates that he/she does not perceive work as important, then a low score on this facet of self-concept is not worrisome. If, on the other hand, he/she indicates that work is very important, there is cause for concern.

Self-Concepts of Adults with Mental Handicaps

While the self-concept construct has received extensive theoretical and empirical attention, self-concept of individuals with mental handicaps is a much neglected research realm (Tymchuk, 1991; Widaman, MacMillan, Hemsley, Little & Balow, 1992). Of the limited pool of self-concept research concerning individuals with mental handicaps, a very small proportion is dedicated to adults. Within this research, self-concept is most often included as one of many variables.

Reiter and Levi (1980), for example, compared two groups of adults with mental handicaps in Israel. The study group consisted of adults with mental handicaps who had never lived in institutions. The comparison group consisted of "borderline" adults who had been involved in a work-training program which was not designated for individuals with disabilities (the researchers described this group as "successful[ly] integrated"). Self-concept (as measured by the

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale) was included as one of six variables used for comparison (the other five include - employability, behavior at work, social integration, social skills, and personality). The researchers' only conclusion regarding the self-concept construct was that individuals who participated in a social club designated for adults with mental handicaps had more positive self-concepts than individuals who were not involved in the club.

A few researchers have grounded their research in one or more of the principles of self-concept formation. Jahoda, Markova and Cattermole (1988) tested the relevance of the reflected appraisals principle[2] for adults with mental handicaps. The researchers interviewed twelve adults with mild mental handicaps, each of their mothers (in one case, an aunt), and each of their key workers at the adult training centre. The focus of the interview was on perceptions of the adult with a mental handicap. In other words, the mothers and key workers shared their perceptions of the adult with a mental handicap, and he/she shared his/her self-perceptions. Responses to questions concerning stigma and handicap were divided into two categories - "essentially different from non-handicapped people," and "essentially the same as non-handicapped people." The researchers compared the classification of responses of the adults with mental handicaps, the mothers, and the key workers. The classifications were not consistent. In other words, an individual with a mental handicap might have shared his/her self-perceptions as "essentially the

---

[2] Jahoda, Markova and Cattermole (1988) use the label "social construction theory" rather than "reflected appraisals principle" (as used in the current research). The researchers state that, "according to this theory, one's self-concept is largely determined by the ways in which one is treated by significant others. ...an individual becomes an object to him- or herself by adopting the attitudes of other individuals towards him- or herself in the social environment in which they are both involved" (p. 104). Because Jahoda, Markova and Cattermole's (1988) description of "social construction theory" is equivalent to the description of "reflected appraisals principle," the latter shall be the label used throughout the current research in order to promote consistency and comprehension.

same as non-handicapped people," while his/her mother and key worker might have shared their perceptions that he/she was "essentially different from non-handicapped people." Jahoda, Markova and Cattermole (1988) interpreted these results to mean that the reflected appraisals principle does not explain how the self-concepts of adults with mental handicaps are formed and developed. The researchers state that, "although the sample is small this finding has important theoretical implications because it cannot readily be interpreted in terms of the social constructionist theory" (p. 113).

Jahoda, Markova and Cattermole's (1988) results do not conclusively discount the role of reflected appraisals as an influence on self-concept formation and development. The researchers seem to have erred in their operationalized understanding of the reflected appraisals principle. The reflected appraisals principle explains that one's self-concept is influenced by one's perceptions of others' evaluations of oneself. The researchers did not compare the adults with mental handicaps' self-perceptions with their perceptions of the mothers and key workers' evaluations. They compared the adults' self-perceptions with the actual evaluations of the mothers and key workers. The adults' perceptions may not have matched the actual evaluations.

Gibbons (1985) framed his research on the social comparison principle. Two groups of individuals with mental handicaps, all of whom were age 17 and older were interviewed. The first group consisted of 61 individuals living in institutions. The second group consisted of 62 individuals living in group-homes. One of the study results was that individuals living in the institutions had "inflated images of themselves" (p. 105), whereas individuals living in the group-homes did not. As an explanation of the results, Gibbons (1985) suggested "...that the community facility people [individuals living in the group-homes] are more likely to include nonretarded

persons within their reference and social comparison groups and realize that, in comparison with non-retarded people, they look worse" (p. 105).

Questions

In summary, an analysis of the literature revealed that it is not uncommon for adults with mental handicaps to work in community integrated employment. It is, however, uncommon for such employees to remain in their jobs for a long consecutive period of time. The reasons why long-term employed adults with mental handicaps choose to remain in their jobs have not been explored. One means of framing the research is to look at studies of individuals without disabilities who work in similar jobs to those typically secured by adults with mental handicaps (entry-level, non- or low-skilled positions). Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) explored the reasons why psychiatric attendants accept and remain in their jobs. They categorized the reasons in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics and then predicted that the self-concepts of employees who found intra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs would differ from the self-concepts of employees who did not find such reasons.

The current research is based on Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) study. The purpose is to explore the reasons why adults with mental handicaps choose to accept and remain in their community integrated jobs. The specific questions are: a. Do the majority of adults with mental handicaps accept their jobs for extra-job reasons?; b. Do the majority of employees who have maintained their jobs for a minimum of two consecutive years remain for intra-job reasons?, and; c. Are there significant differences in components of self-concept (facets, principles of formation, valence, and work self-concept) between those employees who have maintained employment for extra-job reasons and those who have maintained employment for intra-job reasons?

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

The purpose of the research was to determine why some adults with mental handicaps remain in their community integrated jobs for many years, when the majority remain in jobs for short durations. Two specific hypotheses were addressed. First, it was hypothesized that the majority of adults with mental handicaps accept their jobs for reasons which have little to do with the specific job in question (extra-job), and that they find reasons specific to the job for remaining (intra-job). The second hypothesis is that individuals who find intra-job reasons for remaining build their self-concepts around these reasons. It was therefore predicted that there would be a significant difference in components of self-concept between those who remained in their jobs for Intra-Job reasons and those who remained for Extra-Job reasons.

Design

Prior research exploring the reasons why long-term employed adults with mental handicaps accepted and remained in their jobs was not revealed through a literature search. A study conducted by Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) explored reasons for employment given by psychiatric attendants (none of whom were reported to have disabilities). The following exploratory research is based (with substantial modifications) on the Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) study. The current research differs from the Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) research in three main ways. First, Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) studied psychiatric attendants, while the current research studies long-term employed adults with mental handicaps. Second, the labels and definitions of the constructs differ between the two studies. "Intrinsic" as presented by Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) is replaced by "intra-job" in the current study,

and "extrinsic" is replaced by "extra-job" in the current study. Third, Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) stated that individuals who find a reason specific to the job for remaining form their self-concepts around that reason. They did not test this proposition. The current research tested whether the self-concepts of individuals who gave reasons specific to the job for remaining differ from the self-concepts of individuals who gave reasons which were not specific to the job.

The researcher derived the data through single-session one-to-one interviews with adults with mental handicaps who, at the time of the interview, had been employed at the same job-site for a minimum of two years consecutively. There were two research variables - reasons for employment, and self-concept. Reasons for employment were collected for accepting jobs (reported retrospectively) and for remaining in jobs. Three components of self-concept were measured - principles of self-concept formation, facets of self-concept, and work self-concept. Valence scores were included to assist in interpretation of the first two components (principles of self-concept formation and facets of self-concept). Reasons for employment and self-concept were each analyzed to establish a profile for long-term employed adults with mental handicaps. Reasons for remaining in jobs served as the independent variable, and self-concept served as the dependent variable. Participants who gave Extra-Job reasons and participants who gave Intra-Job reasons formed the two groups.

<div align="center">Participants</div>

Thirty-one individuals participated in the research. All thirty-one individuals met the following criteria: (a) eighteen years of age or older; (b) employed at the same community integrated job site for a minimum of two years consecutively, and; (c) mentally handicapped. Confirmation that individuals met the selection criteria was provided by the sources of referral.

While participants' ages and duration of employment were objectively determined, the criterion of mental handicap was not. This criterion was accepted as fulfilled by virtue of the participants' membership in a program designated for individuals with mental handicaps. Participants' intelligence quotients were not measured in the current research. The researcher was confident that the participants met the criterion of mental handicap, based on experience in the field.

Referrals were received from four sources in the city of Calgary - Community Job Options (C.J.O.), Advance Industries (A.I.), and two components of the Transitional Vocational Program (T.V.P.) - (see the Results chapter for program overviews). Personnel from C.J.O. and A.I. gave information about the study to individuals who met the selection criteria. Of the individuals contacted by the program personnel, five from C.J.O. and one from A.I. contacted the researcher and made arrangements to meet.

A different approach was employed by T.V.P. Personnel from the supported employment program of T.V.P. obtained permission from individuals who met the selection criteria to be included on a list which was subsequently given to the researcher. The researcher then contacted the potential participants. Of the twenty-two, twenty agreed to meet with the researcher. Of the two individuals from T.V.P. who chose not to participate, one stated that he needed to "think about" whether or not he would like to meet and did not contact the researcher again. The other initially agreed to an appointment, but his mother later phoned personnel at T.V.P. and cancelled, stating that she did not want to take the chance of anything interfering with her son's employment status. Note that not all of the individuals referred by T.V.P. were 'placed' in their jobs by T.V.P. While at the time of the study they were receiving formal or informal support through T.V.P.

personnel, some were originally 'placed' through other programs.

Finally, five participants were secured through an evening academic program coordinated through T.V.P. The researcher visited the classes and introduced the research. Appointments were made with individuals who met the selection criteria.

In summary, five participants were secured through C.J.O., one through A.I., twenty through the T.V.P. supported employment program, and five through the T.V.P. academic program to total 31 participants. Demographic characteristics of participants are presented in the Results chapter.

Instruments

Four instruments were used for the study. The Subject Demographics Form was used to collect participants' personal and employment information. The Reasons for Accepting and Maintaining Employment Questionnaire was used to collect reasons for employment. The Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale and the Work Self-Concept Scale were used to obtain measures of self-concept.

Subject Demographics Form

The Subject Demographics Form included twelve items - full name, phone number, address, guardian name (if applicable), guardian's phone number, age, gender, place of employ, job title, start-date, supported employment program (at time of securing job), and the meeting place. The researcher requested the information and recorded the participants' responses.

Reasons for Accepting and Maintaining Employment Questionnaire (RAMEQ)

The RAMEQ is a self-report measure designed by the researcher for this study. The purpose of the RAMEQ is to collect individuals' reasons for employment at two temporal periods

- at accepting the job and at the time of interview. The RAMEQ consists of seven open-ended questions. The first three questions were intended to prime the memory of the participants to increase the chances that they could provide retrospective reasons for employment. Questions four through seven were designed to derive reasons for employment. The questions include:

1. When did you get your job at [name of employment site]?;

2. How long have you been working at [name of employment site]?;

3. How did you get your job at [name of employment site]?;

4. What were your reasons for taking your job at [name of employment site]?;

5. Which was the most important reason?;

6. What are your reasons for continuing to work at [name of employment site]?, and;

7. Which is the most important reason?

The RAMEQ was verbally administered. The researcher read the questions to the participants. When necessary, questions were rephrased to promote comprehension. Participant responses were tape-recorded and brief written notes made.

Data analysis began with response coding. Tape-recorded responses to the entire RAMEQ were transcribed. Responses to questions four and five, and six and seven were coded. Responses to these questions reflected reasons for employment at two temporal periods - upon accepting employment and at time of interview. Reasons for employment at the two temporal periods for each of 31 participants resulted in 62 "units of information" (Merriam, 1988). In order to reduce chances of codings being biased by temporal periods and/or participant numbers, prior to making the ratings, all such information was removed from the individual transcripts, and the 62 pieces of data coded in a random order.

The reason(s) for employment identified by the participants as most important were coded into intra-job/extra-job categories by two raters independently - the researcher and one colleague. The definitions of "intra-job" and "extra-job" were given to the raters, and discussions held regarding the definition of work, prior to examination of the responses. The definitions were modified from a "borrowed classification scheme" (Merriam, 1988). Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) defined "intrinsic" reasons as "pertaining to the job itself," and "extrinsic" as the opposite. In order to avoid confusion with motivation theory, the term "intra-job" is used in the current study rather than the term "intrinsic," and "extra-job" rather than the term "extrinsic." The definitions were also altered. Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) appear to have defined "work" in a narrow sense; they included only tasks and responsibilities as "pertaining to the job." In the current study, "work" was defined in a broader sense. In addition to tasks and responsibilities, interpersonal climate, one's affective response to the work, and specific elements of job incentives are thought to be integral to one's work. All of these elements were included in the definition of "work" in the current study. "Intra-job" reasons were defined as those which are "specific to the job in question" and "extra-job" as those reasons which are "not specific to the job in question." Extra-job reasons could apply to virtually any job. Of the sixty-two transcribed reasons, there were discrepancies between the two raters for nine. These nine were given to a third rater; and the rating assigned by two of the three coders was used.

Frequencies of intra-job/extra-job reasons for employment at accepting/remaining in jobs were calculated for the 31 participants. A chi-square analysis was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant shift in reasons for employment over time in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics.

Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale (PMSPS)

The PMSPS is a self-report instrument designed to measure self-concept. The PMSPS was originally designed to measure the self-concepts of school-aged children, but was easily adapted to the needs of the current research. The PMSPS was chosen for this study for three reasons. First, it is "readily administered" and easily scored (Mendaglio & Pyryt, 1995). Because the PMSPS is 'quick and easy,' supported employment program personnel may administer it to employees above and beyond the current research. The second reason the PMSPS was chosen is because it facilitates intervention (Mendaglio & Pyryt, 1995). Scores from the PMSPS can be used to identify specific components of concern in the self-concepts of respondents. Subsequent intervention plans can therefore be focused. The third reason for choosing the PMSPS is that it "reflect[s] the complexity of self-concept" (Mendaglio & Pyryt, 1995).

The PMSPS reflects the self-concepts of respondents in terms of five facets - Ethical, Social, Athletic, Physical Appearance, and Work, and three principles of self-concept formation - Reflected Appraisals, Social Comparison, and Self-Attribution. In addition, the PMSPS reflects the personal relevance of the scores through valence scales.

Pyryt and Mendaglio (1994) present psychometric properties of the PMSPS. Cronbach's alpha revealed internal consistency scores of .75 for the social scale and .95 for the athletic scale. A factor analysis supported the construct validity of the model. Convergent validity was indicated through comparisons of the scores with those measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Correlations between scales of the two measures were .42 for social, and .23 for athletic.

The section of the PMSPS designed to measure self-concept consists of 30 items. Each item is a statement such as "I think that my mother thinks that I do well at work." Each statement

reflects one principle of self-concept formation, "I think that my mother thinks...;" and, one facet of self-concept, "...that I do well at work." The above statement, for example, contributes to the Reflected Appraisals self-concept formation score and to the Work facet score. Twenty items measure Reflected Appraisals, five items measure Social Comparison, and five items measure Self-Attribution. Six items correspond to each facet score. Respondents indicate the extent of agreement with each item. Responses are based on a four-point Likert scale with (1) corresponding to "strongly disagree" and (4) corresponding to "strongly agree."

The section of the PMSPS measuring valence was adapted to address the needs of the current research. In its original form, the section of the PMSPS measuring valence consisted of nine items. Participants were asked to rate the importance of Academic, Social, Athletic, Physical Appearance, and Ethical facets, and the importance of the perceptions of Mother, Father, Teacher, and Best Friend. Valence ratings of the four significant others is not directly relevant to the current research. These items were therefore dropped from the instrument.

Instead, items reflecting the valence of the three principles of self-concept formation were added. In the current study, the section of the PMSPS measuring valence consists of fifteen items. Each item consists of a statement such as, "Others thinking I do well at work." Each statement contributes to the valence score of one principle of self-concept formation and the valence score of one facet. Response to the above item, for example, contributes to the Reflected Appraisals and Work valence scores. Five items measure valence for each of the three principles of self-concept formation. Three items measure valence for each of the five facets. Respondents indicate personal importance of each statement. Response choices include, "very important,"

"important" and "not important" with a value of (1) corresponding to "not important," and (3)

corresponding to "very important." .

In addition to the changes to the valence items, three other changes were made to the

PMSPS for the purposes of this study. First, in order to increase the chance that adults with

mental handicaps would be able to comprehend the items, the word "think" was substituted each

time the PMSPS included the term "perceive." Second, because the study explored self-concept

within a work context, "employer" was substituted for the PMSPS' use of "favourite teacher."

Third, "adults" was substituted for each use of "children."

The PMSPS was verbally administered to participants by the researcher. Participants were

given the option of having a printed form of the response choices laid out in front of them with

one response option per page. The printed response choices were intended to aid recall and

accommodate those with speech impediments. The researcher recorded the participants'

responses on a response summary sheet designed for that purpose.

Item scores from each participant separately were averaged to obtain a score for each of

the three principles of self-concept formation, the five facets of self-concept and the valence of

each. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the group of participants. Group means

for each of the scales are based on an N of less than 31, since principles of formation and facets

were not scored if more than two item scores were missing. Five of the participants did not

respond to any of the valence items. Mean valence scores were therefore calculated from the

responses of 26 participants.

Work Self-Concept Scale (WSCS)

The WSCS is a self-report instrument designed to measure the work facet of self-concept. The instrument was chosen because, to the researcher's knowledge, it is the only tool which applies the self-concept construct specifically to the work context. Hines, Durham and Geoghegan (1991) comment that "despite the fact that self-concept in general has been related to work performance, little research has focused on self-concept as it relates to one's self-perception in the workplace" (p.819).

The WSCS consists of 43 items. The items comprise five factors labelled: cooperation at work; commitment to work; persistence and confidence at work; conflict with supervisors at work, and; recognition and rewards at work. Factor one consists of twenty-seven items, factor two of seven items, factor three of four items, factor four of three items, and factor five of two. Items are statements such as, "I take pride in my work." Respondents indicate the extent to which they perceive statements as true or false. Responses are based on a five-point Likert scale with a rating of (1) corresponding to "completely false" and a rating of (5) corresponding to "completely true."

The WSCS was verbally administered. Similar to administration of the PMSPS, participants were given the option of viewing response choices on printed cards. The researcher recorded participant responses.

Individual participant scores were derived for each of the five factors by averaging item values. Scores were available for twenty-nine of the thirty-one participants. The other two participants did not respond to any of the WSCS items. Means and standard deviations of the five factors were calculated for the responding group of participants.

Psychometric properties of the WSCS are reported by Hines, Durham and Geoghegan (1991). A factor analysis revealed that the five factors account for 44.3% of the total variance. Coefficient alpha reliability for the 45 items measures at .92. Concurrent validity analyses with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale resulted in significant correlations between the total raw scores (r=.68, p<.01).

Procedure

The researcher met participants one-to-one for a single session. Sessions lasted between twenty and forty-five minutes depending on the length of participant responses and reflection time. Meetings were held at locations of each participant's choice. Some meetings were held at Mount Royal College, or the C.J.O. office, others at restaurants, and still others at the participants' homes.

The researcher introduced participants to the study and explained all procedures. Consent Forms were reviewed and the researcher and participant each signed two copies. If the participant was legally independent, he/she kept one copy and the researcher kept the other. If the participant had a legal guardian, he/she kept both copies, had them signed and returned one to the researcher.

Following giving of consent, the researcher assigned the participant a code number, explained its significance and demonstrated how that number would be used for information recording purposes rather than the participant's name.

The four instruments were then administered. The Subject Demographics Form was always administered first. The other three instruments were administered in an order determined by the researcher through use of a random number table (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). Participants

were welcome to suspend the session at any time. If it became obvious to the researcher that the participant was not comprehending the items, administration was discontinued.

Statistical Analyses

Three preliminary statistical analyses were used to establish appropriate techniques for addressing the research questions. First, Hotelling's t-tests revealed no significant differences $(p>.05)$ between males and females for any of the components of self-concept. Gender was therefore not included in subsequent analyses. Second, scales of the PMSPS and factors of the WSCS were tested for between scale or between factor correlations. The factors of the WSCS showed minimal correlation with each other. Therefore, the factors were treated as if they were independent for subsequent analyses. Self-concept scores and valence scores of the PMSPS showed substantial correlation with each other and were therefore not treated as if they were independent for subsequent analyses. Third, F-tests were used to compare the variances of the two groups of participants (those who offered extra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs, and those who offered intra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs) on the PMSPS and WSCS scales. No statistically significant differences were found.

MANOVAs were used to test for statistically significant differences between the two groups of participants on scales of the PMSPS. Student's t-tests were used to test for statistically significant differences between the two groups of participants on factors of the WSCS. Repeated measures MANOVAs were used to test for significant differences between scales of the PMSPS for the participant group as a whole. Paired Student's t-tests were used to test for significant differences between factors of the WSCS for the participant group as a whole.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Three main questions are addressed in this chapter. First, what reasons do long-term

employed adults with mental handicaps have for accepting their jobs? Second, what reasons do

they have for remaining in their jobs? Third, is there a relationship between reasons for remaining

in jobs and self-concept? Data also revealed interesting patterns in the self-concept profiles of

adults with mental handicaps, even though this was not an original intention of the research.

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Of the 31 respondents, 16 were female and 15 male. The participants' ages ranged from

19 to 58. The largest number of participants (11) spanned the ages from 20 to 25 (see Figure 1).
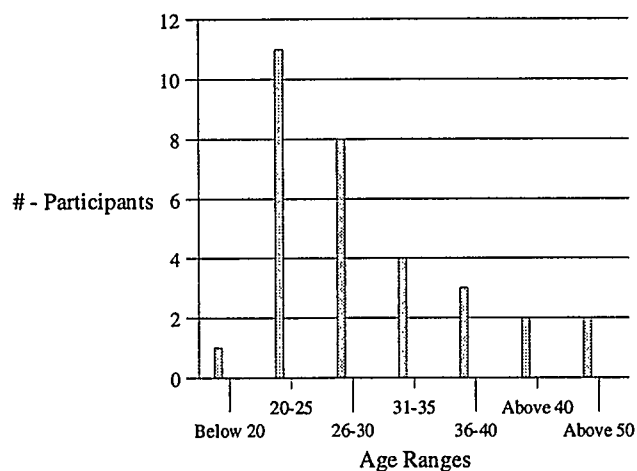
Figure 1-<u>Participant Age Ranges</u>

The research participants worked within a range of employment sectors. Of the 11 sectors, the

largest number of participants (11) were employed in food services (see Figure 2).

Food Services — 11

Retail — 4

Janitorial — 2

Health Care — 2

Automobile — 2

Hotel — 3

Oil & Gas — 3

Misc. — 4

Misc
Accnting, ChldCare, Rl.Estate, Production
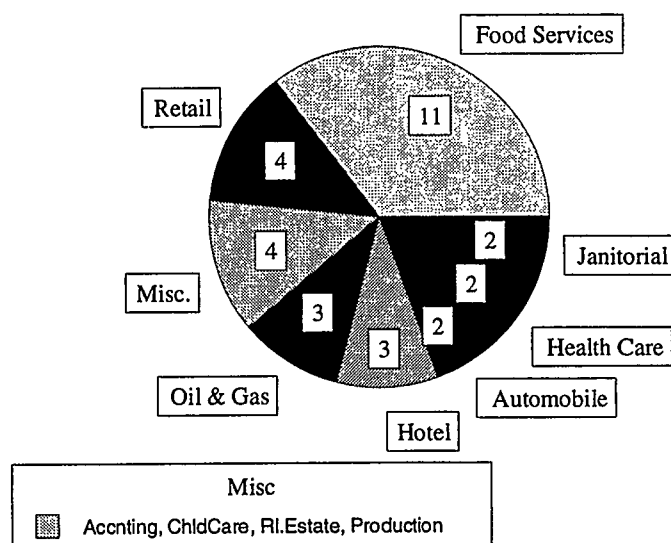
Figure 2-Participant Employment Sectors

Within these sectors, there were 15 different jobs in which participants were employed.

The most common job title was that of busperson (six individuals) (see Figure 3).

Misc.

Lot Attdnt, Crgvr, Crtesy Clrk, Pckagr, Shrt-Ord Cook, Dshwshr, Aide
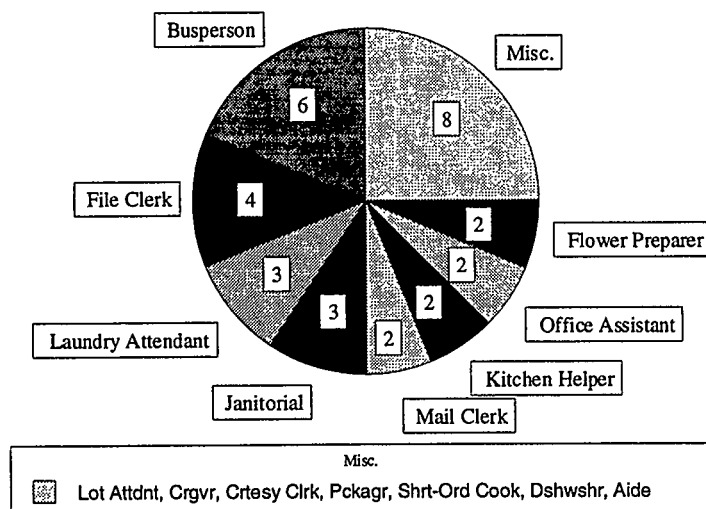
Figure 3-<u>Participant Job Titles</u>

All of the participants selected for the current research were employed at the same job site for a minimum of two consecutive years. As can be seen in Figure 4, a substantial number of employees exceeded the two year criterion. One of the participants, for example, had maintained employment at the same site for 17 years. The modal and median length of time is four years; eight participants had remained in their jobs for four years consecutively. Data is missing for three individuals because they could not recall when they started nor how long they were employed. Personnel at the sources of referral verified that these three participants met the minimum two year criterion.
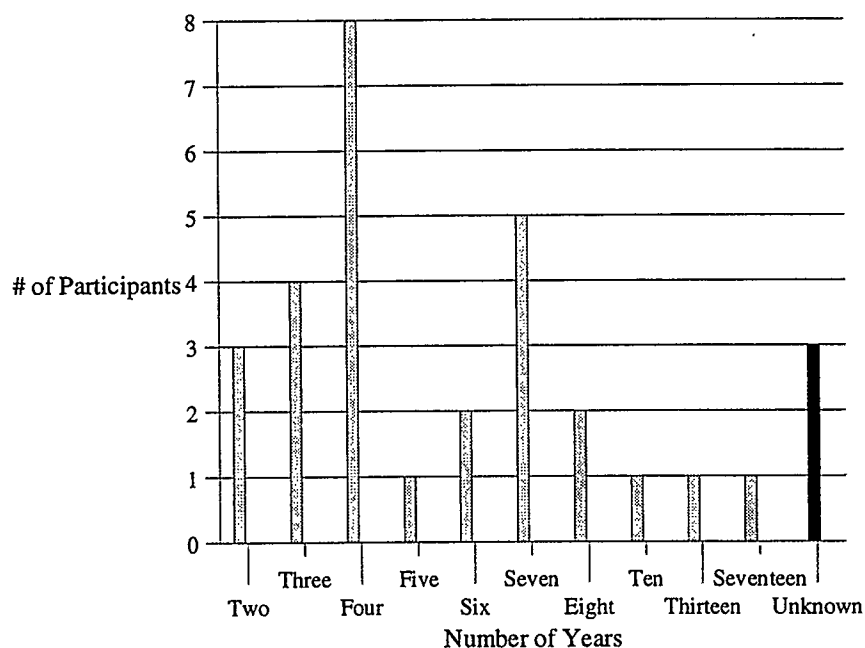
Figure 4-Length of Time on the Job

Twenty-seven research participants secured their jobs through seven different supported employment programs. Of the remaining four participants, two individuals claim to have obtained their employment independently. Data for the other two individuals is missing; these employees could not recall if they had received employment assistance and, if so, who had helped them. Twelve individuals were supported through the Transitional Vocational Program (T.V.P.) at Mount Royal College. Participants in T.V.P. engage in employment preparation classes, receive

employment counselling, assistance with job search and/or job placement (depending on skill level), and on-the-job training and support. Seven individuals received assistance through Community Job Options (C.J.O.). C.J.O. is a program of the Developmental Disabilities Resource Centre and receives funding through Employment and Immigration's Canada Job Strategies. C.J.O. is very similar in program to T.V.P., but is not based out of a college. Two individuals received supported employment services through Advance Industries (A.I.). A.I. is a vocational training centre of the Developmental Disabilities Resource Centre. Two individuals were supported through the Vocational and Rehabilitation Research Institute (V.R.R.I.). Similar to A.I., this division of V.R.R.I. is a vocational training centre with a supported employment program. Jobs for three individuals evolved out of work experience programs offered through their respective high schools. Two of the three participants were hired following work experiences organized by St. Mary's school. The other participant was hired following a work experience organized by Central Memorial school. One individual received support through a program of the Canada Employment Centre (CEC).

Reasons for Employment

Having explored the employment profiles of the participants, we were able to identify where they were working and for how long, but what were their reasons for being there? What were the participants' reasons for accepting for their jobs? What were their reasons for remaining? Were their reasons for accepting their jobs the same as for remaining in jobs in terms of extra-job versus intra-job characteristics, or did a shift in reasons take place over time?

Numbers and Varieties of Reasons

Interviews with the 31 participants revealed several general results. All 31 individuals provided at least one reason why they had initially accepted their jobs and why they had chosen to remain in that same job. Participants offered an average of one reason for employment for both response categories (accepting/remaining). Greater numbers of reasons were offered by participants for remaining than for accepting employment (see Table 1).

Table 1

Frequency of Number of Reasons for Employment

	Reasons for employment	
Number of reasons	Response category one Reasons for accepting	Response category two Reasons for remaining
1	18	16
2	13	7
3	0	5
4	0	2
5	0	1
	n=31	n=31

Reasons varied in length of statement. The shortest response presenting a reason for accepting a job was four words. This participant replied simply, "Well, I needed money." The

longest response presenting a reason for accepting employment was 81 words. This individual

began by stating, "I knew that I had a school. I knew I was going to go to school here and also I

wanted the job because I needed one 'cause I didn't have much coming in on my own. ..."

Reasons for remaining at the job were as short as eight words. For example, one participant

replied, "I need a job and I like working." The longest response presenting a reason for remaining

in a job was 154 words. This individual began his response by saying, "Because actually.

Because actually I'm in with T.V.P.. I've got a couple jobs. One at Canadian Tire. One at

janitorial there. ...)

For both types of reasons, the modal range of words presented by participants is from 10

to 19. Only three participants used 50 or more words to present their reasons for accepting their

jobs, and of these three, none used over 90 words. Nine participants used over 50 words to

present their reasons for remaining in their jobs, four of whom used over 100 words (see Table 2).

Table 2

Frequency of Response Length of Reasons for Employment

Length of response (in number of words)	Reasons for employment	
	Response category one Reasons for accepting	Response category two Reasons for remaining
01-09	6	3
10-19	8	10
20-29	5	2
30-39	5	2
40-49	4	5
50-59	2	0
60-69	0	2
80-89	1	2
90-99	0	1
Over 100	0	4
	n=31	n=31

Two qualitative observations are notable regarding the content of the responses. First, seven of the participants made reference to leaving the job and/or desiring a different job. In other words, although these employees had maintained their jobs for above-average lengths of time, it cannot be assumed that the employees planned to remain. Plans for a change or suspension of employment do not appear to correlate to length of time spent on the job. One of

these participants was employed for two years, four for four years, and two for seven years. The two employees who had worked for seven years both mentioned retirement. One of the two planned to retire from his janitorial work in eight years when he would be sixty-five years of age. The second planned to retire from her file clerk position in nine years when she would be thirty-nine years of age. Of the participants who had been employed at the same site for four years, one had just been let-go from his short-order cook position. Another was biding time in his mail clerk position until he decided on an "actual career"; he was considering becoming a lawyer. Another participant, currently employed as a laundry attendant, "dreamed" of "bench work" for the Calgary Flames hockey team. The fourth individual believed that his current busperson position provided the "safety supervision" he required, but claimed that T.V.P. personnel were searching for a different job for him. The employee who had worked two years was a courtesy clerk. She commented that she wanted to "move up to be a cashier," but added, "I don't think I'll get up to it, because you got to learn different codes and things."

The second general content observation is that 29 of the 31 participants answered the questions in a manner which reflected their own control in whether or not they accepted and then remained in their positions. For example, one participant replied, "Do you really want to know why? Let's see, um, because I really enjoy working with the people I'm working with, and actually they're really really fun..." Their responses addressed their reasons for remaining at the job rather than their employers' reasons for keeping them. Two of the participants provided answers to the contrary. For example, one participant responded, "Probably, just because I help around as much as I can. I try to finish my work as quick as I can." Following minimal prompting, he provided an alternate response - "I like everybody that works with me. I get along

with them pretty well." The second explained why his employer could keep him - "I have a job coach...Gives me help to make sure, to make coffee here." After several prompts he provided his reason for remaining - "Mmm, making money there."

Intra-Job/Extra-Job Reasons for Employment

Reasons were coded within the framework of intra-job/extra-job reasons for accepting/maintaining jobs (see Method chapter). Table 3 presents the categories of reasons identified by the participants as "most important." Some participants maintained that two reasons were equally important. In this case, both reasons were included. For example, one of the classifications included in intra-job reasons for accepting jobs is "tasks and type of job."

Fifty-eight percent of participants offered extra-job reasons for accepting their jobs. As shown in Table 3, these reasons are classified into seven categories. These seven categories include *money, something to do, location, build experience, satisfy others, job security,* and *money and stepping-stone* combined. The reason occurring with the greatest frequency is *money.* For example, when asked why he accepted his job, one participant replied, "Actually, I didn't say anything about it. I just said I didn't want to go, but then I decided to take it." [Interviewer Probe - "And why did you decide to take it?"] "Because that way I would have spending money." The reason provided is not specific to the job he was offered. In fact, the participant could obtain "spending money" at virtually any job. The reason with the second highest frequency is *something to do.* Respondents supplied answers such as, "Just to keep me busy, and that's about it." Once again, this answer is external to the job in question.

Table 3

Participant Frequencies Within Categories of Reasons for Employment

	Type of reason	
	Intra-job	Extra-job
Accepting job	n=13 42%	n=18 58%
	#	#
	A. Type of Job — 4	A. Money — 6
	B. Interpersonal — 4	B. Something to do — 4
	C. Tasks — 3	C. Location — 2
	D. Commitment — 1	D. Build Experience — 2
	E. Tasks & Type of Job — 1	E. Satisfy Others — 2
		F. Job Security — 1
		G. Money & Stepping Stone — 1
Remaining in job	n=16 52%	n=15 48%
	#	#
	A. Type of Job — 0	A. Money — 5
	B. Interpersonal — 7	B. Something to do — 1
	C. Tasks — 2	C. Location — 0
	D. Commitment — 0	D. Build Experience — 1
	E. Atmosphere — 1	E. Satisfy Others — 0
	F. Awards — 1	F. Job Security — 0
	G. Feels Liked — 1	G. Workforce — 4
	H. Interested — 1	H. Stepping Stone — 1
	I. Tasks & Type of Job — 0	I. Need to Work — 1
	J. Interpersonal & Tasks — 2	J. Needs Appropriate Supervision — 1
	K. Tasks & Benefits — 1	K. Money & Benefits — 1

Career point

. Forty-two percent of participants offered intra-job reasons for accepting their jobs. These reasons are classified into five different categories (see Table 3). These five categories include *type of job, interpersonal, tasks, commitment,* and *tasks and type of job* combined. *Type of Job* and *Interpersonal* reasons occurred with equal frequency (4/13). One participant, for example, replied, "`Cause I knew it was with children, and I always wanted to work in a daycare." Another replied, "Because what I was looking for was an office-type job." Interpersonal reasons were provided primarily by individuals who secured a job in a location in which they had previously completed a work experience placement. For example, one participant said, "I was happy there. I was happy to be with other people. It was nice to see different faces. I had kind customers come up to me and say nice things." Several individuals gave potential job-related *tasks* as reasons for accepting their jobs. For example, one participant cited the "opportunity to drive around in new cars." All of the above reasons for accepting jobs are specific to the potential job.

Intra-job reasons for remaining (offered by 52% or participants) are divided into 11 categories (see Table 3). These categories include, *type of job, interpersonal, tasks, commitment, atmosphere, awards, feels liked, interested, tasks and type of job, interpersonal and tasks,* and *tasks and benefits.* The intra-job reason with higher frequency than any other category for remaining in jobs is *interpersonal.* One respondent explained, "...because I really enjoy working with the people I'm working with, and actually they're really, really fun ..." Another responded, "I think the staff is good. My supervisor. I like to work with them. ..." Yet another individual answered, "Just because the people are good. And they're great to work for. They're very pleasant."

Of the extra-job reasons for remaining at the same job (offered by 48% of participants),

two "most important" reasons are noted in one category (*money and benefits*), and single-

response classifications for seven other categories (*money, something to do, build experience,*

workforce, stepping stone, need to work, and *needs appropriate supervision*) (see Table 3).

Similar to reasons for accepting the job, *money* was the response with the greatest frequency for

remaining. One individual replied, "So I can make extra money instead of living off the $810 from

AISH [Assured Income for the Severely Handicapped]." Another individual stated, "Well, I need

lots of money to take my girlfriend [name omitted] out. I buy her supper that time." A number of

other individuals cited the current lack of employment opportunities. One individual replied,

"There's no other jobs out there for one reason. I'm afraid that if I left here there would be

nothing else out there for me. Nobody, just nothing out there that I'd really want to do." Another

informed individual stated, "Because the way the government's been cutting back on things, it's

pretty hard to find a job. So I figured I may as well just stay with this one." While these reasons

have minimal reference to the specific job, they demonstrate awareness of the current state of

affairs.

<u>Comparison Between Reasons for Accepting and Reasons for Remaining in Employment</u>

Overall, a higher percentage of respondents gave extra-job reasons than those giving intra-

job reasons for accepting their jobs. Intra-job reasons were given slightly more frequently than

extra-job reasons for remaining in jobs. Fifty-eight percent of participants gave extra-job reasons

for accepting their jobs, whereas only 48% offered extra-job reasons for remaining. However, a

chi-square test shows that the shift in pattern of responses, from reasons for accepting jobs to

reasons for remaining in jobs is not statistically significant ($X^2=.54$, d.f.=1, p>.05).

Table 4 presents the degree to which participants' reasons for accepting and remaining are consistent in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics. It was most common for participants to give the same type of reason in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics for both accepting and remaining in their jobs. Such is the case for 71% of the participants. The remaining 29% of participants showed a shift in reasons. Of the 29%, 19% showed a shift in the expected direction; these participants offered an extra-job reason for accepting and an intra-job reason for remaining in their jobs.

Table 4

Percentage of Participants Offering Various Combinations of Reasons for Employment in Terms of Intra-Job/Extra-Job Characteristics

Type of reason	Percentage of Participants
Extra-job reasons for accepting/Extra-job reasons for remaining	39%
Intra-job reasons for accepting/Intra-job reasons for remaining	32%
Extra-job reasons for accepting/Intra-job reasons for remaining	19%
Intra-job reasons for accepting/Extra-job reasons for remaining	10%

Summary of Reasons for Employment

Results were discussed both in terms of intra/extra-job reasons for accepting/remaining in jobs, and reasons for employment in general. A higher number of participants accepted their jobs for reasons which were not specific to the job (extra-job). The reason with the greatest frequency was *money*, followed by *something to do*. A smaller number of participants accepted their jobs for intra-job reasons. Reasons with the highest frequency were the *type of job* and *interpersonal*.

A higher number of participants remained in their jobs for intra-job reasons. Intra-job reasons with the greatest frequency were *interpersonal*. A smaller number of participants remained in their jobs for extra-job reasons. Extra-job reasons with the greatest frequency were *money* and doubts of obtaining an alternate job due to the state of the *workforce*.

Fifty-eight percent of participants offered extra-job reasons for accepting their jobs, but only 48% of participants offered extra-job reasons for remaining. Even though ten percent more participants gave extra-job reasons for accepting their jobs than those giving extra-job reasons for remaining, a shift over time (reasons for accepting/remaining) in terms of extra-job/intra-job characteristics was not statistically significant. Finally, it was most common for participants to offer the same type of reason in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics for both accepting and remaining in their jobs.

Self-Concept

Self-concept may underlie all other reasons for employment. Perhaps the main reason why the participants remained in their jobs for above-average lengths of time is that their esteem needs were being met. The results indicate that the employees felt good about themselves in their jobs.

Questions were posed in order to understand how long-term employed adults with mental

handicaps think and feel about themselves. Several components of self-concept were included in

the research. The first framework of measurement consisted of the three principles which operate

to influence self-concept - Reflected Appraisals, Social Comparison, and Self-Attribution. Five

facets were explored - Ethical, Social, Athletic, Physical Appearance and Work. The relative

importance participants attached to the components of self-concept were measured through

valence scores. Finally, work self-concept was measured.

One of the most intriguing questions in analysing self-concept scores is how the scales

within the components compare. Did participants feel better about themselves in certain domains

than in others? For example, did participants measure higher scores in Reflected Appraisals,

Social Comparison or Self-Attribution? Were any of these domains more or less important to the

participants? How did the various facets of self-concept compare? Did participants feel

better/worse about themselves in any of the five facets? Were certain facets more or less

important? Did participants feel better about themselves in certain aspects of their work than in

others?

<u>Principles of Self-Concept Formation</u>

Table 5 presents the mean participant scores on the three scales of the PMSPS

representing the principles of self-concept formation. The mean score of Social Comparison is

lower than the mean scores of Reflected Appraisals and Self-Attribution. A repeated measures

MANOVA revealed statistically significant difference between Reflected Appraisals (R.A.)., Social

Comparison (S.C.), and Self-Attribution (S.A). $(F_{2,44}=18.52, p<.01)$. Post-hoc t-tests revealed

statistically significant differences (p<.01) between R.A. and S.C., and between S.A. and S.C., but

not between R.A. and S.A. Figure 5 clearly portrays the depressed nature of the S.C. scores in

comparison to the R.A. and S.A. scores. While the lines representing R.A. and S.A. scores cross

one another near the top of the graph, the line representing S.C. scores clearly hovers below.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of Self-Concept Formation Scores as Measured by the PMSPS

	Principles of self-concept formation		
	R.A.	S.C.	S.A.
Number of participants	25	24	25
Mean	3.0	2.5	2.8
Standard deviation	0.3	0.5	0.4
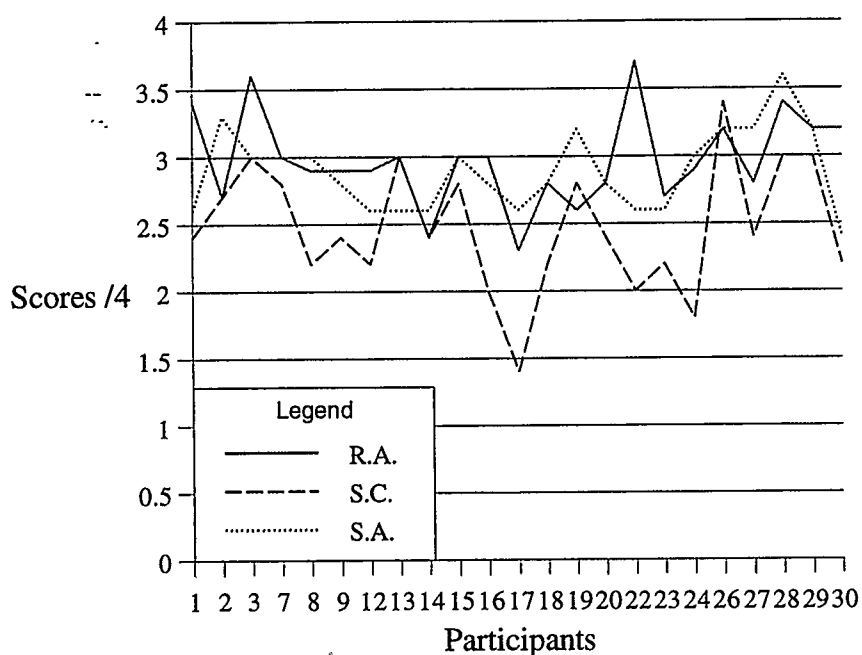
Figure 5 - <u>Participant Scores in Principles of Self-Concept Formation as Measured by the PMSPS</u>

The results, as presented above, mean that long-term employed adults with mental

handicaps feel better about the way in which they perceive others to evaluate them and about their

observations of their own actions and consequences, than they do about the way in which they

compare with others. As presented in the <u>Discussion</u> chapter, the lower relative score in Social

Comparison may be one of the effects of community integrated employment. Working alongside

non-disabled employees presents frequent opportunities for comparisons which may not fall in the

favour of the employee who has a mental handicap.

<u>Valence</u>

In addition to exploring self-concept scores, the Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale

(PMSPS) enables exploration of personal relevance (valence) of the scores. As an example of the

potential importance of valence, consider participant seventeen who measured a depressed self-

concept score on the Social Comparison scale (see Figure 5). In order to determine the relevance

of the score, we need to know how important Social Comparison was to participant seventeen. If

participant seventeen indicated that it was very important to do better than others in sports, at

work, etc., and yet his low self-concept score indicates that he thought that he did not compare

well with others, we have cause for concern. If, on the other hand, participant seventeen

indicated that Social Comparison was not important to him, the low score is much less significant.

As shown in Table 6, the pattern of results for valence of principles is very similar to the

pattern of scores cited earlier. The mean valence scores of Reflected Appraisals (R.A.) and Self-

Attribution (S.A.) are higher than that of Social Comparison (S.C.). Notably, Figure 5 showing

the self-concept scales and Figure 6 showing the valence scales are almost interchangeable. Just

as the line representing Social Comparison hovered below the other two principles on the graph

presenting self-concept scores, it does the same on the graph presenting valence. A repeated

measures MANOVA revealed statistically significant difference between valence of R.A., S.C.,

and S.A. ($F_{2,50}=37.67$, p<.01). Post-hoc t-tests revealed statistically significant differences

(p<.01) between valence of R.A. and S.C., valence of R.A. and S.A., and valence of S.C. and

S.A.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations of Self-Concept Formation Valence Scores as Measured by the

PMSPS

	Principles of self-concept formation		
	R.A.	S.C.	S.A.
Number of participants	26	26	26
Mean	2.1	1.6	2.3
Standard deviation	0.4	0.5	0.3
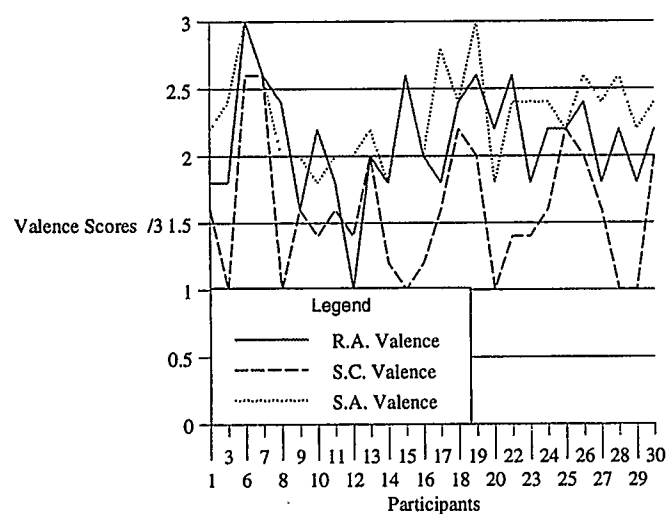
Figure 6 - <u>Participant Scores in Valence of Principles of Self-Concept Formation as Measured by</u>

<u>the PMSPS</u>

In other words, respondents reportedly do not feel that they compare especially well to

others, but neither is this social comparison important to the respondents as a group. During the

interview process, several participants voiced different versions of the same sentiment. They

stated that it does not matter how one compares with other people; it is striving to improve one's

own performance that matters. Perhaps through time and personal experience, or through the

advice of others, community integrated employees with mental handicaps have learned this

outlook as a coping mechanism. Perhaps the perception of social comparison as unimportant is one of the distinguishing factors between long-term employees with mental handicaps and those who move through job after job.

<div align="center">Facets of Self-Concept</div>

Of the multitude of facets comprising self-concept, five were included in the Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale (PMSPS). These five include Ethical, Social, Athletic, Physical Appearance and Work. As shown in Table 7, the mean scores of the Athletic and Physical Appearance facets are lower than those of the Ethical, Social, and Work facets. A repeated measures MANOVA revealed statistically significant difference between the five facets of self-concept ($F_{4,84}$=14.19, p<.01). Post-hoc t-tests revealed statistically significant differences between the Ethical and Athletic facets, the Social and Athletic facets, the Work and Athletic facets, the Ethical and Physical Appearance facets, the Social and Physical Appearance facets, the Work and Physical Appearance facets, and the Work and Ethical facets. The only facets between which there were no statistically significant differences were the Ethical and Social facets, the Work and Social facets, and the Athletic and Physical Appearance facets. In other words, it is likely that long-term employed adults with mental handicaps feel better about themselves in the Ethical, Social and Work facets than in the Athletic and Physical Appearance facets. It can also be safely predicted that the population as defined above also feel better about themselves in the Ethical facet than in the Work facet.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviation of Facets of Self-Concept as Measured by the PMSPS

Facets of self-concept

	Ethical	Social	Athletic	Physical appearance	Work
Number of participants	26	24	27	22	24
Mean	3.2	3.1	2.3	2.7	2.9
Standard deviation	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5

Valence

As explained in "Principles of Self-Concept Formation" above, the PMSPS facilitates

contextual interpretation of scores through inclusion of valence scores. For example, low athletic

self-concept has far different implications for an individual who deems athletic accomplishment to

be important than for another who assigns no importance to athletics.

As indicated by the means reported in Table 8, valence scores of the five facets of self-

concept cluster into two groupings. Ethical, social, and work self-concept appear to be fairly

important to the majority of individuals. Physical appearance and athletic self-concept, on the

other hand, reveal low valence scores. These differences are statistically significant. A repeated

measures MANOVA revealed statistically significant difference between valence of the five facets

($F_{4,100}$=34.05, p<.01). Post-hoc t-tests revealed statistically significant valence score differences

(p<.01) between the Ethical and Athletic facets, the Social and Athletic facets, the Work and

Athletic facets, the Ethical and Physical Appearance facets, the Social and Physical Appearance

facets, and the Work and Physical Appearance facets. The only facets between which there were

no statistically significant valence score differences were between the Ethical and Social facets,

the Ethical and Work facets, the Social and Work facets, and the Athletic and Physical

Appearance facets. In other words, it is likely that Ethical, Social, and Work facets are more

important to long-term employed adults with mental handicaps than are Athletic and Physical

Appearance facets.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviation of Valence of Self-Concept Facets as Measured by the PMSPS

Facets of self-concept

	Ethical	Social	Athletic	Physical appearance	Work
Number of participants	26	26	26	26	26
Mean	2.4	2.3	1.4	1.6	2.3
Standard deviation	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.3

Overall, high valence scores are associated with high facets of self-concept scores, and low valence with low facets of self-concept scores. Specifically, participants measured lower self-concept scores on the Athletic and Physical Appearance scores which were also perceived as less important. Notably, Ethical, Social, and Work facets are more relevant to the employment context than Athletic and Physical Appearance facets. The results of the current study would likely vary significantly from those in which the participants were adults with mental handicaps in another context, or those who were unemployed.

<center>Work Self-Concept Factors</center>

Because self-concept is a contextual construct (see for instance, Gecas, 1982), and the context of the current research is the workplace, a second instrument was administered to obtain a measure of the work facet of self-concept.

Table 9 presents the means and standard deviations of the work self-concept factors. Paired Student's t-tests revealed significant differences between factors one and two (t=4.55, df=56, p<.01), between factors one and three (t=5.72, df=56, p<.01), between factors one and four (t=4.29, df=56, p<.01), and between factors one and five (t=4.63, df=56, p<.01). In other words, it is likely that long-term employed adults with mental handicaps feel better about their cooperation at work, than about their commitment to work, persistence & confidence at work, ability to get along with their supervisor at work, and recognition and rewards at work. As well, it is likely that they feel better about their commitment to work than about their persistence and confidence at work and recognition and rewards at work.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviation of Factors of Work Self-Concept Scores

as Measured by the WSCS

	Work self-concept factors				
	Factor one	Factor two	Factor three	Factor four	Factor five
Number of participants	29	29	29	29	29
Mean	4.5	4.0	3.4	3.7	3.5
Standard Deviation	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.9	1.2

Relationship Between Reasons for Employment and Self-Concept

One of the research hypotheses was that adults with mental handicaps would build their

self-concepts around their reasons for remaining in their jobs. If this is true, then there should be

a difference in components of self-concept between participants who gave extra-job reasons and

participants who gave intra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs.

The results of the current research did not support this hypothesis. There was no

statistically significant difference between components of self-concept or valence between

participants who gave intra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs and participants who gave

extra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs. A one-way 2 x 3 MANOVA revealed no significant

difference between participants who gave intra-job versus extra-job reasons for remaining in their

jobs on any of the three principles of self-concept formation ($F_{12,8}=1.14$, $p>.05$). Similarly, a one-

way 2 x 3 MANOVA revealed no significant difference with valence of principles as the

dependent variable ($F_{8,17}=.66$, $p>.05$). A one-way 2 x 5 MANOVA revealed no statistically

significant difference between the two groups with facets of self-concept as the dependent

variable ($F_{12,8}=1.14$, $p>.05$). Similarly, results of a one-way 2 x 5 MANOVA with valence of

facets as dependent variable were not statistically significant ($F_{8,17}=.66$, $p>.05$). Finally, using

two-tailed Student's t-tests on the five factors of the Work Self-Concept Scale, no statistically

significant differences were found ($p>.05$).

The results of the statistical analyses indicate that there is no significant difference between

the self-concepts of long-term employed adults with mental handicaps who gave intra-job versus

extra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs. As presented in the Discussion chapter, one of the

most plausible explanations for the lack of discrimination within the group may be the high

homogeneity of the group. The self-concepts of long-term community employed adults with

mental handicaps may be so positive that differences within the group are too subtle to detect.

While the hypothesis predicted that participants built their self-concepts around their reasons for

remaining in their jobs, they may have built their self-concepts around a broader category - simply

having a job.

Summary of Self-Concept

The preceding sections of the results addressed two main questions. The first was

whether there are significant differences within components of self-concept for the group of

participants as a whole. The question was answered affirmatively. Long-term employed adults with mental handicaps appear to feel better about themselves as influenced by reflected appraisals and self-attribution, and rate these principles as more important than the third principle- social comparison. The participants also indicated that ethical, social, and work facets are more important, and stronger personal facets than athletic and physical appearance. Finally, of the five factors included in the Work Self-Concept Scale, cooperation at work appeared to be perceived as a strength among the participants.

The second question was whether there is a relationship between reasons for remaining in jobs and self-concept. No such relationship was evident. It is plausible that the relationship has a less defined link; the relationship may exist between having a community integrated job and self-concept rather than between reasons for remaining and self-concept.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The Discussion chapter addresses three main results. First, the relationship between reasons for accepting and reasons for remaining in jobs in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics is discussed. Second, probable reasons why a modal number of participants gave the same category of reasons (intra-job/extra-job) for both accepting and maintaining employment are presented. Third, the relationship between reasons for remaining in jobs and components of self-concept is discussed.

Secondary results are also discussed. Characteristics of the employment profiles of adults with mental handicaps are explored. Participants' reasons for employment and components of their self-concepts are analysed. Ideas for practical application of the reasons for employment and self-concept results are presented. The discussion concludes with research limitations, areas for further exploration, and an overview of the research, results and implications.

No Difference Between Reasons For Accepting/Remaining

Why was there no significant difference between reasons for accepting and reasons for remaining in jobs in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics? The answer may lie in perception of job status. The hypothesis that the majority of participants would provide extra-job reasons for accepting their jobs and then find intra-job reasons for remaining is based on classification of the job as low-status. The proposition is that low-status jobs would offer little initial appeal. For example, the majority of individuals would become dishwashers not because they cared about clean dishes, but because they needed money or were receiving pressure to get a job (extra-job

reasons). The proposition continues that, over time, those who remained in the jobs would find a reason specific to the job for remaining (intra-job). For example, the dishwasher may remain because he/she feels respected and appreciated by his/her colleagues and enjoys their company. The same proposition does not hold for high-status positions. For example, a lawyer probably accepts a firm's offer because he/she enjoys public speaking and wants the prestige, and because his/her income will be lucrative. All of these reasons are specific to the job (intra-job). His/her reasons for remaining in that same position may well be the same as for accepting (intra-job).

Scanning the list of jobs from the current research, all of them are normally considered as entry-level non- or low-skill positions. These positions appear to be low-status. However, for the reader of this research, most likely educated at the post-secondary level, the status designation is based on a pool of hundreds of alternatives. Adults with mental handicaps, on the other hand, generally have access to a much smaller pool of jobs. The status ranking may therefore be measured on a different scale, or at least a scale with narrower bands. Within the subset of jobs typically accessible to adults with mental handicaps, those that are considered low-status within society as a whole, may be considered high status.[1] For example, one of the participants was a lot attendant. He spent part of his day driving shiny new cars. In comparison to other options such as bussing tables and washing dishes, this position may very well have high status both to the employee and his fellow consumers of the supported employment program.

---

[1] Individual perception of job status also depends on the extent to which an individual identifies with the group (in this case, adults with mental handicaps). If an individual does not identify him/herself with individuals with mental handicaps, his/her perception of job status may be more informed by society as a whole. It must be especially frustrating to identify with society's perception of job status and yet be limited to the ceiling of jobs available to adults with mental handicaps.

There may be a bias built into the research sample. Jobs which are maintained for an above-average length of time may be over-represented by those which are high status. Perceptions of job status among the participants and among adults with mental handicaps in general were not measured in the current study. Designation of jobs within the current study as high or low-status are therefore speculative. However, if a number of the jobs held by participants within the current study were incorrectly assumed to be low-status, it stands to reason that there would be no significant difference between reasons for accepting jobs and reasons for remaining in jobs in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics.

Consistency of Participant Reasons for Employment Over Time in Terms of

Intra-Job/Extra-Job Characteristics

Seventy-one percent of individuals offered consistent reasons for accepting and maintaining their jobs in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics. Perception of status within a narrow band of job options may also contribute to the explanation as to why it was most common for participants to offer the same type of reason in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics for both accepting and remaining in their jobs. Individuals who offered intra-job reasons for both accepting and remaining in their positions (32%) may have perceived their jobs as high-status. As in the above example of the lawyer, it is intuitively reasonable that individuals would both accept and remain in their jobs for reasons which are specific to high-status jobs. The individuals who accepted and remained in their jobs for extra-job reasons (39%) may have perceived their jobs as low-status. Perhaps they never found a reason specific to the job for staying, but the narrow band of job options dictated that they settle.

The personal consistency of reasons for employment over time in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics may also be explained by the human tendency towards commitment and consistency (Cialdini,1988). Once people identify themselves as having particular personality characteristics, they tend to make a psychological commitment to act in a manner which is consistent with those characteristics. So, for example, it is intuitively reasonable that an individual who sees him/herself as 'realistic,' will offer extra-job reasons such as *money*, or conditions of the *workforce* for accepting and maintaining jobs. It is also not surprising that a 'social' person will offer *interpersonal* reasons (intra-job) for accepting and maintaining jobs.

No Relationship Between Reasons for Remaining and Self-Concept

There were no significant differences between participants who gave intra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs and participants who gave extra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs on any of the scales measuring self-concept components - facets, principles of formation, valence, and work self-concept. Two interconnected reasons for lack of significant difference are plausible. First, the homogeneity of the participant group made within group difference unlikely. All of the participants were adults with mental handicaps. All had been employed at one job-site for a minimum of two years consecutively. It is likely that these characteristics, as well as associated life experiences held in common between the individuals, resulted in similar patterns in components of self-concept. While there may be a difference between the self-concepts of individuals who provide intra-job versus extra-job reasons for remaining employed, the difference is likely minimized by the commonalities of the group. The within-group difference was likely too small to draw a distinction between the individuals who offered intra-job reasons and the individuals who offered extra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs.

Second, the participants' reasons for employment likely had minimal influence on their self-concepts in comparison to the massive influence of securing and maintaining community integrated employment. Differences in components of self-concept between participants who offered intra-job reasons versus extra-job reasons for remaining in their jobs may have been too subtle to detect in the shadow of the overwhelming effect of securing and maintaining community employment.

<div style="text-align:center">Demographic Characteristics of Participants</div>

Demographic characteristics of the participants are included in the discussion for two reasons. First, very little current research presents the employment profiles of Canadian adults with mental handicaps. It is important to understand the profiles of Canadians with mental handicaps rather than simply transposing the American research. Second, the hypothesized shift in reasons over time in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics was based on the type of job secured and maintained by employees. It is therefore important to explore the types of jobs secured by the participants.

In terms of employment sectors and types of jobs, the employment profiles of current and prior research participants are similar. Of the research presented in Chapter Two - Literature Review, five studies present percentages of participants employed in various sectors. The sector with the highest frequency in every study, including the current research, was food services (See Table 10). Study a. involved participants from Calgary, Alberta. Study b. and e. involved participants throughout the United States. Studies c.,d. and f. involved participants from Virginia.

Table 10 shows that throughout various locales and years, food services remains the top

employment sector for adults with mental handicaps.

Table 10

Percentage of Participants Employed in Food Services in the Current Research & Five Prior

Studies

Research authors and dates of publication	% of participants employed in food services
a. Current research, 1995	35.5%
b. Rusch, Wilson, Hughes & Heal, 1994	45.9%
c. Parent, Kregel, Metzler & Twardzik, 1992	60 %
d. Shafer, Banks & Kregel, 1991	48.7%
e. Schalock, McGaughey & Kiernan, 1989	22.7% (1984-85 survey)
	24.4% (1985-86 survey)
f. Hill, Banks, Handrich, Wehman, Hill & Shafer, 1987	41.5%

While the employment sectors with the highest frequencies are not unique to the current

research, some of the job titles may be. Unfortunately, the uniqueness of the job titles cannot be

established with any certainty because only one of the studies included in the Literature Review

includes job titles. This study in isolation cannot serve as an accurate base of comparison because

it includes data from over ten years ago, in the United States, and for people with "severe" mental

handicaps. In any case, the study provides a starting point for comparison and contrast of the

participants from the current research. Wehman, Hill, Wood and Parent (1987) list 28 job titles

of twenty-one adults with "severe" mental handicaps (four individuals held more than one job over the research period from 1978 to 1986). The job titles (listed in alphabetical order) include assembler, busperson, bench worker, dish/pot washer, food preparer, housekeeper, janitor, kitchen helper, laundry attendant, and stock clerk in a warehouse. The job titles which are included in the current research, but not in those listed above, are aide, caregiver, courtesy clerk, file clerk, flower preparer, lot attendant, mail clerk, office assistant, and packager. Studies such as Schalock, McGaughey and Kiernan's (1989) include packaging/materials handling and miscellaneous clerical as employment sectors. Inclusion of these sectors indicates that some of the jobs listed above may not be unique to the current research participants. After eliminating these jobs from the list, aide, caregiver, courtesy clerk, and lot attendant remain. These positions may be more unique. The aide and caregiver positions are intriguing in that they 'turn the table of' service provision. Rather than being the 'helpees,' adults with mental handicaps are the 'helpers.' Rather than 'hiding' the employee in a back kitchen or warehouse, as is the case with many positions held by employees with mental handicaps, the courtesy clerk position is a very public, even social, job. Finally, the lot attendant position requires a prestigious prerequisite - a driver's license. Lot attendant responsibilities involve driving shiny new cars - for many, an enviable position. Although the majority of participant jobs are those established in the literature to be common to adults with mental handicaps, at least four jobs may be considered more unique.

While a minimum of two consecutive years at the same employment site is one of the selection criteria, most of the participants exceeded the minimum. Notably, the modal and median number of years of consecutive employ at the same site is four. Three employees were employed for each of 10, 13, and 17 years. The participant employed for 17 years secured her job with help

from T.V.P. She was a caregiver at a daycare. The participant employed for 13 years was a laundry attendant at a hotel. She could not remember whether or not someone helped her secure her job. Finally, the participant employed for ten years was a Service Aide II at a hospital. She was hired following a high school work experience.

Not only have some adults with mental handicaps remained employed for an above-average length of time, but for many years above the average. This result speaks to the tenacity and dedication of the employees, the quality of the jobs and support of the employers and participants' personal support networks, and the competence of the supported employment personnel. Unfortunately, at least in the case of a few participants, it also speaks to the state of the economy, the existence of employment barriers for adults with mental handicaps, and accordingly, the realistic necessity of remaining in jobs for fear of not securing alternate sources of income.

<div align="center">Reasons for Employment</div>

<div align="center">Numbers and Varieties of Reasons</div>

In respect to number and length of reasons for employment, reasons for remaining was favoured over reasons for accepting on both counts. Two explanations are plausible. First, reasons for remaining were requested in the context of the present, whereas reasons for accepting were retrospective. Perhaps participants could not recall all of their reasons for accepting. Second, after spending years in the job, employees likely had more to say about it than when first contemplating acceptance.

Reasons for Accepting Jobs

Participants offered a diverse list of reasons for accepting jobs. Even the reason with the highest frequency accounts for a small number of participants. The reason for accepting jobs occurring with the greatest frequency was wanting and/or needing *money* (seven of the thirty-one participants including the instance in which *money* and *stepping stone* were offered as equally important). Some of the participants specified purposes for the money, such as treating a girlfriend, but most did not. A large amount of money did not appear to be an important factor to the majority of participants. Even those who did specify an amount did not demonstrate high expectations. One individual stated that she wanted to earn more than the $810 monthly government allowance (Assured Income for the Severely Handicapped), and another indicated that he accepted the job so that he would make $4.00/hr. It should be noted that this individual was placed out of a vocational training centre, so $4.00/hr would have been a large pay increase from the minimal training incentive offered at the centre. However, $4.00/hr was not a substantial amount of money even in 1988 when this employee began work. For the research participants, simply receiving pay appears to be more important than the amount. Even those who expressed an amount did not appear to have high expectations. No one expressed a desire to be rich. (Note that the conclusion that the amount of money is not a critical factor conflicts with the results of a study by Richardson, Koller and Katz (1988) (see Literature Review). They reported that the number one reason offered by males and number two reason offered by females for leaving their jobs was "not enough pay."

<u>Reasons for Remaining in Jobs</u>

The reason for remaining in jobs offered with the highest frequency (nine of thirty-one) is *interpersonal* (including two instances in which *interpersonal* and *tasks* were offered as equally important). Following *interpersonal* reasons, *money* has the second highest frequency (six of thirty-one including a single instance in which *money* and *benefits* were offered as equally important) followed by the current state of the *workforce* (four of thirty-one). Frequencies of the other classifications of reasons are only one or two. *Interpersonal* reasons include enjoying the relationship with one's supervisor, colleagues, and/or customers. Many studies suggest that interpersonal problems are the number one reason for job failure among adults with mental handicaps. For example, Yan, Mank, Sandow, Rhodes and Olson (1993) state that "job loss...has long been attributed largely to social deficits rather than job performance" (p.282). The results of the current research suggest that not only are the social skills of adults with mental handicaps important to the employers, but the social skills of the employer and other personnel are important to the employee. Perhaps some of the communities of people belonging to jobs in the current study have found that elusive quality of fellowship which is so integral to employment success.

<u>Comparison of Reasons for Employment to Results From Prior Research</u>

As presented in the Literature Review, Test, Bond Hinson, Solow and Keul (1993) interviewed 34 adults with mental handicaps all of whom were employed and receiving supported employment services through an agency in North Carolina. Employees were asked why they accepted their jobs. The reason offered with the highest frequency (50%) was "want[ing] or need[ing] a job." The reason with the second highest frequency (26.5%) was "money" (p.42). Notably, *money* was the reason for accepting offered with the highest frequency (19.4%) in the

current study. Also in the current study, *type of job*, *interpersonal*, and *something to do* were offered with equal frequency (12.9% each). All of these reasons could be incorporated in the reason - "want[ing] the job," as presented by Test, Bond Hinson, Solow and Keul. *Money* appears to be a common reason for accepting jobs; this reason was offered with high frequency both in the current study and in prior research.

Richardson, Koller and Katz (1988) interviewed 115 Scottish adults with mental handicaps (70 males and 45 females). The researchers did not ask participants why they accepted and/or remained in their jobs. They did, however, ask participants to review their employment records and, for each job, present their reason for leaving. Reasons for leaving jobs as reported by Richardson, Koller and Katz (1988) are compared and contrasted to reasons for remaining in jobs as reported in the current study.

The first notable observation concerns number of reasons offered. Males offered an average of 4.5 and females an average of 3.8 reasons for leaving their jobs (Richardson, Koller & Katz, 1988), whereas males and females combined offered an average of 1.9 reasons for remaining in their jobs (current research). If we assume that the two samples are representative, then adults with mental handicaps provide more reasons for leaving jobs than for remaining. The discrepancy in number of reasons may occur because leaving a job, whether through quitting or dismissal, is a stressful life event; people think about and talk about the reasons. Remaining in a job, on the other hand, does not disrupt life's routine. Most people probably spend little time thinking about their reasons for remaining.

The second notable observation in comparing and contrasting the current study with that of Richardson, Koller and Katz (1988) concerns *money* as a shared category of reasons for

remaining and reasons for leaving. "Not enough pay" was the reason offered with the highest

frequency by males and second highest frequency by females (after "generally disliked/fed up") for

leaving jobs (Richardson, Koller & Katz, 1988). Notably, *money* was the reason with the second

highest frequency (after *interpersonal*) for remaining in jobs. One might infer from these findings

that if the amount of pay meets the employee's expectations, *money* serves as a main reason for

remaining in a job. If, on the other hand, the amount of pay does not meet the employee's

expectations, *money* serves as a main reason for leaving.

Comparison of Intra-Job/Extra-Job Reasons for Employment to Results From Prior Research

As presented in the Literature Review, Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) interviewed 81

male and 63 female psychiatric attendants. Research participants were asked why they had

chosen their jobs and why they had remained. Reasons were classified as either intrinsic

(corresponds to intra-job in the current research) or extrinsic (corresponds to extra-job in the

current research). As can be seen in Table 11, the frequency of extra-job reasons for accepting

was substantially higher than that of intra-job reasons for accepting. Intra-job reasons for

remaining were offered somewhat more frequently than extra-job reasons for remaining. A chi-

square analysis showed a statistically significant shift from reasons for accepting to reasons for

remaining in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics (X^2=40.96, d.f.=1, p<.001).

Table 11

Percentage of Participants Offering Various Reasons for Employment in Current and Simpson and
Simpson's (1959/1982) Research

	Source of data	
Type of reason	Current research	Simpson & Simpson
Extra-job reasons for accepting	58%	83%
Intra-job reasons for accepting	42%	17%
Extra-job reasons for remaining	48%	47%
Intra-job reasons for remaining	52%	53%

There are two potential reasons for discrepant results between the Simpson & Simpson (1959/1982) study and the current research. First, Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) studied one type of job - psychiatric attendant. A characteristic of the psychiatric attendant role is the humanitarian commitment. While the majority of research participants offered extra-job reasons for accepting their employment, humanitarian interest formed the basis for the majority of reasons for remaining. For example, one participant said, "somebody has to help these people get well, and I feel it's our mission to do that" (p.404). Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) stated that the psychiatric attendants built their self-concepts around the self-perceived social status of devoting themselves to the needs of other human beings.

In the current research, data is derived from fifteen different jobs. Few of these jobs are in the human services domain. Many are in the food services sector. While the participants in Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) research seem to have reinterpreted their jobs as 'callings' and thereby found personal significance, food service occupations can seldom be perceived in the same way. Differences in reasons abound from person to person; reasons also likely differ from job to job. The diversity of jobs built additional variance into the current study, which was not as evident in the research of Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982).

The second plausible explanation for discrepant results between the current and Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) research is that *interpersonal* reasons were classified as intra-job in the current study, and as extra-job in Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982). The discrepancy appears to have originated from the elements one includes in defining a "job." The current research subscribes to the belief that a job is defined above and beyond the tasks and assignments. Rather than external to the job, *interpersonal* reasons are intimately connected. Simpson and

Simpson (1959/1982), on the other hand, must have considered interpersonal relations as peripheral to work.

In order to explore the degree to which discrepant classifications of *interpersonal* reasons affected the results, *interpersonal* reasons were moved to the extra-job category (see Table 12). Notably, moving *interpersonal* reasons so that it is in the extra-job category in both studies reverses rather than ameliorates the discrepancy. With *interpersonal* reasons in the intra-job category, the discrepancy between the current and Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) study in extra-job reasons for accepting jobs was 25% and the discrepancy in intra-job reasons for remaining in jobs was 1%. With *interpersonal* reasons in the extra-job category, the discrepancy between the current and Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) study in extra-job reasons for accepting jobs was 12% and the discrepancy in intra-job reasons for remaining in jobs was 24%. In other words, including *interpersonal* reasons in the extra-job rather than intra-job category increases rather than decreases discrepancy between Simpson and Simpson's (1959/1982) results and the results of the current study.

Table 12

Percentage of Participants Offering Various Reasons for Employment with Interpersonal Reasons

Classified as Each of Intra-Job and as Extra-Job

Source of data

Type of reason	Current research		Simpson & Simpson
	Interpersonal Reasons as Intra-Job	Interpersonal Reasons as Extra-Job	
Extra-job reasons for accepting	58%	71%	83%
Intra-job reasons for accepting	42%	29%	17%
Extra-job reasons for remaining	48%	71%	47%
Intra-job reasons for remaining	52%	29%	53%

Self-Concept

Principles of Self-Concept Formation

Analysis indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between participants' scores in Reflected Appraisals and Social Comparison, and between participants' scores in Self-Attribution and Social Comparison. In other words, participants appear to feel better about their perceptions of how others evaluate them and better about their observations of their own actions and the consequences, than about the way in which they compare to others.

As presented in the Literature Review, Gibbons (1985) interviewed two groups of individuals with mental handicaps, living either in institutions, or in group-homes. One of the results was that individuals living in the institutions had "inflated images of themselves" (p.105), whereas individuals living in the group-homes did not. As an explanation of the results, Gibbons (1985) suggested "...that the community facility people [individuals living in the group-homes] are more likely to include nonretarded persons within their reference and social comparison groups and realize that, in comparison with non-retarded people, they look worse" (p.105).

Although Gibbons (1985) explored Social Comparison within residential contexts, his conclusions may also apply to the vocational context. Perhaps working in community integrated employment has contributed to participants' less positive feelings about the way in which they compare to others. Working in regular jobs alongside their non-disabled peers provides participants with many opportunities for self/other comparisons, many of which do not favour the participants. Such comparisons may make conditions associated with mental handicap salient, and lead to depressed Social Comparison self-concept scores in comparison with other means of self-concept formation.

<u>Valence</u>

For the majority of participants, lower scores in Social Comparison is not a cause for concern. Overall, on a three-point scale in which 1=not important, and 3=very important, participants measured a mean score of 1.6, s.d.= 0.5 on Social Comparison. There is a statistically significant difference between the valence of Reflected Appraisals and Social Comparison, and the valence of Self-Attribution and Social Comparison. In other words, not only did participants feel worse about the way in which they compared with others than they felt about their abilities and the perceptions of others, but comparisons with others were also least important to the participants. Perhaps the belief that comparisons with others are not important has been reinforced over time by concerned significant others who perceived that such comparisons may be self-destructive.

<div align="center"><u>Facets of Self-Concept</u></div>

The PMSPS includes five facets of self-concept. These five facets include - Ethical, Social, Athletic, Physical Appearance, and Work. There were statistically significant differences between the Athletic facet and three of the other facets (Ethical, Social, and Work). There was also a statistically significant difference between the Physical Appearance facet and the same three facets. In other words, participants appear to have felt better about themselves ethically, socially, and work-wise, than athletically and in physical appearance. In addition, participants scored significantly higher on the ethical than on the work self-concept scales.

In respect to athleticism, the low score appears to be due to absence of athletic activity in participants' lives, rather than absence of perceived ability. Numerous participants commented that they do not participate in any sports. It was therefore natural for participants to respond to

items such as "I think that my mother thinks that I am good at sports," with "disagree" or even "strongly disagree." In respect to physical appearance, participants appear to have been modest. While agreeing to statements praising one's ethical, social, and work competencies is socially acceptable, agreeing to statements praising one's physical appearance may not be. Participants tended to answer questions about physical appearance with a blush, a joke, a protest, or a modest smile.

It is notable that there are significant differences between facets of self-concept in the current study. Tymchuk (1991) administered the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) to twenty-seven mothers with mental handicaps. Of the mean scale scores reported, three are similar in type to the facet scores of the PMSPS - physical self, moral ethical self, and social self. While Tymchuk (1991) does not report testing for statistically significant difference between the scale scores, visual examination of the values leads one to believe that statistically significant difference would not be found. Whether or not the current research participants are unique in measuring statistically significant differences between facets of self-concept remains to be seen. Conclusions cannot be drawn following comparison with Tymchuk's (1991) study alone. However, the apparent difference between the two studies indicates that relationships between facets of self-concept may warrant further research.

Valence

Notably, participant scores for valence of facets mirrors patterns for facet scores. There was a statistically significant difference between valence of Ethical, Social, and Work facets, and valence of Athletic and Physical Appearance facets. In other words, participants may not have scored as high on Athletic and Physical Appearance facets as on some of the other facets, but they

also did not appear to think that athleticism and physical appearance are as important. To the researcher's knowledge, no prior literature has examined the importance of facets of self-concept to adults with mental handicaps. No basis of comparison is therefore available.

Work Self-Concept Factors

There is a statistically significant difference between cooperation at work, and the four other factors included in the WSCS. These four factors include, commitment to work, persistence & confidence at work, ability to get along with the supervisor at work, and recognition and rewards at work. Statistically significant differences were also apparent between two of the four factors - commitment to work and persistence and confidence at work. In other words, participants appear to have felt better about their ability to cooperate at work, than about the other factors. Perhaps participants' abilities to cooperate are one of the factors enabling them to maintain their positions for many years. They also appear to have felt better about their commitment to work than their persistence and confidence at work. It is not surprising that participants obtain positive scores in work commitment, since the sample is comprised of individuals who have maintained their positions for above-average lengths of time. To the researcher's knowledge no other studies have examined the work self-concept of adults with mental handicaps. The results as presented above may serve as a launching point for further exploration and comparison of results.

Practical Application of Results

Practical Application of Reasons for Employment Results

Practical applications are provided both for reasons for accepting jobs and reasons for remaining in jobs. This section is directed primarily to personnel of supported employment

programs. The research was designed to facilitate help for individuals who frequently move from job to job. Many of the observations and applications are taken from the researcher's prior experience in supported employment.

There are at least two practical applications of the reasons long-term employed adults offered for accepting community integrated employment. Reasons are numerous and varied both within and between classifications. Each individual has his/her own 'angle' on reasons for accepting employment. Successful placements therefore require exploration of employment relevance on an individual basis. Familiarity with some of the main reasons for accepting employment may facilitate placement of those individuals who are tentative or resistant to community integrated employment. Reasons such as money, opportunities to meet and spend time with others, keeping occupied and preventing boredom, and personally interesting job options may be presented and discussed as motivation for joining the workforce.

There are also numerous practical applications of the reasons offered by long-term employed adults for remaining in their jobs. Interpersonal relations are the top reason reported by employees for remaining in their jobs. It is therefore of utmost importance for job developers to choose employment sites with healthy interpersonal climates. Employers should be made aware of the importance of interpersonal employment conditions so that development may occur. The role of the job coach in facilitating social links within the workplace is essential. In providing employment preparation classes for future employees, supported employment personnel should foster development of interpersonal skills. In summary, awareness of the importance of interpersonal employment conditions has practical implications for pre-employment preparation, selection of placement, and on-the-job support.

A number of employees who maintain long-term positions state that receiving pay is a motivation for remaining. An increased appreciation for work-related pay among adults with mental handicaps who move from job to job may facilitate longer term positions. It is the researcher's observation that many individuals with mental handicaps do not understand the relevance of money. It is the researcher's opinion that the deficit in understanding is more often due to lack of experience than to cognitive limitations. Financial matters are often handled by parents or trustees. Some employees never see their pay cheques and therefore cannot connect goods with earnings. Just as teens tend to work harder when required to purchase their own clothing and finance their own entertainment, adults with mental handicaps may strive to maintain jobs when given similar expectations. By facilitating a more practical understanding of pay, job placement personnel may positively influence employee job retention.

Some of the respondents felt forced to remain in their jobs by the state of the economy. They stated that they could not quit now, because the likelihood of securing another position was slim. While these individuals were aware of workforce conditions, many other individuals are not. One of the jokes among job placement personnel is that they are thought to have a 'job pit,' from which they are to pull-out jobs on-demand. It might be argued that adults with mental handicaps are often spared the frustrating and even gruelling process of job search. They are often 'placed.' Unfortunately, by sparing the job search, individuals are also 'spared' an understanding of the state of the workforce and the implications. It is easier to leave a job if you simply have to wait for another or even return to your friends at the vocational training centre in the downtime. It is the researcher's opinion that involving the potential employee in the job search fosters appreciation of workforce conditions. To the extent possible, individuals should participate in job

search activities such as 'cold calls,' 'knocking on doors,' completing a resume, reading the classified advertisements, and visiting the Canada Employment Centre offices. Increased understanding of workforce conditions may promote job retention.

Finally, a word of caution. Practical application of research findings must be facilitated in a value-based manner. Fostering appreciation of workforce conditions, for example, has the potential to be threatening, devaluing, and disempowering. Those in less powerful positions (i.e. individuals with disabilities) should never be forced to endure conditions which others may avoid. Individuals should never be forced to remain in unhealthy or unpleasant work conditions by threats. It is the researcher's observation that when the economy prospers and available employment abounds, individuals with mental handicaps are often hired. When the economy suffers and positions are few, the first to be dropped from the payroll or from hiring plans, or forced to remain in intolerable conditions, seem to be the same individuals. There is no valid rationale for this double community standard. Job placement personnel, employers, and society as a whole must ensure that individuals' involvement in and understanding of societal conditions does not reinforce discrimination and punishment for no crime.

Practical Application of Self-Concept Results

The research results in regards to principles of self-concept formation have practical application for individuals who have not successfully maintained long-term community employment. The scores of long-term employed adults may be used as a point of comparison to the results of adults who move from job to job.

If results indicate that individuals do not feel positive about others' perceptions of them (in comparison to the mean Reflected Appraisals score of the research participants), two

interventions may be useful. First, because Reflected Appraisals are based on the individual's perceptions of how others feel about them, sometimes they are accurate, and sometimes they are not; an individual might be encouraged to check the accuracy of his/her perceptions with the respective others. Second, if the perceptions are indeed as suspected by the individual, he/she might be encouraged to focus on the perceptions of those who are proud and supportive of him/her, rather than the perceptions of those who are not.

If results indicate that individuals do not feel positive about their own behavior and its consequences (in comparison to the mean Self-Attribution score of participants), employers/ program personnel might intervene by facilitating success experiences. If, for example, the employee is learning a new task, he/she might spend some of his/her time completing familiar tasks in which he/she has demonstrated prior success.

If results indicate that an individual does not believe that he/she compares well with others and such comparisons are important to him/her (as indicated by comparison with the participant mean score on Social Comparison, and valence of Social Comparison), two interventions are recommended. First, the employee might be helped to understand that such comparisons are not important; he/she might be encouraged to focus on the other two means of self-concept development. Second, the employee might be encouraged to practice more "downward comparison" (Gibbons,1985). For example, rather than comparing him/herself with a colleague who just received a promotion, the employee might instead compare him/herself with individuals who are unemployed. In summary, understanding the means by which successful employees develop their self-concepts facilitates intervention with individuals who have not experienced the same degree of success in the workplace.

Research Limitations

The first research limitation involves the sampling procedures. The randomness of the sample of long-term employed adults is called into question by the method in which the participants were obtained. If we were to obtain a list of all long-term employed adults with mental handicaps in Calgary and then draw a sample from that population, we could be more confident about having a random sample. However, this technique did not appear realistic. There is no central registry of adults with mental handicaps employed in the community. Many employees secured their positions with the help of one or more of a number of programs within the city. Some of the program graduates have remained in contact with program personnel, and others have not. Other employees secured their positions without the help of programs and are thereby even more difficult to locate. While a sample of convenience creates less confidence in the randomness of the sample, it appears to be the only realistic methodology. Notably, there is no reason to believe that the sample is atypical.

A second limitation involves the assumption of social status of jobs. As discussed above, the assumption of job status was formed as follows. First, through prior research, it was established that adults with mental handicaps typically work in entry-level, non- or low-status positions. Second, literature reported that society deems such positions to be low-status. Third, it was assumed that the research participants perceived their positions as low-status. As noted earlier, we do not know the validity of the assumption. It is not clear that the jobs held by research participants were perceived as low-status by adults with mental handicaps, or for that matter, by colleagues without mental handicaps working in the same positions.

A third limitation, or more precisely a caution, involves the retrospective nature of the reasons for accepting employment. Participants were asked to recall their reasons for first accepting their jobs. These reasons were then compared and contrasted to reasons for remaining in their jobs. The question was posed as to whether the reasons were consistent in terms of intra-job/extra-job characteristics. These comparisons must be carefully interpreted. Participants' memories of their reasons for accepting their jobs may have been colored by the intervening experiences over time, and by their reasons for now remaining. Further research may address the query as to the accuracy of retrospective reasons for accepting jobs, by asking another group their reasons upon accepting their positions, and then comparing the two sets of responses.

A related limitation concerns reliability of reasons for employment, and of self-concept scores. No test-retest reliability checks were undertaken. Although the reasons appear to be sincere, we do not know whether participants would offer the same reasons if asked on another occasion. We also do not know whether they would obtain the same scores on measures of self-concept

Areas for Further Exploration

The research raises a number of questions which warrant further research. The first set of questions concern perceived status of occupations. Do adults with mental handicaps perceive their jobs as high- or low-status? What about the positions held by other adults with mental handicaps? If some of the positions are perceived as high-status and others as low-status, what characteristics determine the designation? Do perceptions of status change throughout the duration of employ? Do the perceptions of job status held by adults with mental handicaps differ from the perceptions of job-status held by adults without mental handicaps?

The second set of questions could be directed to long-term employed adults with mental handicaps. The participants might be asked how long they were intending to remain working in their positions. Rather than deriving recommendations from reasons for employment, participants might be asked what might make their jobs better, and/or what they would recommend to employees, employers, and/or supported employment program personnel to promote employment longevity. A more qualitative profile of self-concept might also have been secured through asking participants to describe themselves and their thoughts and feelings. For example, while the Work Self-Concept Scale provides numerical measures of thoughts and feelings about oneself as an employee within the work setting, qualitative descriptions might have provided insight into the employees' self-perceptions outside of the work setting. Participants might explore how they feel about themselves when others ask them what they do for a living.

The final area of further exploration concerns comparisons between the reasons for employment and self-concepts of various groups. Now that more information has been established concerning the reasons for employment and self-concepts of long-term employed adults with mental handicaps, several comparisons might prove interesting. First, how do the reasons for employment and self-concepts of participants compare to the same variables for colleagues without disabilities in the same place of employ? Second, how do the reasons for employment and self-concepts of participants compare to the same variables for adults with mental handicaps who move through job after job?

The exploratory nature of the research reveals several hypotheses which warrant further investigation. First, the reasons why adults with mental handicaps accept and maintain their jobs are as varied and unique as are the reasons for employment given by adults without disabilities.

Second, the modal reason for accepting jobs among adults with mental handicaps is money.

Third, the modal reason for remaining in jobs among adults with mental handicaps is related to the

interpersonal climate of the workplace. Fourth, personal perception of the social status of one's

job is not correlated to the level of the position (in terms of entry-level versus senior position), nor

the required skill (in terms of non- or low-skill level versus high-skill level). Fifth, the self-

concept of adults with mental handicaps is positively affected by securing and maintaining

community integrated employment. Sixth, adults with mental handicaps in community integrated

employment do not feel that they compare especially well to others, but neither is this social

comparison important to them. Perhaps the perception of social comparison as unimportant is

one of the distinguishing factors between long-term employees with mental handicaps and those

who move through job after job. Seventh, adults with mental handicaps in community integrated

employment feel better about themselves in the ethical, social, and work facets, than in the

physical appearance and athletic facets, and assign importance in the same manner. As self-

concept is a contextual construct, it is hypothesized that the relative rankings would differ

between long-term employed adults with mental handicaps and adults with mental handicaps in

another context. Eighth, it is hypothesized that employees' perceptions of their level of

cooperation at work serve as a distinguishing characteristic between those who maintain

employment for long periods of time, and those who move through job after job.

Conclusion

Thirty-one long-term employed adults with mental handicaps recounted their reasons for

initially accepting and for remaining in their jobs through one-to-one interviews. In addition, they

completed two psychometric self-report instruments. The Work Self-Concept Scale measures

self-concept within the employment context, and the Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale measures principles of self-concept formation (reflected appraisals, social comparison, and self-attribution), facets of self-concept (ethical, social, athletic, physical appearance, and work), and the valence of each. The purpose of the research was to discover reasons why some adults with mental handicaps remain in the same job for many consecutive years.

The research is based on a study by Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982), whose interviews with 144 psychiatric attendants supported their hypothesis that people in low-status occupations accept their employment for reasons which have little to do with the specific job, such as money (extra-job reasons), and then find reasons specific to the job for remaining, such as "humanitarian interest in patients' welfare" (intra-job reasons). Although they did not test the hypothesis, Simpson and Simpson (1959/1982) also suggested that the employees build their self-concepts around their reasons for remaining in their jobs.

Three main questions were posed in the current research - (a) Do the majority of adults with mental handicaps accept their jobs for extra-job reasons?; (b) Do the majority of adults with mental handicaps who have maintained employment for a minimum of two consecutive years remain for intra-job reasons?, and; (c) Are there significant differences in components of self-concept (facets, principles of formation, valence, and work self-concept) between those adults with mental handicaps who have maintained employment for extra-job reasons and those who have maintained employment for intra-job reasons?

A slight majority of participants gave Extra-Job reasons for accepting employment (58%), of which the modal reason was money (7/31). Approximately half of the participants (52%) gave Intra-Job reasons for remaining in their jobs, of which the modal reason was interpersonal (9/31).

Even though 10% more participants offered Extra-Job reasons for accepting than for remaining in jobs, the shift in reasons over time in terms of Intra-Job/Extra-Job characteristics was not statistically significant. A plausible reason for the lack of difference between reasons for accepting and reasons for remaining in jobs in terms of Intra-Job/Extra-Job characteristics was the perceived social status of the jobs. If the participants did not perceive their jobs to be of low social status, there was no reason to expect that they would have Extra-Job reasons for accepting their jobs, and Intra-Job reasons for remaining.

Seventy-one percent of participants offered consistent reasons for employment over time; they offered Intra-Job reasons for accepting/remaining or Extra-Job reasons for accepting/remaining. There are two plausible explanations for the consistency in reasons - as above, the personal perception of the relative social status of one's job, and the human tendency towards commitment and consistency.

There were no statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores or valence scores of participants who gave Intra-Job reasons versus Extra-Job reasons for remaining in their jobs. The lack of difference is likely due to the homogeneity of the participant group, and the minimal influence of reasons for remaining on the self-concept in comparison to the effects of securing and maintaining community integrated employment.

The current research makes several contributions to the body of literature concerning adults with mental handicaps in community integrated employment. First, the participants are drawn from a Canadian city. Supported employment literature has largely been presented from the perspective of American programs. As such, minimal demographic characteristics are available for Canadian employees with mental handicaps. While a specific group of employees

have been selected for the current research (i.e. employees who have remained in their positions for a minimum of two years), results nevertheless contribute to the picture of employment situations of Canadian adults with mental handicaps.

Second, the current research serves as a vehicle by which long-term employed adults with mental handicaps were able to share their reasons for accepting their jobs, and their reasons for remaining in their jobs. Prior research has explored why adults with mental handicaps lose and/or leave their jobs (eg. Richardson, Koller and Katz, 1990), and why they accept their jobs (eg .Test, Bond Hinson, Solow and Keul, 1993). However, to the researcher's knowledge, no prior studies have examined the employees' reasons for remaining in their jobs.

Third, the research contributes to a self-concept profile of long-term employed adults. To the researcher's knowledge, no prior research has measured self-concept of this particular population. Above and beyond simply measuring self-concept, the current research used tools which provide scores in relation to three principles of self-concept formation, five facets, the valence of each, and a measure of work self-concept.

REFERENCES

Bell, R. G. (1988). Achievement of independent employment by a severely mentally handicapped

person: Programme description and analysis of cost-benefit. *Journal of Practical*

Approaches to Developmental Handicap, 12(1), 9-15.

Berendsen, W. C. (1966). Sheltered workshops for the mentally retarded in Canada-Part II.

Mental Retardation, 16(1), 3-10.

Bissonnette, D. (1994). *Beyond Traditional Job Development*. Chatsworth, CA: Milt Wright &

Associates.

Boersma, F. J., Chapman, J. W., & Battle, J. (1979). Academic self-concept change in special

education students: Some suggestions for interpreting self-concept scores. *The Journal*

of Special Education, 13(4), 433-442.

Chadsey-Rusch, J., Gonzalez, P., Tines, J., & Johnson, J.R. (1989). Social ecology of the

workplace: Contextual variables affecting social interactions of employees with and

without mental retardation. *American Journal on Mental Retardation, 94*(2), 141-151.

Cialdini, R. B. (1988). *Influence: Science and practice* (2nd ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Condeluci, A. (1992). Why community factors? *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation, 2*(3), 3-5.

Dore, L. (1987). Stand on your own two feet. *Entourage, 2*(4), 36-41.

Durand, J., & Neufeldt, A. H. (1980). Comprehensive vocational services. In R. J. Flynn &

K. E. Nitsch (Ed.), *Normalization, social integration, and community services* (pp. 283-

297). Baltimore, MA: University Park Press. (Reprinted from Comprehensive vocational

service systems (Monograph No. 4), 1975, National Institute on Mental Retardation)

Fabian, E. S., Edelman, A., & Leedy, M. (1993). Linking workers with severe disabilities to social

supports in the workplace: Strategies for addressing barriers. *Journal of Rehabilitation*,

July, Aug., Sept., 29-34.

Franken, R. E. (1988). *Human Motivation* (2nd ed.). California: Brooks/Cole.

Gecas, V. (1982). The self-concept. *Annual Review of Sociology, 8*, 1-33.

Gerdtz, J. (1993). *A Guide to Mental Retardation*. New York: The Crossroad Publishing

Company.

Gibbons, F. X. (1985). Stigma perception: Social comparison among mentally retarded persons.

American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 90(1), 98-106.

Glass, G. V., & Hopkins, K. D. (1984). *Statistaical methods in education and psychology*

(2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Goffman, E. (1982). On face-work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. In

M. Rosenberg & H. Kaplan (Eds.), *Social psychology of the self-concept* (pp. 109-121).

Illinois: Harlan Davidson. (Reprinted from *Psychiatry*, 1955, *18*, 213-231)

Gold, M. W. (1980). *Try another way: Training manual*. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Gorrell, J. (1990). Some contributions of self-efficacy research to self-concept theory. *Journal of*

Research and Development in Education, 23(2), 73-81.

Griffin, L., & Lowry, J. (1989). Supported employment for persons with deaf-blindness and

mental retardation. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, Dec.*, 495-499.

Health and Welfare Canada, and Employment and Immigration Canada. (1989). Employment

policies for people with disabilities (Research Rep.). Ottawa, ON: Author.

Hill, M. L., Banks, D., Handrich, R. R., Wehman, P. H., Hill, J. W., & Shafer, M. S. (1987). Benefit-cost analysis of supported competitive employment for persons with mental retardation. *Research in Developmental Disabilities, 8,* 71-89.

Hines, L. L., Durham, T. W., & Geoghegan, G. R. (1991). Work self-concept: The development of a scale. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality, 6*(4), 815-832.

Jahoda, A., Markova, I., & Cattermole, M. (1988). Stigma and the self-concept of people with a mild mental handicap. *Journal of Mental Deficiency Research, 32*(2), 103-115.

Kearney, M. J., & Kearney, J. F. (1983). Investigation of sex difficulties and consistency of factor pattern on the adult Nowicki-Strickland internal-external control scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 39*(3), 416-421.

Marlett, N. J., & Day, H. I. (1984). Employment options. In N. J. Marlett, R. Gall, & A. Wight-Felske (Eds.), *Dialogue on disability: A Canadian perspective* (pp. 85-110). Calgary, AB: The University of Calgary Press.

Marsh, H. W. (1990). A multidimensional, hierarchical model of self-concept: theoretical and empirical justification. *Educational Psychology Review,* 2(2), 77-172.

McCoshen, A. D. (1974). The economic feasibility of the sheltered workshop. *Mental Retardation, 24*(4), 2-7.

McGarrity, M. (1993). *A Guide to Mental Retardation.* New York: The Crossroad Publishing Company.

Mendaglio, S., & Pyryt, M. C. (1995). Self-concept of gifted students: Assessment-based intervention. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 27*(3), 40-45.

Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case Study Research in Education: A Qualitative Approach.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moseley, C. R. (1988). Job satisfaction research: Implications for supported employment. *JASH*, *13*(3), 211-219.

Mozingo, D., Ackley, G. B. E., & Bailey, J. S. (1994). Training quality job interviews with adults with developmental disabilities. *Research in Developmental Disabilities, 15*(5), 389-410.

Nanus, B. (1980). Living and working in the year 2000: Some implications for mental retardation policy. In S. C. Plog & M. B. Santamour (Eds.), *The Year 2000 and Mental Retardation* (pp. 71-96). New York: Plenum Press.

National Institute on Mental Retardation. (1977). *Orientation manual on mental retardation.* Downsview, ON: Author.

Neufeldt, A. H., & Mathieson, R. (in press). *Empirical dimensions of discrimination against disabled people.*

Neufeldt, A. H., & Friio, S. (1994, December). Rights, equity and employment of disabled persons in Canada. Paper presented at the meeting of the European Centre for Social Welfare Policy and Research, Vienna.

Parent, W. S., Kregel, J., Metzler, H. M. D., & Twardzik, G. (1992). Social integration in the workplace: An analysis of the interaction activities of workers with mental retardation and their co-workers. *Education and Training in Mental Retardation, March*, 28-38.

Pyryt, M. C., & Mendaglio, S. (1994). The multidimensional self-concept: A comparison of gifted and average-ability adolescents. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 17*(3), 299-305.

Reiter, S., & Levi, A. M. (1980). Factors affecting social integration of noninstitutionalized mentally retarded adults. *American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 85*(1), 25-30.

Rice, D. G. (1964). Adult worshops in institutions. *Mental Retardation, 14*(1), 24-27.

Richardson, S. A., Koller, H., & Katz, M. (1988). Job histories in open employment of a population of young adults with mental retardation: I. *American Journal on Mental Retardation, 92*(6), 483-491.

Richardson, S. A., Koller, H., & Katz, M. (1990). Job histories in open employment of a population of young adults with mental retardation. In W. I. Fraser (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Eighth Congress of the International Association for the Scientific Study of Mental Deficiency* (pp. 449-459). London: Routledge.

Ridgely, M. (1992). Beyond vocational services: Looking to community. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation, 2*(3), 18-24.

Robbins, S. P. (1994). *Essentials of organizational behavior* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Rockel, K. (1978). Developing an industrial/commercial model of vocational services for handicapped persons. *Mental Retardation, 28*(1), 3-19.

Rosenberg, M. (1989). Self-concept research: A historical overview. *Social Forces, 68*(1), 34-44.

Rosenberg, M., & Kaplan, H. B. (1982). Principles of self-concept formation: Introduction. In Author (Eds.), *Social psychology of the self-concept.* (pp. 174-178). Illinois: Harlan Davidson.

Rusch, F. R., Wilson, P. G., Hughes, C., & Heal, L. (1994). Matched-pairs analysis of co-worker interactions in relation to opportunity, type of job, and placement approach. *Mental Retardation, 32*(2), 113-122.

Santrock, J. W. (1985). *Adult development and aging.* Dubuque, IA: Wm C. Brown.

Schalock, R. L., McGaughey, M .J., & Kiernan, W. E. (1989). Placement into nonsheltered

employment: Findings from national employment surveys. *American Journal of Mental

Retardation, 94*(1), 80-87.

Shafer, M. S., Banks, D., & Kregel, J. (1991). Employment retention and career movement

among individuals with mental retardation working in supported employment. *Mental

Retardation, 29*(2), 103-110.

Shafer, M. S., Hill, J., Seyfarth, J., & Wehman, P. (1987). Competitive employment and workers

with mental retardation: Analysis of employers' perceptions and experiences. *American

Journal of Mental Retardation, 92*(3), 304-311.

Simpson, R. L., & Simpson, I. H. (1982). The psychiatric attendant: Development of occupational

self-image in a low-status occupation. In M. Rosenberg & H. Kaplan (Eds.), *Social

psychology of the self-concept* (pp.401-406). Illinois: Harlan Davidson. (Reprinted from

American Sociological Review, 1959, 389-392)

Stebbins, R. A. (1987). *Sociology: The Study of Society*. New York: Harper & Row.

Sylvestre, J. C., & Gottlieb, B. H. (1992). A critical appraisal of supported employment for

persons with developmental disabilities. *Developmental Disabilities Bulletin, 20*(2),

24-38.

Test, D. W., Bond Hinson, K., Solow, J., & Keul, P. (1993). Job satisfaction of persons in

supported employment. *Education and Training in Mental Retardation, Mar.*, 38-46.

The Roeher Institute. (1992). *On Target?: Canada's Employment-Related Programs for Persons

with Disabilities*. North York, ON: Canadian Cataloguing in Publication Data.

Tymchuk, A. J. (1991). Self-concepts of mothers who show mental retardation. *Psychological Reports, 68*, 503-510.

Wallerstein, H. (1965). *The penguin dictionary of psychology* (rev. ed.). New York: Penguin.

Wehman, P., Hill, J. W., Wood, W., & Parent, W. (1987). A report on competitive employment histories of persons labelled severely mentally retarded. *JASH, 12*(1), 11-17.

Wehman, P., & Kregel, J. (1985). A supported work approach to competitive employment of individuals with moderate and severe handicaps. *JASH, 10*(1), 3-11.

Wehman, P., & Parent, W. (1992). Chapter 15: Critical issues in planning vocational services in the 1990s. In L. Rowitz (Ed.), *Mental Retardation in the Year 2000* (pp. 251-267). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Widaman, K. F., MacMillan, D. L., Hemsley, R. E., Little, T. D., & Balow, I. H. (1992). Difference in adolescents' self-concept as a function of academic level, ethnicity, and gender. *American Journal on Mental Retardation, 96*(4), 387-404.

Wolfensberger, W. (1972). *The Principle of Normalization in Human Services*. Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation.

Yan, X., Mank, D., Sandow, D. Rhodes, L., & Olson, D. (1993). Co-workers' perceptions of an employee with severe disabilities: An analysis of social interactions in a work setting. *JASH, 18*(4), 282-291.

APPENDIX ONE

Consent for Research Participation

I ___(name of participant)___,
consent to participate as a subject in the research project entitled "Work Self-Concept of Long-Term Employed Adults with Mental Handicaps" conducted by Shelley Kinash, under the supervision of Dr. Aldred Neufeldt, of the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Calgary.

I understand that the study will involve about 45 minutes of my time.

The general plan of the study has been outlined to me.

I understand that the study will involve answering questions about how I think and feel about myself and reasons for being at my job.

I understand that my participation is completely voluntary, and I am free to withdraw from the study at any time I choose, without penalty.

I understand that the results of this project will be coded in such a way that my identity will not be linked to the final data that is produced. The key listing my name and code number will be kept separate from the data in a locked file accessible only to Shelley Kinash and Dr. Aldred Neufeldt.

I understand that the results of this research may be published or reported to government agencies, funding agencies, or scientific groups, but my name will not be associated in any way with any published results.

I understand that if at any time I have questions, I can contact Shelley Kinash at 276-1872, or Dr. Aldred Neufeldt, Supervisor at 220-7347, or Dr. C.J. Gordon, Associate Dean at 220-5626, or Office of the Vice-President (Research) at 220-3381

Signature of Participant: _____

Signature of Guardian (if applicable): _____

Signature of Witness: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX TWO

Introduction to Study

Work Self-Concept of Long-Term Employed Adults
With Mental Handicaps

VOLUNTEERS WANTED

Have you been working at the same place
for two years or longer?

If so, Shelley Kinash would like to talk with you.

Shelley Kinash is a graduate student at the University of Calgary.
She is working on her thesis and needs your help.

Shelley would like to learn more about how people feel about their jobs. Many workers stay in their jobs for a very short time. Moving from job to job causes problems. If you have been working at the same job for two years or longer you can help. Shelley would like to find out how to help other people stay in their jobs for a longer time. You can help us by answering questions about how you feel about yourself and your work, as well as your reasons for taking and staying in your job.

Answering the questions will take one meeting lasting about 45 minutes.
Shelley will meet you wherever you are most comfortable
(eg. at your home, at a coffee shop, etc.)

Shelley will be using three sets of questions. The sets of questions are from the:
Work Self-Concept Scale; Pyryt-Mendaglio Self Perception Scale, and; Reasons for Accepting and Maintaining Employment Questionnaire.

Shelley will ask you each of the questions out-loud and then write down your answers. Shelley will also be tape recording your answers to the "Reasons for Accepting and Maintaining Employment Questionnaire." The reason she will be taping your answers is so that she can record your answer word-for-word. After we are finished she will listen to the tape and type your answers. She will be the only person listening to the tape.

Please note that anonymity of participants and confidentiality will be maintained throughout and following the study. Names and identities will not be revealed during or following the study. The results of this project will be coded in such a way that participants' identities will not be linked to the final data that is produced. The key listing participants' names and code numbers will be kept separate from the data in a locked file accessible only to Shelley Kinash and Dr. Aldred Neufeldt.

APPENDIX TWO CONTINUED

If you agree to participate in this study, Shelley would like to invite you to a workshop about Self-Concept and Work once the study is completed. Shelley will share what she found in this study with you at that time. Shelley will phone you as soon as the date has been set.

If you have any questions or concerns, you may phone any of the following:
1. Shelley Kinash, Researcher   276-1872;
2. Dr. Aldred Neufeldt, Supervisor   220-7347;
3. Dr. C. J. Gordon, Associate Dean   220-5626, or;
4. Office of the Vice-President (Research)   220-3381.

Please note that your participation is completely optional. You are under no obligation to meet with Shelley or to answer any questions.

APPENDIX THREE

Subject Demographics Form

1.   Code Number   _____

2.   Subject Name   _____

3.   Phone Number   _____

4.   Address   _____

                            _____

5.   Guardian Name   _____

6.   Phone Number   _____

7.   Meeting Place   _____

8.   Subject Age   _____

9.   Gender   _____

10. Place of Employ   _____

11. Occ. Type   _____

12. Start Date   _____

13. Agency   _____

APPENDIX FOUR

Reasons for Accepting and Maintaining Employment Questionnaire

1. When did you get your job at [name of employment site]?

2. How long have you been working at [name of employment site]?

3. How did you get your job at [name of employment site]?

4. What were your reasons for taking your job at [name of employment site]?

5. Which was the most important reason?

6. What are your reasons for continuing to work at [name of employment site]?

7. Which is the most important reason?

APPENDIX FIVE

Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale

<u>Valence</u>

Please rate the importance of each of the following areas

1=very important   2=important   3=not important

A.1. Others thinking I do well at work.

A.2. Others thinking that I get along well with people.

A.3. Others thinking that I do well in sports.

A.4. Others thinking that I am good looking.

A.5. Others thinking that I am trust worthy.

B.1. Doing better than others at work.

B.2. Getting along better with people than others.

B.3. Doing better in sports than others.

B.4. Being better looking than others.

B.5. Being more trust worthy than others.

C.1. Doing well at work.

C.2. Getting along with people.

C.3. Doing well in sports.

C.4. Being good looking.

C.5. Being trust worthy.

APPENDIX FIVE CONTINUED

Please indicate which response best reflects the extent of your agreement with the statement.

SD=strongly agree   A=agree   D=disagree   SD=strongly disagree

1.   I think that my mother thinks that I am good looking.

2.   I think that my father thinks that I am trust worthy. ·

3.   I think that my employer thinks that I so well at work.

4.   I think that my best friend thinks that I do well at sports.

5.   I think that my mother thinks that I get along well with people.

6.   I think that my father thinks that I do well at work.

7.   I think that my employer thinks that I am good looking.

8.   I think that my best friend thinks that I get along well with people.

9.   I think that my mother thinks that I do well at sports.

10.   I think that my father thinks that I get along well with people.

11.   I think that my employer thinks that I am trust worthy.

12.   I think that my best friend thinks that I am good looking.

13.   I think that my mother thinks that I am trust worthy.

14.   I think that my father thinks that I am good looking.

15.   I think that my employer thinks that I do well at sports.

16.   I think that my best friend thinks that I do well at work.

17.   I think that my mother thinks that I do well at work.

18.   I think that my father thinks that I do well at sports.

19.   I think that my employer thinks that I get along well with people.

APPENDIX FIVE CONTINUED

20. I think that my best friend thinks that I am trust worthy.

21. I do better at sports than other adults my age.

22. I am more trust worthy than other adults my age.

23. I get along better with people than most adults my age.

24. I do better at work than other adults my age.

25. I am better looking than other adults my age.

26. When I do well at work, it is because of my ability.

27. When I do the right thing, it is because I am trust worthy.

28. When I get along with people, it is because of my social ability.

29. When I am complimented on my physical appearance, it is because I am good looking.

30. When I do well at sports, it is because of my athletic ability.

APPENDIX SIX

Work Self-Concept Scale
by Larry L. Hines
East Carolina University

Please enter the following information:
ID#:_____ Sex:___
Job Title:_____
Age:___

Instructions: Below is a list of statements that describe feelings people have. Please read each one carefully. Circle the letter to the left of the items which best describes HOW YOU HAVE BEEN FEELING DURING THE PAST WEEK INCLUDING TODAY. Use the following scale:

a. completely false
b. mostly false
c. partly false & partly true
d. mostly true
e. completely true

a b c d e   1. I take pride in my work.

a b c d e   2. When my supervisor tells me to do something, I do it.

a b c d e   3. I look forward to leaving work.

a b c d e   4. I like most people.

a b c d e   5. My supervisor thinks highly of my work.

a b c d e   6. I ask for extra work.

a b c d e   7. I take responsibility for my work.

a b c d e   8. I follow directions well.

a b c d e   9. I am a responsible person.

a b c d e   10. I try to understand the point of view of others.

a b c d e   11. It is necessary to work hard in order to get ahead.

a b c d e   12. Usually, I do my share of the work.

a b c d e   13. I try to understand all aspects of my job.

a b c d e   14. I follow rules and regulations.

a b c d e   15. I am a reliable person.

a b c d e   16. I often act on impulses without thinking through the consequences.

a b c d e   17. My job is important to me.

a b c d e   18. I am a cooperative person.

a b c d e   19. I am an honest person.

a b c d e   20. I get along with most people.

a b c d e   21. I'd rather be working than not working.

a b c d e   22. I am confident that I can meet the challenges of my job.

a b c d e   23. I work well under pressure.

a b c d e   24. I take frequent breaks.

a b c d e   25. I change jobs frequently.

a b c d e   26. I have good self-control.

a b c d e   27. There have been times when it was necessary to out smart my boss.

a b c d e   28. I am trustworthy.

a b c d e   29. I treat others the way I want to be treated.

a b c d e   30. I have gotten the promotions I deserve.

a b c d e   31. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do.

a b c d e   32. My supervisor does not give me the credit I deserve.

a b c d e   33. I usually expect to succeed in the things I do.

a b c d e   34.I have had disagreements with my supervisor.

a b c d e   35.I am cooperative with my coworkers.

a b c d e   36.Most people are deserving of my respect.

a b c d e   37.I always do a good job.

a b c d e   38.I have gotten the raises I deserve.

a b c d e   39.I do only what is required of me.

a b c d e   40.I often feel that I am all thumbs.

a b c d e   41.I am punctual.

a b c d e   42.I look forward to coming to work.

a b c d e   43.I am able to be nice even though I'm upset or angry.

a b c d e   44.I am cooperative with my supervisor.

a b c d e   45.I am able to do things as well as most other people.

APPENDIX SEVEN

Instrument Score Sheets

Participant Code Number: _____

Date: _____

Notes/Observations: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Order of Instrument Administration (Determined by Random Number Table)

___ Work Self-Concept Scale

___ Pyryt-Mendaglio Self-Perception Scale

___ Reasons for Accepting and Maintaining Employment Questionnaire