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REDUCING ECONOMIC DISPARITIES FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS: THE OXFORD HOUSE MODEL

Sarah L. Callahan
DePaul University, CALLAHANSARAH@YAHOO.COM

DEPAUL UNIVERSITY

REDUCING ECONOMIC DISPARITIES FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS: THE OXFORD HOUSE MODEL

A THESIS TO BE SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE COLLEGE OF SCIENCE AND HEALTH

FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS IN

COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

BY

SARAH CALLAHAN

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Abstract

Background: Incarceration facilitates labor market stratification, and in the past 30 years the rate of increase in incarceration for females who abuse substances has outpaced that of men. These women face multiple barriers to economic mobility and are at increased risk of returning to the criminal justice system. Despite the difficulties that these women face, past research suggests that there is a positive relationship between living in Oxford House and an increase in employment wages, yet the impact of having a criminal history on this relationship was unknown. **Method:** This study used a nationwide sample of 136 women living in Oxford Houses in a Moderated regression analysis with length of stay in Oxford House predicting employment wages, and moderated by criminal history. **Results:** Our analysis revealed there was an overall positive relationship between length of stay in Oxford House and employment wages. Additionally, criminal history modified the association between length of stay and employment wages, and length of stay had a significantly greater impact on employment wages for women with criminal convictions. **Implications:** The findings provide a needed contribution to criminological and economic literature by identifying a setting that decreases economic disparities for formerly incarcerated women. Results can inform future policy, research, and the development of gender sensitive aftercare programs, assisting transitioning women in reentering mainstream society, and increasing their chances of obtaining and retaining employment.

The rate of incarceration in the United States has increased over 430% since 1978, leaving millions of citizens returning to communities with the burden of a criminal record (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2013). The unprecedented increase in our jail and prison populations can largely be attributed to the war on drugs (Pettit & Western, 2004), and over 70% of state and federal inmates have been convicted of non-violent and/or drug related offenses (Blumstein, 2015; Lynch & Pridemore, 2011). Further, though the number of incarcerated women is significantly lower than that of men, females who abuse substances are the fastest growing population in the criminal justice system (West, 2010). National justice statistics show that from 1990 to 2012, female incarceration increased by 130%, while the male incarceration rate increased by 93% (Glaze & Herberman, 2013).

Incarceration is a powerful enforcer of labor market stratification, as ex-offenders have a decreased likelihood of employment and suffer significant wage penalties from employers (Pettit & Lyons, 2009). Studies show that formerly incarcerated women earn considerably lower wages, and have higher unemployment rates than their male counterparts (Prendergast, Messina, Hall, & Warda 2011). Women are particularly disadvantaged in labor markets given supply side barriers like high rates of psychiatric and substance abuse disorders, and demand side barriers like stigma and negative attitudes towards ex-offenders (Raphael & Stoll, 2013; Uggen, Manza & Thompson, 2006), which compromise their readiness and ability to work (McClellan, Farabee & Crouch, 1997). Most jobs they do obtain pay very low wages without opportunity for upward mobility. In these circumstances, many women may simply choose to forego these employment options in favor of illegal opportunities, and multiple studies have found a negative relationship between employment wages, crime, and recidivism (Duwe & Clark, 2014; Nally, Lockwood, Snutsen, & Ho, 2014; Richmond, 2013).

Criminological studies have found that higher wages and quality of employment are more strongly associated with positive post incarceration outcomes than the mere presence or absence of a job (Duwe, 2014; Uggen, 1999). For example, Ospal (2012) found in a longitudinal study of formerly incarcerated women that participants used employment as a way to reestablish a positive identity, but women who did not obtain steady, well paying employment were more likely to return to deviant behavior. Johnson (2014) explored economic barriers to employment for women exiting the justice system. The study found that low, stagnant wages were a significant barrier to reentry for women, affecting their ability to obtain suitable housing, regain custody of dependents, and meet the requirements of their parole. To this end, well paying jobs with opportunity for increases in wage are necessary to reduce recidivism and provide women with the resources that they need to support themselves and achieve upward social and economic mobility.

Studies also show that most women who have been incarcerated return to their original community upon release, and these communities are usually low income and high crime, with a lack of employment opportunities (Scott, Grella, Dennis & Funk, 2014); and to social networks that provide little segue to employment in the private sector (Richardson, Wood, & Kerr, 2013). Thus, both geospatial effects on employment and weak networks and contacts facilitate employment difficulties for returning women. These findings underscore the importance of promoting innovative settings that remove the above labor market barriers and help to increase employment wages for women who have been incarcerated.

Oxford House is one such setting that has consistently shown to have positive employment and recovery outcomes (Jason, Olson, Foli, 2014). These settings are grassroots, democratically run sober living environments for individuals returning to the community. It is

the largest single network of recovery houses in the United States, with more than 10,000 individuals living in approximately 1700 houses (Oxford House Inc., 2013). The houses are usually located in middle-class neighborhoods with access to jobs and transportation, allowing residents to live in healthy communities conducive to recovery. The houses are single-sex and house 6 to 12 people, and are affordable at an average rent of $100 per week.

Past studies have found that living in an Oxford House for at least 6 months increases psychosocial outcomes, and the likelihood of abstinence and employment (Gomez, Jason, Contreras, DiGangi, & Ferrari, 2014; Lo Sasso, Byro, Jason, Ferrari, & Olson, 2012). For instance, one study found significant increases after 6 months in abstinence self-efficacy, and percentage of sober members in the individual's social networks (Jason, Light, Stevens, Beers, 2013). A randomized controlled trial that placed participants in either Oxford House or a traditional staffed therapeutic environment found that those assigned to the Oxford House condition received more money from employment, worked more days, and chieved higher continuous sobriety rates than participants in therapeutic communities. (Jason, Olson, & Harvey, 2015).

Although the relationship of length of stay in Oxford House to wage increase and employment attainment have been demonstrated in previous studies, little is known about these associations with regards to women with criminal convictions. Given the importance of employment wages for reducing recidivism in women with a history of substance abuse, it is important to understand the effect of length of stay on employment wages post incarceration. The modeling of these variables to explain settings that promote economic mobility for criminal justice system involved women in recovery is important for addiction recovery, microeconomic, and criminological research. It is clear that criminal history is often a steadfast barrier to

employment and economic mobility. Also, it is understood that length of stay in Oxford House positively correlates with employment wages. However, the extent to which criminal history moderates the relationship between length of stay and employment wages is unclear. Accordingly, this study tested the hypothesis that the relationship between length of stay in Oxford House and employment wages is moderated by criminal history.

Method

Participants

Participants were 151 female Oxford House residents from various Oxford Houses throughout the United States. Before participating in this study, participants had been living in Oxford House for an average of 1.8 years, and 79% of the sample reported having criminal convictions. For this analysis, we used data for 135 of the 151 participants that were sampled. We eliminated 16 of the 151 participants for the regression analysis who were missing responses to the dependent variable, or who were retired, or on social security or disability. Demographic information for the sample is provided in Table 1.

Procedures

Approval from the DePaul Institutional Review board was obtained before beginning this study. This project used cross-sectional data collected at the 2013 Oxford House World Convention in Washington, D.C. during a women's only portion of the conference. Participants were treated according to APA recommendations for the responsible conduct of research. Participants were entered into a raffle to win a mini iPad for participating. Participation was self-report, completely voluntary, with names omitted from surveys to ensure participant anonymity.

Measures

The questionnaire included demographics and scales to assess constructs for other hypotheses that are not related to this project (*see* Campagna, Wilson, Callahan, Jason, 2015). Length of stay in Oxford House (LOS) was a stand-alone continuous variable that asked participants to detail the amount of time that they had been living in an Oxford House in years and months. Criminal history was a stand-alone question that was dichotomous and indicated if the participant had ever been convicted of a felony. Finally, 30-day employment wages is a continuous variable that indicates how much money the participant has earned from employment in the last 30 days.

Data Analysis

During data screening the distribution for the dependent variable 30-day employment wages was positively skewed. As such, the dependent variable was transformed using a natural log function (Manning, 1998). After log-transformation, wage showed an approximately normal distribution. After data screening, the relationships of predictor variables including LOS and Criminal History with logged employment income were examined in bivariate analysis. Next, after centering the criminal history and LOS predictors and computing the criminal history by LOS interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991), the predictors and their interaction were simultaneously entered into a regression model to investigate whether having a criminal history modified the association between LOS in Oxford House and income from employment after controlling for age, race, and education. Non-significant predictors were removed from the original model (age, race, education), and a final, reduced model was tested with LOS, convictions, and the LOS by convictions interaction term predicting log transformed 30-day employment wages.

Results

Participants

Selected demographics and mean scores on the independent variables for women with and without convictions, as well as the overall sample are included in Table 1. Descriptive analysis revealed that the sample was 80% European-American, 10% African-American, 5% Latino, and 5% participants from other ethnicities. Participants had a mean age of 38; an average of 8 convictions, an average LOS in Oxford house of 1.8 years, and 74% of the sample was employed. Significant differences emerged between log of 30-day employment income for women with and without criminal convictions. No other significant differences emerged between groups.

Regression Model

The full regression model is shown in Table 2. Results indicated that having a criminal history was associated with lower income from employment, $b = -.91$, $t = -2.5$, $p = .01$. The interaction between having a criminal history and LOS in Oxford House was also significant, $b = .52$, $t = 1.94$, $p = .05$, suggesting that the effect of LOS in Oxford House on income from employment was modified by criminal history. Simple slopes for the association between lengths of stay in Oxford House on incomes from employment were tested for women with and without criminal histories. Both of the simple slopes revealed a positive association between time in Oxford House and employment income. However, LOS was significantly related to employment income for women with criminal convictions, such that every 1-unit increase in the average LOS resulted in a 67% increase in the average wage, $b = .67$, $t = 2.73$, $p < .01$. The simple slopes model is shown in Table 3, and Figure 1 plots the simple slopes for the interaction.

Discussion

Our findings support our hypothesis that the relationship between LOS in Oxford House and 30 day income from employment is moderated by criminal history. We found that women without criminal histories earned higher incomes from employment than women who had been convicted of a felony. However, LOS in Oxford House had a significant impact on wage for women with criminal convictions, over and above that of women without convictions.

In the literature, having a criminal history is consistently associated with stagnant earnings (Harding, 2003; Holzer, Raphael, & Stoll, 2003; Travis, Solomon, & Waul, 2001), which is a barrier to economic mobility. Given the excessive increase in incarcerated women in the United States, this presents a systemic economic issue that facilitates labor market stratification and marginalizes individuals and groups. For female offenders with a history of substance abuse, economic mobility is seldom attainable. Yet, for women in Oxford House, some barriers to obtaining employment and wage mobility seem to be able to be overcome.

Employers are often reluctant to hire individuals with criminal records, and those released from prison usually go back to poor neighborhoods with few employment options (Fletcher, 2001; Pettit & Lyons, 2009; Tschopp, Perkins, Hart, Born, Holt, 2007). Further, individuals coming out of prison lack skills and work experience, and a depreciation of social capital, making potential employers more difficult to reach through social networks (Harding, 2003). Yet, past research on the benefits of the Oxford House model allow us to make many inferences as to why formerly incarcerated women can overcome these barriers to employment. First, most Oxford Houses are located in middle-class neighborhoods with access to transportation and employment (Harvey, Mortenson, Aase, Jason, & Ferrari, 2013), which provides an environment with more opportunity than the typical neighborhoods that women are

released into. Further, some studies show that employers express more interest in hiring ex-offenders when they are aware of services being obtained from intermediary agencies, or if they have had drug treatment (Holzer et al., 2003; Stone, 2000). Though we do not know if the women in our study disclosed their residency status in Oxford House to their employers, it seems possible that their involvement helps to assuage potential employers concerns.

The social network and psychosocial benefits of living in an Oxford House may have helped these women to obtain significant wage increases. Though not directly measured in this study, past research shows that Oxford House resident's social networks improve with at least 6 months stay, and that self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-regulation increase with LOS as well (Majer, Glantsman, Palmer, & Jason, 2014; Majer, Olson, Komer, & Jason, 2015; Stone, Jason, Stevens, & Light, 2014). These results show that residents with at least 6 months stay have healthier personal and social components, which have been found aid employment outcomes in both healthy and at-risk populations (Calvó-Armengol, & Zenou, 2005; Reisig, Holtfreter, & Morash, 2002).

This study is not without limitations. First, the racial breakdown of the sample is skewed Caucasian. In the literature, we know that African American and other minority groups are at increased disadvantage in labor markets (Pager, 2003), so the predominantly white sample could have experienced less barriers to employment and wage increase. However, we did control for race in our original model, and that result was non-significant. Additionally, there were no significant differences in racial distribution between the convicted and non-convicted groups. Also, as this is a cross-sectional study, causality cannot be inferred. Finally, this sample was collected from a national sample at a recovery conference that is often self-funded by current participants, houses, and alumni. As such, this is not just a convenience sample, but a sample

limited to those who can afford to and want to participate in this event. However, we do know that many houses will fund new residents to attend, and we see evidence of newer residents in the sample though the range of the LOS variable.

From this study we have learned that LOS in Oxford House has a significant impact on income for women with criminal convictions. Though there was an overall positive relationship between LOS and income for women with and without convictions, there was a significant difference in the slopes of the two groups. Thus, we infer that Oxford House has a larger economic impact for women who are at greater risk for experiencing socioeconomic disparities. This is an important finding for criminological and economic research, and shows that entrée into supportive and cohesive settings like Oxford House can aid our most needy and vulnerable of citizens in overcoming barriers and achieving upward economic mobility after incarceration, despite the harsh social and economic state of our country.

Future research should investigate the processes by which employment attainment and wage increase occurs in Oxford House. We understand there are many benefits of staying in Oxford House from past research, but it would be useful to delineate the functions by which employment attainment and wage increase occurs in these settings, so to provide empirical evidence that can be replicated in other service delivery and aftercare programs. Specifically, employment attainment through Oxford House related social networks, disclosure of Oxford House residency to employers, and the correlation between increases in psychosocial variables and employment wages in Oxford House residents should be examined.

The disconcerting increase in incarceration rates for women with a history of substance abuse translates to increased disadvantage and marginalization of women in the United States, and increased risk of intergenerational immobility for their dependents. Given the growing

numbers of women with criminal histories, the increasing gap between the rich and the poor, and the steady eradication of the middle class over the last 30 years, there is a critical need for political and institutional initiatives aimed at increasing employment and wages for women so to counteract the negative effects of incarceration and reduce recidivism.

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Table 1.

Socio-demographic variables of participants (Demographic Questionnaire)

	Total (*N*=151)	Convictions (*N*=120)	No Convictions (*N*=31)
		M (*SD*)	
Age [a]	38.37 (*11.24*)	37.94 (*10.45*)	39.74 (*13.86*)
LOS in Oxford House (years)[b]	1.82 (*1.98*)	1.78 (*1.99*)	1.90 (*2.02*)
Log of employment income[c]	4.20 (*4.34*)	3.71 (*4.49*)	6.17 (*3.05*)*
		% *(n)*	
Education completed			
High School or GED	25.8 (*39*)	25.8 (*31*)	25.8 (*8*)
Some College or Vocational	54.3 (*82*)	55.0 (*66*)	51.6 (*16*)
College	19.9 (*30*)	19.2 (*23*)	22.6 (*7*)
Race			
Black/African American	9.3 (*14*)	7.5 (*9*)	16.1 (*5*)
White/Caucasian	83.4 (*126*)	84.2 (*101*)	80.6 (*25*)
Other	7.3 (*11*)	8.3 (*10*)	3.2 (*1*)
Currently Employed	72.8 (*110*)	68.3 (*82*)	90.3 (*28*)*
Women with children[b]	26.4 (*39*)	25.8 (*31*)	25.8 (*8*)

Note: [a]1 missing response [b]3 missing responses [c]12 missing responses; * $p \leq .05$

Table 2.

Moderated regression analysis with logged employment income (N=135)

	B	*S.E.*	*t*	*p*
Constant	6.78	.66	10.12	.00 *
LOS in Oxford House	.15	.23	.67	.49
Convictions	-1.91	.75	-2.5	.01 *
Convictions x LOS in Oxford House	.52	.27	1.94	.05 **

Note: * $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .05$

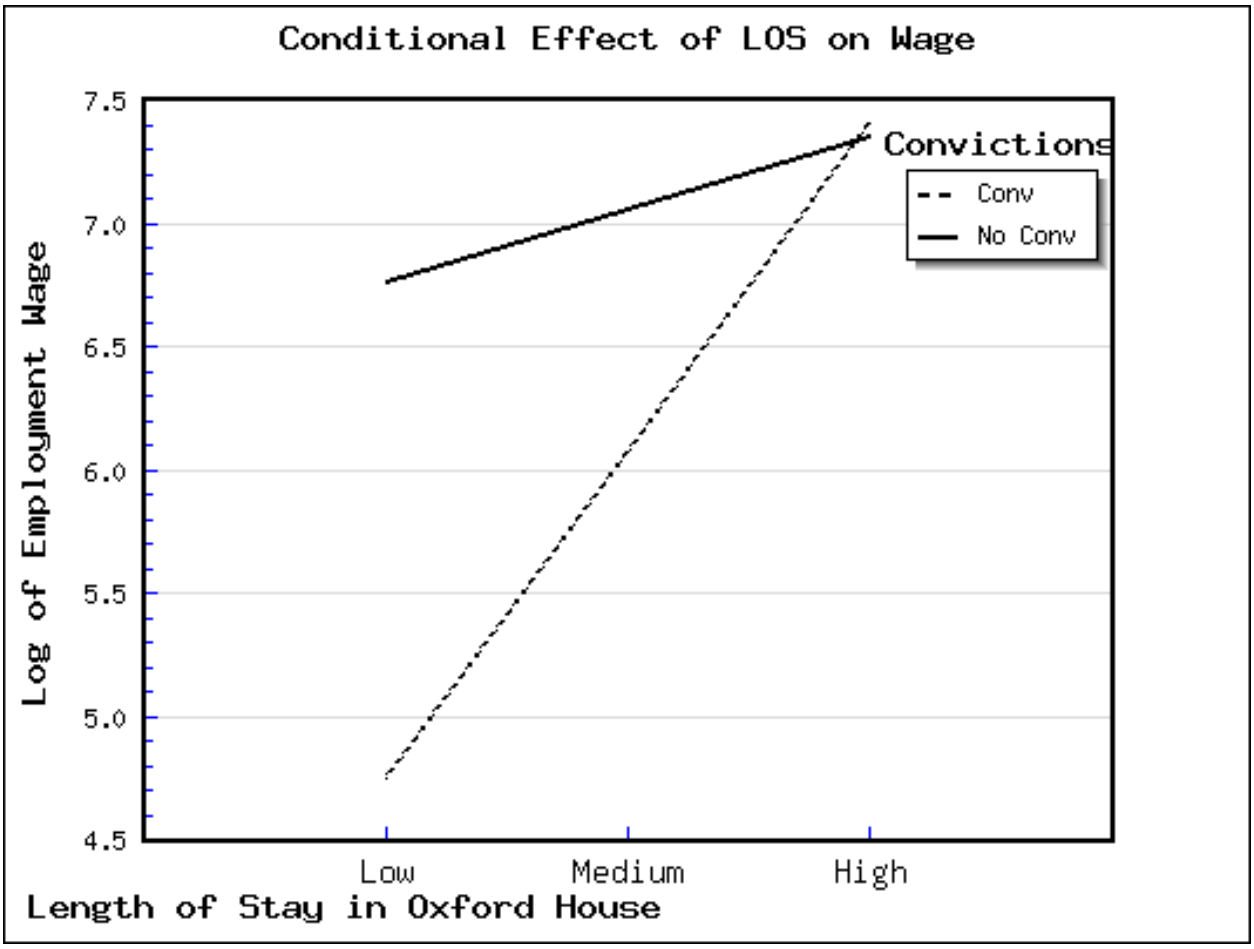
Table 3.

Conditional effect of LOS on Log Income at values of the moderator

	B	*S.E.*	*t*	*p*
No Convictions	.15	.23	.67	.49
Convictions	.67	.13	2.73	.00 *

Note: $^{*}p < .01$

Figure 1.


Conditional Effect of LOS on Wage
Convictions
Conv
No Conv
Log of Employment Wage
7.5
7.0
6.5
6.0
5.5
5.0
4.5
Low
Medium
High
Length of Stay in Oxford House

APPENDIX

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Abstract

Women struggling with substance use disorders face barriers to employment and are at increased risk of being in the criminal justice system. Despite the difficulties that these women face, past research suggests that the employment status of recovering substance abusers is related to positive more favorable life outcomes such as increased social adjustment, increased social and human capital, and higher rates of abstinence. However, for this population, obtaining gainful employment is often determined by personal, environmental, and behavioral factors. The

proposed thesis aims to model the personal, environmental, and behavioral contributors to employment for women in recovery using Structural Equation Modeling. The findings will contribute to social-cognitive literature, and inform future policy, research, and the development of gender and culturally sensitive aftercare programs, assisting transitioning women in reentering mainstream society, and increasing their chances of obtaining and retaining employment.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Literature Review

Problem Statement

Substance abuse is a social problem with roots delving deep into the core of American society (Baum, 1996). The consequences of the war on drugs (Pettit & Western, 2004), high unemployment rates (Sahin, 2011), and the steady eradication of the middle class (Fitzgerald, &

Leicht, 2014) have created an economy that does not provide enough opportunity for recovery and economic mobility, leaving at-risk people marginalized and bereft of social and human capital. The United States incarcerates its citizens at a higher rate than any other developed country, with minorities making up the most of prison populations, and sequestered in communities with the least amenities and access to resources upon release (Roberts, 2003). Women earn considerably less money, and have higher unemployment rates than their male counterparts (Hartmann, Hayes, & Clark, 2014). Even worse, women struggling with substance abuse problems and subsequent justice system involvement have the worst employment outcomes, making them among our most needy and vulnerable of citizens (Prendergast, Messina, Hall, & Warda 2011).

For the millions of Americans with alcohol and substance abuse problems, having a job is essential to becoming contributing citizens, and facilitating successful reentry into the community. Stable employment allows individuals to provide for themselves and their families, to reestablish a positive identity among family members and other supportive networks, and to maintain healthy lifestyle behaviors (Fahey, Roberts & Engel, 2006). Employment increases abstinence and decreases involvement with the justice system (Young, 2000). Yet, factors such as low self-efficacy (Waghorn, Chant, & King, 2005), low self-esteem (Gendreau, Grant, & Leipciger, 1979), external locus of control (Browne, 1989), criminal records (Uggen, 2000), and widespread stigma towards the formerly incarcerated keep many jobless (Pager, Western & Sugie, 2009). Though some employment services exist for women in recovery (Green, Polen, Dickinson, Lynch, & Bennett, 2002), there is a clear need to address the personal, environmental, and behavioral factors that hinder those in transition from obtaining employment. This thesis aimed to address this need by examining these variables in a mediational path model using

structural equation modeling, and performed post-hoc analyses to examine individual paths in the model. The results are discussed in the context of the findings regarding these relationships and existing literature with employment and at-risk women.

Theoretical Framework

The proposed study is guided by Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). SCT is a psychological model of behavior developed by social psychologist Albert Bandura (1977; 1986). SCT has been used to understand career choice (Bandura, 1989), organizational behavior (Bandura, 2001), early childhood behavior acquisition (Bussey & Bandura, 1999), substance abuse recovery (Bandura, 1999), and mental and physical health (Bandura, 1998). SCT also has been applied to motivation, learning, and achievement (Pajares, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; 1998).

SCT is grounded in several basic assumptions about learning and behavior. One assumption concerns triadic reciprocality, which is the view that personal cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors influence one another in a reciprocal and bidirectional fashion. Thus, a person is a function of a regular interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and contextual factors. For instance, workplace learning is shaped by factors within that working environment, especially the reinforcements experienced by oneself and by others. At the same time, learning is affected by workers' own thoughts and self-beliefs and their interpretation of the workplace context.

A second assumption within SCT is that people are able to influence their own behavior and the environment in a purposeful way (Bandura, 2001). SCT illustrates the importance of environment in facilitating behavior. However, it also shows that people can exert substantial influence over their own outcomes and the environment through forethought and individual agency.

A third assumption within SCT is a person can learn, but not immediately change their behavior. Thus, learning, and demonstration of learning are two separate processes. Additionally, SCT assumes that learning involves not just the acquisition of new behaviors, but also of knowledge, abilities, skills, values, and other personal cognitive factors. This separation of learning and behavior is a shift from the position advocated by early behavioral psychological theories that explained learning specifically as a change in frequency and existence of behavior. Essentially, individuals can learn but not change their behavior until motivated to do so.

Self-Esteem, Employment, and Substance Abusing Women

Theory

Many early theorists viewed self-esteem as a basic human need. For example, Abraham Maslow included self-esteem in his hierarchy of needs, where he described two different forms of esteem: the need for respect from others, and the need for self-respect, or self-esteem (1943). According to Maslow, without the fulfillment of the self-esteem need, individuals will not be able to obtain self-actualization, or self-fulfillment (Mittelman, 1991). Another early theorist, Carl Rogers, developed his personality theory in 1961. He posited that one's self-concept is inclusive of three components; self-worth (or self-esteem), self-image, and the ideal self. He believed that individuals needed fulfillment in the three components in order to achieve self-actualization, or the motivating force used to reach one's full potential (Rogers, 1961).

Modern theories of self-esteem explore the reasons humans are motivated to maintain a high regard for themselves. For example, sociometer theory was developed by Mark Leary and his colleagues (1999) in order to explain the functions of self-esteem. They thought that self-esteem is often over attributed and misperceived in society as the driving force behind many

behaviors. They proposed, however, that self-esteem evolved to monitor one's social acceptance, and is used as a gauge for avoiding social devaluation and rejection. Additionally, in terror-management theory, self-esteem serves a protective function and reduces anxiety about life and death (Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 1991).

Substance Abuse

There are many empirical studies focusing on the relationships between self-esteem and substance abuse recovery. For example, individuals with substance abuse histories have lower self-esteem than those with no history of abuse (Botvin, Baker, Filazzola, & Botvin, 1990). Research focusing on gender differences among individuals in recovery has found that women have lower rates of self-esteem than their male counterparts, even though they had similar sociodemographic characteristics, family history, alcohol/drug history, and number of treatment completions (Wallen, 1992). Unfortunately, women with substance abuse problems were also more likely to have psychiatric disorders and a history of sexual abuse; circumstances that typically correlate with decreased self-esteem (Wallen, 1992, Blitz, 2007).

Diminished self-esteem has been investigated as an independent variable in predicting substance abuse and risk behaviors (Crump et al., 1997; Jones & Heaven, 1998; Mecca, Smelser, & Vasconcellos, 1989). Low self-esteem has significantly predicted greater emotional distress, lower positive coping, greater negative coping, and more alcohol and drug use (Stein, Dixon, & Nyamathi, 2008). However, length of time in treatment and aftercare programs has been correlated with improvements in levels of self-esteem (Dodge & Potocky, 2000). One longitudinal study comparing a communal housing model versus usual aftercare found that increase in self-esteem significantly predicted abstinence (Chavarria, Stevens, Jason, & Ferrari, 2012). The residents of the same communal model, Oxford House, have also shown to have

positive characteristics like increased self-esteem and self-regulation as compared to other individuals in recovery (Ferrari, Stevens, Legler, & Jason, 2012). Further, women in supportive treatment and aftercare environments have been shown to exhibit increased self-esteem over time (Hiller et al., 1996), which also correlates with positive attitudes about safer sex other positive health behaviors (Hiller, Rowan-Szal, Bartholomew, & Simpson, 1996; Volpicelli, Markman, Monterosso, Filing, & O'Brien, 2000). The literature suggests that although women substance abusers have lower levels of self-esteem, this can be increased through supportive groups and services, and this increases the likelihood of sustained abstinence and other healthy lifestyle behaviors.

Employment

Higher levels of self-esteem have been found to have positive relationships with various employment processes and outcomes. In one study, 86 college students completed measures of self-esteem before beginning a job search. Four months later, at the time of graduation, self-esteem predicted the sources used to find jobs, interview evaluations received from organizational recruiters, satisfaction with job search, number of offers received, acceptance of a job before graduation, and length of intended tenure (Ellis & Taylor, 1983). Other studies have found higher self-esteem to be predictive of job search efficacy (Saks & Ashforth, 2000), job search satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001), and number of offers received (Saks & Ashforth 1997). However, unemployed men and women showed lower levels of self-esteem than their employed peers (Walters & Moore, 2002). These relationships illustrate a pathway between self-esteem and employment status.

Self-esteem has also been found to correlate with occupation, employment performance, and satisfaction (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). In a meta-analysis of 446 samples (N=321,940),

occupation had a significant positive relationship with self-esteem, with full-time workers reporting the highest levels of esteem (Twenge, & Campbell, 2002). In another study, researchers found self-esteem to be a moderator of work related stress and depression, with individuals scoring higher on self-esteem being less depressed, even when experiencing high work related stress levels (Mäkikangas, & Kinnunen, 2003). The array of literature on self-esteem, employment, and substance abuse suggest a reciprocal relationship between self-esteem, and both substance abuse and employment outcomes.

Self-Efficacy, Employment, and Substance Abusing Women

Theory

Bandura has defined self-efficacy as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations (Bandura, 1986). A person's self-efficacy can play a major role in how they perform and approach goals, tasks, and challenges (Bandura, 1986). The concept of self-efficacy lies at the center of Bandura's social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the role of observational learning and social experiences in the development of personality. The main concept in social cognitive theory is that actions are influenced by the environment. Because self-efficacy is developed from external experiences and self-perception and is influential in determining the outcome of many events, it is an important aspect of social cognitive theory. According to Bandura's theory, people with high self-efficacy—that is, those who believe they can perform well—are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided.

While self-efficacy is sometimes measured as a whole, as with the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001), it is also measured in particular functional situations. For

example, social self-efficacy has been defined and measured. According to Smith and Betz (1996), social self-efficacy is "an individual's confidence in her/his ability to engage in the social interactional tasks necessary to initiate and maintain interpersonal relationships." They measured social self-efficacy using an instrument of their own devise called the Scale of Perceived Social Self-Efficacy, which measured six domains: (1) making friends, (2) pursuing romantic relationships, (3) social assertiveness, (4) performance in public situations, (5) groups or parties, and (6) giving or receiving help. Additionally, Matsushima and Shiomi measured self-efficacy by focusing on self-confidence about social skills in personal relationships, trust in friends, and trust by friends. Others have focused on academic self-efficacy, technological self-efficacy, and disclosure self-efficacy (Chamers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Kalichman & Nachimson, 1999; McDonald & Siegal, 1992).

Substance Abuse

Self-efficacy has been suggested to be key component to successful recovery from addictions. The self-efficacy construct has been applied in the study and treatment of addictive behaviors, with early work involving cigarette smoking or alcohol use (e.g., Annis & Davis 1988; Condiotte & Lichtenstein, 1981; DiClemente, 1981, DiClemente, 1986; DiClemente et al., 1994; DiClemente, Fairhurst, & Piotrowski 1995; Rollnick & Heather, 1982; Yates & Thain, 1985). A number of studies have shown that self-efficacy to avoid relapse in alcohol and cigarette use increases during treatment and remains high for those patients reporting no alcohol use following treatment (Annis & Davis 1988; Burling et al. 1989; Rychtarik et al. 1992; Solomon & Annis 1990). In addition, self-efficacy to avoid cigarette smoking or alcohol drinking has been shown to be predictive of non-smoking and drinking outcomes (Burling et al. 1989, DiClemente 1986).

Self-efficacy has also been examined with drug using populations. One study examining self-efficacy among a sample of clients reporting cocaine and heroin abuse yielded similar but not identical results to those observed among patients addicted to tobacco (Burling et al., 1989). In a 6-month follow-up study, Burling and his colleagues found that patients who abstained from substance use following treatment showed greater improvements in self-efficacy across treatment than patients reporting substance use. In a survey study of substance use among college students, Sadowski, Long, and Jenkins (1993) found a significant negative correlation between cocaine use and self-efficacy.

Employment

Increases in self-efficacy correlate with success in numerous life situations, including career and employment settings (Davis & Jason, 2005), making it a crucial factor needed for women to succeed in labor markets. Self-efficacy has been found to be an important factor in employment attainment, retention, and mobility. High levels of self-efficacy have predicted greater intensification in job search efforts for unemployed individuals, as well as expedited reemployment (Edin & Aviram, 1993). While research has shown that self-efficacy is also a central component of recovery (Witkiewitz & Marlatt, 2004), women with substance dependence may lack self-efficacy, social skills, and positive attitudes towards work (Blitz, 2006). Employers seek applicants that display job readiness and have qualities of reliability, responsibility, and trustworthiness (Holzer, Raphael & Stoll, 2003). Unfortunately, women with substance abuse problems are more likely to have psychiatric disorders and a history of sexual abuse, circumstances that typically decrease self-efficacy and self-esteem, which may compromise any readiness to work (Blitz, 2006).

Locus of Control, Employment, and Substance Abusing Women

Theory

The locus of control construct refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them. Rotter developed the concept in 1954, and it has since become an aspect of personality studies. A person's "locus" (Latin for "place" or "location") is conceptualized as either internal or external (Phares, 1976). Individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that events in their life derive primarily from their own actions. For example, when receiving a change in pay at a job, people with an internal locus of control would attribute the change to their own performance, or lack thereof, at the job. Individuals with an external locus of control would attribute the change to an outside factor, like the supervisor, or the working conditions (Rotter, 1975).

Substance Abuse

External locus of control has been related to substance abuse as well as criminal justice system involvement. Addiction severity has been found to correlate with external locus of control in drug abusing populations, indicating that addiction severity is predictive of beliefs that their behavior is determined by a force or factor external to themselves (Dekel, Benbenishty, & Amram, 2004). In Israel, researchers studied 167 heroin users from three therapeutic communities (TCs). They examined their drug use 15 months after treatment, and found that relapse at follow-up was positively associated with prior criminal activity. In addition, high self-esteem and an internal locus of control were also associated with being abstinent at follow-up (Nelson, Lynskey, Heath, Wrey, Agrawal, & Montgomery et. al, 2014). In another study, graduates of a nine-month residential, cognitive substance abuse treatment program, housed

within a Federal prison, were compared with a waiting-list control group for changes in locus of control. Treatment groups displayed significantly more internal loci of control across two dimensions. Further, Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) participants were studied in a one-year longitudinal trial. External loci of control were found to mediate the effects of AA participation on recovery outcomes at follow-up (Magura, Knight, Vogel, Mahmood, Maudet, & Rosenblum, 2003).

Employment

Global studies of locus of control have found internal locus to be positively associated with favorable work outcomes, such as positive task and social experiences, and greater job motivation (Ng, Sorensen, & Eby, 2006). In a meta-analysis, researchers also found internal locus was the best dispositional predictor of job satisfaction and job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001). Though global measures of locus of control have been measured extensively in the workplace (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005; Parkes, 1991; Spector, Sanchez, Siu, Salgado, & Ma, 2004), work-specific measures of loci are also used to understand relationships between the construct and job attainment, retention, and satisfaction.

Work locus of control measures generalized control beliefs in work settings (Spector, 1992). Work locus of control was found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress and perceptions of supervisory style (Spector, 1988). Though work locus of control has been studied more extensively in male populations (Fox & Spector, 1999) it has also been a moderator in the work stress–health relationship for women (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004; Siu, Spector, Cooper, Lu, & Yu, 2002). However, there is a dearth of research regarding the relationships between work locus of control and employment with women, showing a need for future research on this topic.

Rationale

Although the relationships of self-esteem to locus of control and self-efficacy, and the relationship of these constructs to employability have been demonstrated in the workplace, little is known about these associations with employment with formerly incarcerated women in recovery from substance abuse. Given the importance of employment for both addiction recovery and reducing recidivism, it is important to understand the personal cognitive factors that contribute to obtaining employment post-recovery and/or incarceration. The modeling of these variables to explain pathways to gainful employment for criminal justice system involved women in recovery is a unique innovation for addiction recovery research. Accordingly, this study aimed to develop a social cognitive model of employment based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001). This model has the potential to advance both social cognitive theory and our understanding of how environmental barriers (i.e. criminal history) predict employment when partially mediated by personal cognitive factors (i.e. locus of control, self-efficacy, self-esteem). It is clear that criminal history is often a steadfast barrier to employment. Also, it is understood that personal cognitive factors predict employment retention, job performance and satisfaction. However, the extent to which personal cognitive factors (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control) mediate the relationship between environmental barriers (criminal history) and employment is unclear. Accordingly, this study aims to construct a path model of the relationship between criminal history and employment that is partially mediated by personal cognitive factors.

CHAPTER II: DESIGN

Statement of Hypothesis

Hypothesis I. The proposed model for the relationship between environmental barriers and employment will be partially mediated by personal cognitive factors, and will demonstrate an adequate fit with the data. (Figure 1)

Methods

The proposed study will test the model in Figure 1, with criminal history hypothesized to be predictive of employment, with disclosure self-efficacy, self-esteem, and internal work locus of control all mediating these relationships. Given that there are 11 parameters in the model described later in this proposal (see Figure 1), 151 participants will be involved in this study, which will comfortably exceed the 10 participants per parameter sample size recommended by Kline (2011) and allow for the exclusion of unusable data. Variables to be examined include demographics, scales of self-efficacy, self-esteem, and work locus of control, and employment variables. The study will use previously collected cross-sectional data collected at the Oxford House World Convention in Washington, D.C. during a women's only portion of the conference. All participants in this sample are current or former Oxford House residents. Oxford House is a network of democratically run mutual-help recovery homes where residents receive social support that aids in maintaining employment, and refraining from involvement with the criminal justice system (Jason, Olson, Ferrari, Majer, Alvarez & Stout, 2007), while increasing self-efficacy and self-regulation for residents (Davis & Jason, 2005).

Research Participants

Participants were treated according to APA recommendations for the responsible conduct of research. Participation was self-report, completely voluntary, with names omitted from survey response packets to ensure participant anonymity. The sample consisted of 151 females, 14 of which reported being both a resident and an employee of Oxford House. Descriptive analysis has revealed the following demographic breakdowns: 80% European-American, 10% African-Americans, 5% Latinos, and 5% participants from other ethnicities. Participants had a mean age of 38 years, an average of 8 convictions, and 74% of the sample was employed. Demographic information for the participants is presented in Table 1.

Measures

The questionnaire was comprised of a demographics section and several scales to assess the constructs related to the above hypothesis. The questionnaire also included demographics and scales to assess constructs for other hypotheses that are not related to the proposed research. These unrelated scales and demographic questions are included in the appendix to provide context about the scope of the research but are not described in this proposal.

The **Work Locus of Control Scale** (WLCS) is a 16 item instrument designed to assess control beliefs in the workplace. It is a domain specific locus of control scale that correlates about .50 to .55 with general locus of control. The format is summated rating with six response choices: *disagree very much, disagree moderately, disagree slightly, agree slightly, agree moderately, agree very much*, scored from 1 to 6, respectively. Total score is the sum of all items, and ranges from 16 to 96. The scale is scored so that externals receive high scores. Internal consistency (coefficient alpha) generally ranges from .80 to .85 in the English language version. The scale has been shown to relate to several work variables, including job performance

and job satisfaction. It also relates to counterproductive behavior and organizational commitment. Details of scale development can be found in Spector (1988) and Spector (1992).

The purpose of the 10 item **Rosenberg Self-Esteem** (RSE) scale is to measure self-esteem. Originally the measure was designed to measure the self-esteem of high school students. However, since its development, the scale has been used with a variety of groups including adults, with norms available for many of those groups. The RSE demonstrates a Guttman scale coefficient of reproducibility of .92, indicating excellent internal consistency (Rosenberg, 1965). Test-retest reliability over a period of 2 weeks reveals correlations of .85 and .88, indicating excellent stability (Hagborg, 1993). The RSE correlates significantly with other measures of self-esteem, including the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1981). In addition, the RSE correlates in the predicted direction with measures of depression and anxiety (Robbins, Henden, & Trzeseniewski, 2001).

The **Criminal History Disclosure Self-Efficacy** scale (CHDSE) is a 12-item scale that was developed to assess an individual's self-reported self-efficacy at disclosing criminal history status in potential and current employment situations. The format is a summated rating with five response choices: strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, strongly agree, scored from 1 to 5, respectively. Total score is the sum of all items, and ranges from 12 to 60. Chronbach's alpha is .89, indicating strong internal consistency.

Demographics

The battery of measures includes a section on participant demographics, including gender, date-of-birth, ethnicity, marital status, level of education, employment status, length of

substance use, criminal history, length of sobriety, length of residency in Oxford House, and other demographics for research not related to this thesis.

CHAPTER III: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Data from participants who complete at least half of each measure in the battery were used for this study. Missing data for those that completed at least half of the instrument were estimated using the Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) feature in M*plus* (Muthén & Muthén, 2007). Statistical analyses were performed in two stages. In the first stage, descriptive analyses were conducted to provide descriptive and exploratory information on the sample.

Major Hypotheses

In the second stage, the relationships between the latent construct personal factors, (comprised of self-esteem, work locus of control, and criminal history disclosure self-efficacy), criminal history, and employment were organized in a mediational path model. The model was tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) using M*plus* in order to explore how the latent construct personal cognitive factors might mediate the relationship between criminal history and employment.

The interclass correlation (ICC) is measure of how such dependency and will be examined before conducting the SEM. If the ICC is greater than .10, a standard SEM model will be used. Next, the fit of the hypothesized model will be assessed using the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) for the proposed models, with acceptable fit cutoffs suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999; CFI $\geq$ .92, RMSEA $\leq$ .08; SRMR $\leq$ .08).

Results

Analyses

Model testing. My primary analyses used Structural Equation Modeling framework in LISREL version 9. These analyses examined the structural model in Figure 1, with convictions variable regressed onto age as a control. Model fit was assessed using the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) using acceptable fit cutoffs of CFI ≥ .95, RMSEA ≤ .08, and SRMR ≤ .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Results

Model Testing

Structural model. The hypothesized model did not demonstrate a good fit with the data, $\chi^2_{SB}(1) = 1.01$, $p = 0.32$; CFI = .09, RMSEA = 0.998; SRMR = 0.93. Overall, the model explained 3% of the variance in employment after controlling for age ($R^2 = 0.03$, $p = 0.94$), and 4% of the variance in criminal history disclosure self-efficacy ($R^2 = 0.04$, $p < 0.05$).

Direct Effects. The only significant path in the model was criminal history disclosure self-efficacy predicting employment (F=4.5, R^2=.04, p<.05).

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The model may not have been a good fit with the data due to the nature of the variables tested. All variables were psychosocial in nature, and the lack of fit indicates other phenomenon at work with regards to employment attainment. Additionally, as 74%

of the sample was employed, there is not much variance in this variable. This can be construed as a positive effect of Oxford House on recovery outcomes, so not finding model fit here is actually a positive finding. These findings suggest that there are other phenomenon at work in these settings to facilitate employment other than the personal attributes of the individuals. Both research and intuition tell us that at-risk women are more likely to be employed if they have better personal attributes and qualifications, however for this group it is not the case. The social networks in Oxford House may facilitate employment for these participants over and above the personal factors of each individual.

The significant path of criminal history disclosure self-efficacy predicting employment is an important discovery for addiction recovery, criminological, and employment research. As this is a fairly new measure, the predictive validity has begun to be established with this data. It also suggests that employment and treatment programs should encompass criminal history disclosure counseling, as individuals with higher levels of disclosure are more likely to be employed.

This model should be tested again with a non-Oxford House population. Further, the model could be run logistically and use employment as the outcome, which would make more conceptual sense.

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FIGURE 1

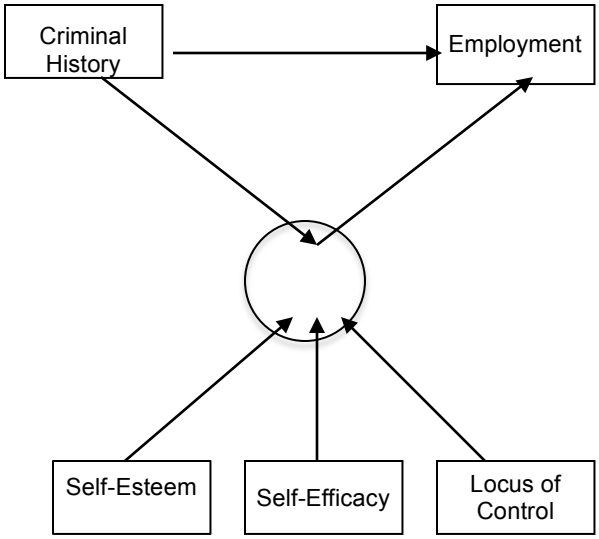

Figure 1. Proposed model for the relationship between components of Personal Factors, criminal history, and employment.

Table 1.

Socio-demographic variables of participants (Demographic Questionnaire)

	Total (*N*=151)
	% *(n)*
Education completed	
< High School diploma	7.3 (11)
12th grade	11.9 (18)
GED	6.6 (10)
Some college	47.0 (71)
Vocational	7.3 (11)
College	15.9 (24)
Postgraduate	4.0 (6)
Race	
Black/African American	9.3 (14)
American Indian/Alaskan Native	2.6 (4)
White/Caucasian	83.4 (126)
Asian/Pacific Islander	2.0 (3)
Latina	1.3 (2)
Other	1.3 (2)
Currently Employed	74.2 (112)
Women with children[a]	26.4 (39)
	M (*SD*)
Number of children[a]	1.54 (0.88)
Age[b]	38.37 (11.24)
Convictions[c]	7.09 (12.06)
Length of time in Oxford House (years)[a]	1.82 (1.98)

[a]3 missing responses [b]1 missing response [c]2 missing responses

APPENDIX A

Full Battery of Measures

Demographic Questionnaire

We would first like to get a better idea of who you are as a person, so we will be asking you questions about your race, education and personal history.

1. Year of birth: _____

2. What is your racial background?
   - ☐ Black/African American (0)
   - ☐ American Indian/Alaskan Native (1)
   - ☐ White/Caucasian (2)
   - ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander (3)
   - ☐ Latina (4)
   - ☐ Other (Specify) (5) _____

3. What is the highest grade level you have finished?
   - ☐ ≤ 8th grade (0)
   - ☐ 9th grade (1)
   - ☐ 10th grade (2)
   - ☐ 11th grade (3)
   - ☐ 12th grade (4)
   - ☐ Some college (5)
   - ☐ Vocational (6)
   - ☐ College (7)
   - ☐ Postgraduate (8)
   - ☐ GED(9)

4. Did you have a steady source of financial support in the last year?
   ☐No (0) ☐Yes (1)
   If ***yes***, about how much did you make a month? $_____

5. Where did the money come from? (Check all that apply).
   - ☐ Job/employment (1) Amount (Last 30 Days) _____
   - ☐ Ex-boyfriend/ex-spouse (2) Amount (Last 30) _____
   - ☐ Current boyfriend/sexual partner/spouse (3) Amount (Last 30) _____
   - ☐ Family (4) Amount (Last 30) _____
   - ☐ Unemployment compensation (5) Amount (Last 30)_____+
   - ☐ Retirement (6) Amount (Last 30)_____
   - ☐ Disability (7) Amount (Last 30)_____
   - ☐ Welfare or public assistance (8) Amount (Last 30)_____

6. Do you have a profession, trade or skill? ☐No (0) ☐Yes (1)
   If ***yes***, what is this skill? _____

7. How many children *under the age of 18* do you have legal custody? _____

8. Are you on parole or probation? ☐No (0) ☐Yes (1)

9. After the age of 18, how many times in your life have you been convicted for the following:					
		#			#
a.	Shoplift/Vandalism		h.	Assault	
b.	Parole/Probation Violations		i.	Arson	

c.	Drug Charges		j.	Rape	
d.	Forgery		k.	Homicide/Manslaughter.	
e.	Weapons Offense		l.	Prostitution	
f.	Robbery		m.	Contempt of Court	
g.	Burglary/Larceny/B & E		n.	Other	
*Do not include juvenile (pre-age 18) crimes, unless they were charged as an adult. *Include formal charges only.					

DTCQ

10. What is your main substance of abuse/drug of choice?

_____

a. How did you use this substance (i.e. Smoking, snorting, injecting, swallowing)

---

11. Do you have a SECOND substance that you used regularly? ☐No (0) ☐Yes (1)
If yes, what is this substance and how did you use it? _____
_____

12. Do you have a THIRD substance that you used regularly? ☐No (0) ☐Yes (1)
If yes, what is this substance and how did you use it? _____
_____

13. How long have you been living in an Oxford House? _____

VOCATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE/WORK HISTORY

HOBBIES AND INTERESTS

Please list:

PERSONAL DATA

Do you have a valid Driver's License? ☐ Yes ☐ No Type _____ State _____

Do you have a Personal Vehicle? ☐ Yes ☐ No Type _____

Access to public transportation ☐ Yes ☐ No

Ability to Read English? ☐ Yes ☐ No Write English? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Other Language(s) _____

	No Experience	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	Expert

PLEASE INDICATE WHETHER YOU HAVE EXPERIENCE WITH ANY OF THE FOLLOWING AND YOUR PROFICIENCY LEVEL

PLEASE LIST ANY SKILLS THAT YOU HAVE: (SOME EXAMPLES MAY BE: LANGUAGE, PHOTOSHOP, SIGN SKILLS, SINGING)

OTHER SPECIAL LEADERSHIP

OFFICE SKILLS					
1. Copier	1	2	3	4	5
2. Fax	1	2	3	4	5
3. Multi-line Telephone	1	2	3	4	5
4. Postage Meter	1	2	3	4	5
5. 10-Key	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bookkeeping/Accounting	1	2	3	4	5
7. Shipping/Receiving	1	2	3	4	5
8. Cashiering	1	2	3	4	5
9. Instructing	1	2	3	4	5
10. Scheduling	1	2	3	4	5
11. Construction Equipment	1	2	3	4	5
12. Transport Equipment	1	2	3	4	5
13. Hand Tools	1	2	3	4	5
14. Farm Equipment	1	2	3	4	5
15. Machine/ Shop Tools	1	2	3	4	5
16. Writing letters	1	2	3	4	5
17. Data entry	1	2	3	4	5
18. Creating spreadsheets	1	2	3	4	5
19. Filing	1	2	3	4	5
20. Typing	1	2	3	4	5
COMPUTER PROGRAMS					
21. MS Windows	1	2	3	4	5
22. MS Word	1	2	3	4	5
23. MS Excel	1	2	3	4	5
24. MS Access	1	2	3	4	5
25. MS Outlook	1	2	3	4	5
26. MS PowerPoint	1	2	3	4	5
27. Quicken/QuickBooks	1	2	3	4	5
FOOD SERVICE					
28. Host/Hostess	1	2	3	4	5
29. Busser/ Bar Back	1	2	3	4	5
30. Food Runner	1	2	3	4	5
31. Server	1	2	3	4	5
32. Bartender	1	2	3	4	5
33. Chef/Cook	1	2	3	4	5
34. Manager	1	2	3	4	5
35. Owner	1	2	3	4	5
36. Other (specify)	1	2	3	4	5

Name/Type	Length of time	Improvement needed/wanted?

Do you have any special ☐ Yes ☐ _____

licenses or certificates? No Type(s) _____

Possess special tools/equipment? ☐ Yes ☐ No Type(s) _____

	PRE-ASSESSMENT CHECKLIST		
1	Are you physically able to work?	**YES**	**NO**
2	Do you have reliable transportation to interview/job search for jobs? (Public or Private)	**YES**	**NO**
3	Are you waiting for a determination from Social Security Disability Benefits?	**YES**	**NO**
4	Do you have a telephone and voice mail?	**YES**	**NO**
6	If necessary, are you willing to accept work at a lower wage than what you are used to?	**YES**	**NO**
7	Are you willing to assist with your own job search at least 20 hours per week?	**YES**	**NO**
9	Do you have childcare in place or have availability to childcare?	**YES**	**NO**
10	Do you have interview clothing?	**YES**	**NO**

What skills would you like to learn or develop?

If you could have any job/career, what would it be?

What has/is preventing you from obtaining this job/career?

1. Have you ever owned your own business/freelanced/independent contractor?

☐ Yes, currently ☐ yes, previously ☐ No

If ***yes***, what kind?

_____

2. Would you like to own your own business? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If ***yes***, please explain…

_____

If ***no***, please explain why not? _____-

_____

Work Locus of Control Scale						
The following questions concern your beliefs about jobs in general. They do not refer only to your present job.	Disagree very much	Disagree	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1. A job is what you make of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6

14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck	1	2	3	4	5	6

RSE					
The following questions concern beliefs you may or may not have about yourself. Please record the appropriate answer for each item, depending on whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with it.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree moderately	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4	5
2. At times I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree moderately	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
9. All in all, I am inclined to think I am a failure.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4	5

Criminal History Disclosure Self Efficacy					
The following questions concern your feelings about disclosing your criminal history in employment situations. They do not refer only to your present job.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree moderately	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. If I had found a job opportunity on my own rather than through a referral, I am certain that I could tell them about my criminal history during a job interview	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am certain that I can discuss my criminal history with a potential employer	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel confident telling someone I work for that I have a criminal history	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am certain that I could disclose my criminal history to a new employer even if they did not ask	1	2	3	4	5
5. I would rather avoid applying for a job than deal with decisions to disclose my criminal history	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am confident about disclosing my criminal history with coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am certain that I would lie about my criminal history if asked on an application	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am certain that I would lie about my criminal history if asked during an interview	1	2	3	4	5
9. When it comes to disclosing criminal history, it is better just to lie about it and wait to see if the employer finds out	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am certain that I could expain gaps in my employment history to a potential employer	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am certain that I can be hired on my merits despite my criminal history	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am certain that I can disclose my criminal history in an interview even if I am nervous	1	2	3	4	5
13. I am certain that I can disclose my criminal history in an interview if I feel I am overqualified for the job	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree moderately	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. I am certain that I can disclose my criminal history in an interview if the job pays more money than I am used to making	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am certain that I would lie about my criminal history if I felt that I would not get the job if I told the truth	1	2	3	4	5

Barriers to Employment Scale					
In your current situation, please rate how likely the following items are to represent a barrier to employment	Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Neutral	Likely	Extremely Likely
1. Physical health problems	1	2	3	4	5
2. Means of transport	1	2	3	4	5
3. Lack of motivation or self-determination	1	2	3	4	5
4. Anxiety or fears	1	2	3	4	5
5. Poor work experience or background	1	2	3	4	5

6. Indecision with respect to job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
7. Lack of energy	1	2	3	4	5
8. Lack of education or training	1	2	3	4	5
9. Loss of unemployment benefits or financial support if you obtain a job	1	2	3	4	5
10. People think your work plans are unrealistic	1	2	3	4	5
11. Medication side effects (e.g., hand shaking or tremors)	1	2	3	4	5
12. Drugs or alcohol consumption	1	2	3	4	5
13. Lack of work skills	1	2	3	4	5
14. Lack of social support (e.g., friends, family)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Lack of self-confidence	1	2	3	4	5
16. Lack of available jobs in your field	1	2	3	4	5
17. Low productivity in workplace	1	2	3	4	5
18. Employers' prejudices about hiring people with substance abuse histories	1	2	3	4	5
19. Difficulties working with others	1	2	3	4	5
20. Lack of sleep	1	2	3	4	5
21. Frequent mood changes	1	2	3	4	5
	Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Neutral	Likely	Extremely Likely
22. High unemployment rate	1	2	3	4	5
23. Difficulties interacting with others	1	2	3	4	5
24. Difficulties adapting to the demands of a new job	1	2	3	4	5
25. Lack of employer flexibility (e.g., schedule, productivity)	1	2	3	4	5
26. Stress related to job search	1	2	3	4	5
27. Difficulties coping with frequent changes (e.g., schedule) in your future job	1	2	3	4	5
28. Stressful events (e.g., bereavement, break up)	1	2	3	4	5
29. Working conditions (e.g., responsibility, tasks)	1	2	3	4	5
30. Low success rate at previous work experience (e.g., job loss)	1	2	3	4	5
31. Lack initiative in seeking a job (lack of driving ambition, resourcefulness)	1	2	3	4	5
32. Job market instability	1	2	3	4	5
33. Competition in workplace	1	2	3	4	5
34. Parental obligations (e.g., children, family member)	1	2	3	4	5
35. Lack of follow-up or therapeutic help when obtaining a job	1	2	3	4	5
36. Prolonged absence from the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
37. Interruption in medication	1	2	3	4	5
38. Lack of support when obtaining a job	1	2	3	4	5
39. Difficulties in being punctual	1	2	3	4	5
40. Asserting oneself with coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
41. Have a good appearance in your job (well groomed)	1	2	3	4	5
42. Be self-governing in your job	1	2	3	4	5

43. Pressure related to the job	1	2	3	4	5

EMPLOYMENT RECORD: *Please list **current** or most **recent** job first.*

Employment Type: ☐DEPAUL UNIVERSITY

REDUCING ECONOMIC DISPARITIES FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS: THE OXFORD HOUSE MODEL

A THESIS TO BE SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE COLLEGE OF SCIENCE AND HEALTH

FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS IN

COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

BY

SARAH CAL Employment ☐ Military ☐Demographic Questionnaire
We would first like to get a better idea of who you are as a person, so we will be asking you questions about your race, education and personal history.

1. Year of birth: _____

2. What is your racial background?
B Volunteer

Employer Name and Type

Job Title
Wage
Length of Employment: _____ years _____ months

Employment Type: ☐ Employment ☐ Military ☐ Volunteer

Employer Name and Type
Job Title
Wage
Length of Employment: _____ years _____ months