

JOB SEARCH ATTITUDE INVENTORY™

JSAI

Fifth Edition

John J. Liptak, Ed.D.

Administrator's Guide

Description

The *Job Search Attitude Inventory (JSAI)* is a brief, 40-item inventory designed to make job seekers more aware of their self-directed and other-directed attitudes about their searches for employment. The *JSAI* compares the inventory takers' attitudes about the job search process with those of professional counselors trained in teaching job search techniques. Individuals respond to each of the attitude statements directly on the *JSAI* booklet. Statements represent five scales of self-directed job search attitudes. The *JSAI* is designed to be self-scored and self-interpreted. It includes step-by-step scoring instructions, a scoring profile, information to interpret the profile results, and suggestions for further exploration.

The *JSAI* has been shown to be effective in many applications:

- Outplacement counseling
- Employment counseling
- Job search assistance
- Career counseling
- Career development workshops
- Rehabilitation counseling
- Correctional counseling
- Group assessments
- School-to-work transition programs
- College and university career planning centers

Administration

The *JSAI* is self-administered (for use with individuals or groups), and the inventory booklets are designed to be written in. This assessment can also be administered online (visit www.JIST.com for details). The readability of the assessment has been tested and is at or below the eighth grade level.

Administer the *JSAI* in a quiet, well-lit room. Prevent interruptions and keep outside distractions to a minimum. The average administration time for the *JSAI* is approximately 20 minutes, depending on such factors as age and reading ability.

Tell individuals why they are taking the inventory and how the results will be used. Distribute a copy of the *JSAI* booklet, along with a pencil, to each participant. Tell respondents to mark their responses directly on the booklet. Demographic information should be completed at this point. Review the “About the *JSAI*” section on the front of the booklet with the individual or group before beginning.

Step-by-step directions in the booklet explain how respondents should mark their responses. Do *not* indicate a bias toward any response as being either good or bad. Make sure each respondent understands how to mark his or her responses. In Step 1, respondents circle one (and only one) of the numbers to the right of each statement. Respondents mark the extent to which they agree or disagree with each of the statements regarding the search for employment. Respondents make a selection from a four-point Likert scale that includes the following responses:

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree

Make sure individuals taking the inventory understand the response scale. Emphasize that the *JSAI* is not a test; therefore, there are no right or wrong answers. Stress that respondents should clearly circle only one response for each item, but they should respond to each of the 40 statements. Allow as much time as needed to complete the *JSAI*. There is no time limit.

Scoring and Profiling

The *JSAI* is meant to be self-scored, and no other materials are needed to score or interpret the instrument. Self-scoring provides the person taking the inventory and the administrator with immediate results. Tell the respondents the following:

- The *JSAI* comprises five scales: Luck vs. Planning, Uninvolved vs. Involved, Help from Others vs. Self-Help, Passive vs. Active, and Pessimistic vs. Optimistic. The items are grouped into five sections for easy scoring. In Step 2, add the scores you circled for each of the five sections and record each total in the corresponding box beside it. There will be one score (number) for each of the five scales. These scores will each range from 8 to 32.
- In Step 3, transfer these scores to the numbered rows in the profile to the right of each box by circling that number on the profile graph. Step 3 provides a guide for interpreting these scores.

Interpretation

The *JSAI* profile provides information about the test takers' positive and negative job search attitudes. Respondents interpret their scores according to how highly they scored on each scale:

- Scores between 8 and 16 indicate attitudes that are *other-directed*; that is, the respondent believes she or he needs the help of others to find a job and lacks the proper mind-set to approach the job search effectively.
- Scores between 17 and 23 are similar to those of most people who take the *JSAI*. Scores in this range suggest that while the respondent is not completely dependent on others, he or she could take more control of the job search process.
- Scores between 24 and 32 indicate attitudes that are *self-directed*; that is, the respondent believes she or he can find a job largely through her or his own planning and effort.

The higher a respondent's score, the more positive his or her attitude about searching for a job. Means and standard deviations are provided in Table 5 later in this guide.

Dimensions Measured by the *JSAI*

Current theory indicates that many important factors need to be considered when helping people in the job search process. Perhaps the most important among these are the individuals' attitudes toward unemployment and searching for a job.

The purpose of the *JSAI* is to provide individuals with an overall picture of their attitudes in relation to the job search process. The attitudes covered in the inventory are crucial to an effective job search campaign. They were identified after a thorough review of the literature, case studies, and interviews with unemployed adults. The five scales on the *JSAI* are these:

- Luck vs. Planning: This scale shows how much individuals emphasize planning in a job search, rather than relying on luck to find a job.
- Uninvolved vs. Involved: This scale shows how involved individuals are in their search for a job, including learning new job search techniques and being willing to work hard at their job search.
- Help from Others vs. Self-Help: This scale shows how much individuals depend on outside agencies for help in finding a job, rather than relying on themselves.
- Passive vs. Active: This scale shows how much control individuals think they have in searching for a job—considering all possibilities—and how much they believe they will find a job through their own efforts.
- Pessimistic vs. Optimistic: This scale shows how optimistic individuals are in being able to find a job.

Theoretical Basis for the *JSAI*

The *JSAI* is based on the notion that self-directed motivation to search for a job can be enhanced by increasing a person's victor mentality, self-esteem, meaning in life, and career and life purpose. People who display other-directed motivation in their search for employment exhibit tendencies of learned helplessness and a victim mentality.

The *JSAI* is based on a landmark study that was conducted to determine the most important characteristics of a job search campaign. Helwig (1987) conducted this nationwide needs assessment in which 1,121 counselors employed in a variety of agencies were asked to determine the information needed by job seekers. In his study, respondents were asked to rate 95 items on the basis of importance; they rated how important the item (knowledge, awareness, or ability) would be in helping them assist students or clients find a job or in helping clients find a job through their own self-directed efforts. His study indicated that possessing personal motivation and effective job search attitudes are as important or more important than possessing job search skills and techniques.

Interestingly, "knowledge of the importance of personal responsibility in finding a job" rated as the twelfth most important item, ahead of most of the job search items related to such behaviors as "ability to understand the employer's expectations for a specific position," "knowledge of the steps in job hunting," and "knowledge of where to find job openings." Similarly, employment counselors in the sample rated "knowledge of the importance of personal responsibility in finding a job" as the *most* important of the 95 items. Helwig (1987, 88) concluded that "obviously, these employment counselors, who have been in the trenches for many years with many clients who are hard to place, realize the importance of client interest and motivation in finding work."

Learned Helplessness

In the development and implementation of the life skills program for offenders leaving prison (cf. Miller, 1997), Liptak (2000) developed the *Motivation Training* (MT) program. MT helps motivate people in their career development and search for employment. Based on Maslow's theory of motivation, the program has been shown to dramatically increase a person's self-directed job search attitudes. People who are self-directed tend to believe in planning a job search campaign rather than relying on luck. They are involved in the process, are willing to help themselves, and take responsibility for a comprehensive job search.

On the other hand, people who are other-directed tend to be very passive and unwilling to help themselves in their search for employment. They want other people to "find a job for them." This negative attitude has been referred to as "learned helplessness." As a result of failing to influence outcomes in their lives, people perceive themselves as helpless and out of control in most situations.

Wood (1989, 4) describes helplessness as "a phenomenon that results when repeated life experiences are interpreted by people to be an indication that they are not in control of their own fate." According to a model of learned helplessness based on attribution theory (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale, 1978), individuals' attributions about their perceived inability to have any control over past situations tends to lead to expectations about what will occur in future situations. In this model, the attributions or explanations people use to answer the question "What caused this to happen to me?" cause helplessness deficits in the areas of cognitions (beliefs that events and/or failures are uncontrollable), motivation (passivity and withdrawal), and emotions (sadness, anxiety, and hostility). This, in effect, leads to the fourth deficit, low self-

esteem, and then to further expectations of failure. The person lives with this self-fulfilling prophecy and tries to cope.

Liptak (2000) suggests that helplessness affects a person's career development and search for employment in many ways, including the following:

- Learned helplessness affects job search attitudes and behaviors. Learned helplessness results from the attributions made about the causes for job loss and/or one's failure to find a new job.
- The more severe a person perceives the situation of his or her job loss, the worse his or her attitudes are about looking for another job. This person sees the situation as having been caused by others and believes turning it around seems unlikely. This person becomes more passive in job search efforts. Helpless feelings also increase over time.
- The longer a person has been out of work, the more intensely she or he will view unemployment as irreversible. This person has "learned" that unemployment is the only option.
- This person will probably also experience such feelings as isolation, depression, and apathy. He or she may feel pessimistic about the chances of getting a job and be dissatisfied with life in general.

Lock (2005) suggests that most people searching for employment believe they are powerless, but in reality job seekers actually have as much power and control over the job search process as prospective employers. However, to have this power and control, job seekers must make up their minds from the start to take responsibility for their job search. Lock asserts that the best job hunters assume personal responsibility for finding a job, concluding that "professional career counselors, employment agency personnel, and college career services officials can help, but in the final analysis, the job seeker must put the words in the resume, complete the application form, do the company research, and face the employers in the interview" (Lock 2005, 19).

Self-Directed and Other-Directed Job Seekers

Liptak (2000) identifies two types of job seekers in the world: those who are *self-directed* and those who are *other-directed*. Self-directed job seekers are more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses than those who are other-directed. They are eager to learn more about their passions and their potential contributions to society. They are realistic about the time and effort needed to achieve their goals, and they have a sense of purpose in their lives. Positive self-awareness is realizing and understanding that we all have the right to fulfill our own potential in life. It is realizing that such things as intelligence, financial status, religious beliefs, birthplace, sex, and skin color do not measure worth. Liptak suggests that our attitudes actually define who we are and what we become. He compares self-directed and other-directed job seekers in the following ways:

- Self-directed job seekers take full responsibility for what happens in their lives. They feel self-determined, meaning they have the freedom to make choices that determine their own destiny. Other-directed job seekers believe that fate and luck ultimately share the outcome of their lives. They believe that they are predestined to live a life that is primarily determined by circumstances outside of themselves. They also believe they have to be "in the right place at the right time."

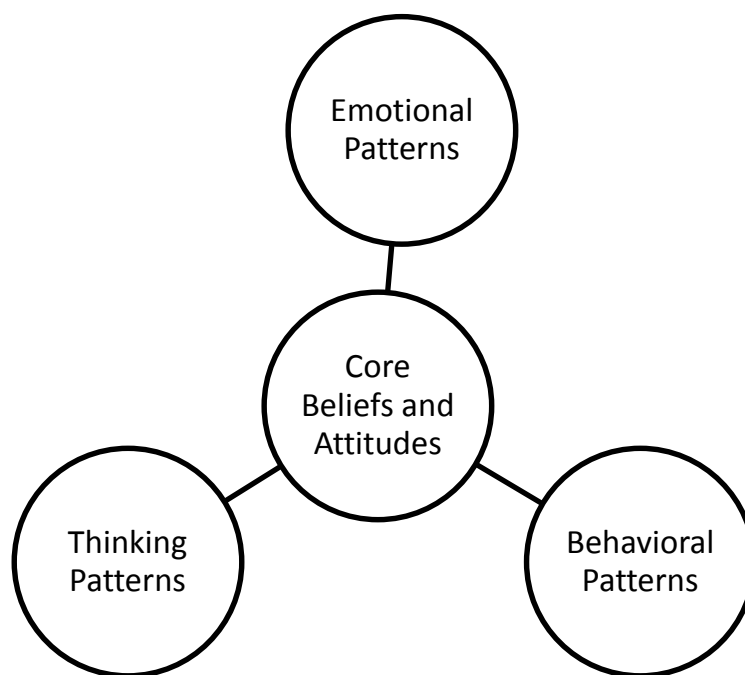
- Self-directed job seekers know the role they fulfill in life and have set goals to reach their full potential. Extremely honest, they don't kid themselves about their strengths and weaknesses. Other-directed job seekers tend to sell themselves short and don't recognize or use their own unique gifts.
- Self-directed job seekers realize that finding a job is their responsibility. They seek out support, look for possible solutions to problems, take risks, and actively pursue their dreams.
- Self-directed job seekers have the desire to succeed and are motivated from inside to change for the better. They see risk as an opportunity and don't fear the outcomes. Other-directed job seekers, however, believe that someone owes them a job or that the government is responsible for finding employment for them. They invent excuses for not getting things done. They wait, complain, and then often quit.

Daniel Goleman (2000) asserts that all people, especially job seekers, must have the emotional intelligence skills needed to perform in a variety of situations. Goleman (1995) describes emotional intelligence as a set of key skills, abilities, and competencies that—unlike the traditional intelligence quotient (IQ), which is primarily innate—can be learned by anyone. He writes that emotional intelligence includes such skills as being able to motivate oneself, being persistent in facing obstacles and achieving goals, taking responsibility for one's actions, controlling impulses and delaying gratification, controlling one's moods, thinking rationally, and planning for the future.

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) suggest that emotional intelligence is a set of abilities that account for how a more accurate understanding of emotions often helps people solve problems in their emotional lives. They define emotional intelligence as “the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others” (396). They see emotional intelligence as including such skills as actively pursuing goals, taking responsibility, not giving up, planning, and controlling one's own destiny. Such research reinforces the value of positive, self-directed attitudes in the job search process.

Attitudes

Bandura (1977) asserts that one's beliefs and attitudes about one's ability to perform a given function—like searching for a job—are the critical factors in success. Chapman and McKnight (2002) describe attitude as a general disposition or mental beginning point for viewing life and the events and people in it. They suggest that attitude is the way people look at things mentally, the overall mood they interpret in what they see, and what they say and do about what they see. Much of the current literature suggests that people's attitudes make up the core beliefs they develop over their lifespans. Downing (1996) thinks these core beliefs, in turn, determine people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. He suggests the following conceptual view of an attitude, shown on the next page.



Scholars and researchers offer many tools and techniques for changing limiting core beliefs and attitudes, which career and employment counselors might find useful. These include finding ways to see negative events—like unemployment—as positive opportunities and quite possibly the beginning of something great (Platkin, 2005), revising outdated attitude patterns by challenging the unrealistic nature of the attitudes (Downing, 1996), using mental imagery training (Joseph, 2003), and learning to thrive in the chaos of unemployment (Shoup, 2000).

Models for Enhancing Job Search Attitudes

Amundson and Borgen (2000) identify a need for employment counselors to help unemployed clients who might be described as discouraged and unmotivated—clients who have attitudes that affect their readiness to act as agents in the work world. Scholars and researchers have proposed many models for helping people enhance their job search attitudes to ensure greater job search and career success.

Career-oriented cognitive-behavioral therapy is one way to help job seekers overcome a poor job search attitude. Proudfoot and Guest (1997) found that when compared with social support alone, cognitive-behavioral techniques are more likely to improve employment rates and mental health functioning among long-term unemployed adults. Similarly, Alemagno and Dickie (2005), who work with offenders, found that when helping people find jobs upon release from prison, career counselors should use change theory and motivational enhancement strategies to enhance job search attitudes and build a commitment for change. In their research, they reviewed the literature about increasing employment opportunities for offenders upon release from prison and reported that improving skills, attitudes toward self, and self-esteem will increase employment. Wonberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo's (1999) research confirms that among long-term job seekers, job search attitude is related to job search commitment, expectations about finding a job, and career orientation.

Bezanson (2004) recommends using solution-focused therapy (SFT) to help clients develop a vision of an alternative future. This approach assumes that clients possess the talents and resources to effectively deal with the realities of the job search process. Bezanson believes the SFT approach “does not attempt to eliminate problems but rather attempts to develop new

meanings or new ways of looking at problems so that the process of solution building can begin” (2004, 184). Clients attending employment counseling are often in a demoralized state, and possibilities are not in the forefront of their minds. The SFT approach empowers clients to shift perceptions and definitions of reality that inhibit action to perceptions of building solutions for employment alternatives. The SFT counselor empowers clients to take responsibility for creating a plan for a future congruent with their needs and desires.

Muscat (2005) explores the applicability of the transtheoretical model (TTM) of change (Prochaska and DiClemente, 1982) as a way of counseling resistant or unmotivated clients looking for employment. The TTM model proposes three interrelated dimensions: (1) the readiness status of the client; (2) what the client is doing, or needs to do, to bring about a change in status; and (3) the belief about the client’s ability, confidence, or self-efficacy to find a job.

Britt, Hudson, and Blampied (2004) suggest that motivational interviewing, described by Miller and Rollnick (2002, 25) as “a client-centered directive method for enhancing intrinsic motivation to change by exploring and resolving ambivalence,” could be an important and underutilized model that provides career and employment counselors with tools and techniques to create change in their clients’ lives. Motivational interviewing attempts to change clients’ perceptions of job searching by focusing on what clients want, expect, believe, and fear.

Job Search Mind-Set

Interest continues to increase in the role job search attitudes play in a person’s ability to search for and attain employment. Liptak (2009) mentions that to be successful, people must accept responsibility for their actions, emotions, and career choices. Job seekers who struggle to find employment often fall back into old negative habits, including blaming others for their lack of success, complaining about their bad luck, and making excuses for themselves. He concludes that changing these negative attitudes is critical when searching for and finding employment. Similarly, Liptak (2012) calls for people to change their mind-sets so they can be more successful in finding employment. Liptak (2008) notes that in a world of change, all people must be prepared to deal with a never-ending series of transitions. He contends that “career change is inevitable but embraceable—provided you have a sense of direction and the right attitude” (2008, 5).

Vogt (2014) identifies four negative job search attitudes that seem to derail most job search efforts: a sense of entitlement and deserving a job, a lack of a focused job search campaign, feeling sorry for oneself, and an inability to control negative emotions such as anger and despair. In a study correlating time perspective and job search attitudes, Les (2013) reveals the following:

- For job seekers, the duration of unemployment, the extent of hopelessness, and feelings of powerlessness increase with the belief that life is dependent on external forces that cannot be controlled.
- People who tend to be negative about the past or present score lower on all scales of the *JSAI*.
- Younger job seekers tend to be more present-oriented and are prone to focus on current pleasure and risk, without concern for the consequences of their behavior in the future.

Huffman (2009) asserts that a positive job search attitude is critical in a successful job search campaign. He details seven steps in attaining a positive job search attitude:

1. Believe in self. Job seekers must develop the confidence to affect their own search for employment.
2. Establish specific goals or objectives. Setting and realizing goals directly impacts attitudes.
3. Strengthen self-discipline. Procrastination can be psychologically self-defeating.
4. Plan for success. Job seekers must develop and work at a specific plan for success.
5. Think positively. Displaying a positive attitude and demonstrating their abilities is crucial to job seekers' success.
6. Get keyed to succeed. The mind is a goal-seeking device that can be trained to expect great results in a job search campaign.
7. Avoid negativity. Negative thoughts come in the forms of uncertainty, complacency, and ultimately failure in any job search. Therefore, a positive, action-oriented job search attitude is critical in finding employment. There is a direct correlation between positive, productive attitudes and success in the job search.

From this review of the literature, it's clear that self-directed job search skills are critical in conducting an effective job search campaign. People who have the most effective self-directed job search skills will be the most employable—important findings against the increased competition for available jobs.

Development of the *JSAI*

The rational-empirical method of test construction (Crites, 1978) was used to develop the *JSAI*. This method identified the concepts or behaviors considered most important to measure. For the *JSAI*, these concepts or behaviors were identified from research and journal articles about a variety of job club and job search approaches. Latham (1987) was the primary researcher and gathered preliminary data about positive and negative job search attitudes and behaviors.

This initial conceptualization and research on job search behaviors indicated that an individual's success in finding a job is largely determined by that individual's positive or negative job search attitudes. Since no psychometric instruments for assessing an individual's job search attitudes existed, this self-administered inventory was developed.

Changes to the Fourth Edition

Following are the two major changes from the third edition of the *JSAI* to the fourth edition:

1. A new scale—Pessimistic vs. Optimistic—was added to the *JSAI* to make it more representative of the attitudes job seekers must possess when seeking employment. Research indicates that individuals' pessimistic attitudes are often to blame for their failure to become re-employed. In fact, career counselors are often called upon to help unemployed clients who are both discouraged and unmotivated, attitudes that affect their readiness to act as agents in the search for employment. The Pessimistic vs. Optimistic scale measures an individual's emotional outlook in looking for a job. This scale can help counselors identify people whose negative attitudes are keeping them from finding a job. To accommodate the questions for this scale, the dimensions of the profile were reduced and restructured.

2. The wording of some of the inventory items changed to make them more pertinent in today's world of work.

Changes to the Fifth Edition

Following are the four major changes from the fourth edition of the *JSAI* to the fifth edition:

1. Items on all five scales were changed to reflect changes in society and the world of work.
2. The validity of the *JSAI* was calculated to include the fifth scale (Pessimistic vs. Optimistic).
3. Norms were developed to include scores for adults in Slovenia.
4. The interpretation material and suggestions for improvement in Step 4 of the *JSAI* were revised to reflect changes in the job search landscape, and the worksheet for Step 4 was revised to provide a more focused exercise in goal setting and self-evaluation.

Reliability

Initial evidence of *JSAI*'s reliability was computed in terms of internal consistency (alpha coefficients) for adults (see Table 1), stability (test-retest correlations) for an adult population (see Table 2), and split-half reliability (see Table 3). The database consisted of more than 100 unemployed adults participating in outplacement counseling programs or workforce development programs. As shown in Table 1, the alpha coefficients for the *JSAI* ranged from a low of .85 to a high of .91, all of which were statistically significant at the .01 level. Table 2 shows that many people in this initial pool of subjects were tested approximately three months later with the test-retest reliabilities ranging from .60 to .76. These test-retest scores show consistency from one administration to the next.

To provide further evidence of the internal consistency of *JSAI* scales, split-half reliability estimates were also obtained. These coefficients, which ranged from .53 to .81, are presented in Table 3.

Validity

To develop realistic inventory items, resource materials from case studies, interviews with unemployed adults, and research and journal articles about a variety of job clubs and job search programs were examined. From this review, the original four scales that make up the *JSAI* were found to represent the attitudes contributing to a self-directed job search.

A pool of 50 statements was then derived to represent the four scales. Three professional counselors from outplacement counseling, career counseling, and rehabilitation counseling fields reviewed and revised the draft statements. These counselors were instructed to place the statements into the most appropriate and descriptive scales. The statements were then reviewed and edited for style, clarity, and appropriateness for measuring positive and negative job search attitudes. Finally, statements were screened to eliminate any reference to race, sex, culture, or ethnic origin.

A sample population of unemployed adults completed draft copies of the *JSAI* to gather statistical data about the inventory. From this research, a final pool of statements that measured each of the four job search attitudes was chosen, making a total of 32 statements for the combined scales of the *JSAI*. Later, eight more items representing a new scale, Pessimistic vs. Optimistic, were added. In addition, information was gathered concerning the inventory's content, format, and utility.

Concurrent validity for the *JSAI* is shown in the form of interscale correlations based on an adult sample (see Table 4). In general, these correlations are of low magnitude, the highest being .58. This evidence supports the independence of the scales.

In addition to computing alpha coefficients and interscale correlations, construct validity was computed for the *JSAI* (see Table 5). From an initial sample of 135 people, males ($M = 20.00$) and females ($M = 19.62$) both scored the lowest on the Passive vs. Active scale. This suggests that taking a passive role in the job search process is the most common negative job search attitude. Similarly, both males ($M = 26.77$) and females ($M = 26.00$) scored highest on the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale. This suggests that finding a job on one's own—rather than relying on community or government agencies—is the most positive job search attitude for both sexes. The most noticeable difference between males and females occurred on the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale. Although they both scored in the high (that is, self-directed) range, males ($M = 26.23$) tended to be more self-directed than females ($M = 24.39$), suggesting that males tended to be a little more involved in the job search process than females.

Means and standard deviations have been subsequently calculated for 1,693 people by groups taking the *JSAI*. The groups included offenders, welfare-to-work clients, community college students, and youth ages 12 to 18 (Table 6). Means and standard deviations from a population completing the third edition of the *JSAI* are included in Table 7. Women scored highest on the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 24.76$) followed by the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale ($M = 24.58$). Women scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 21.51$) followed by the Passive vs. Active scale ($M = 22.34$). This data suggests that women tend to be involved in their search for employment and willing to take responsibility for finding a job, but they tend to be a little passive and less planning-focused than they should be to find a job.

Men scored highest on the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale ($M = 22.77$) followed by the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 22.33$). Men scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 21.27$) followed by the Passive vs. Active scale ($M = 21.64$). Men tended to score identically to women on all four scales.

When combined, men and women and scored highest on the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale ($M = 23.60$) followed by the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 23.44$). Men and women combined scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 21.38$) followed by the Passive vs. Active scale ($M = 21.96$). Based on these results, several generalizations can be made:

- Men and women tend to score highest to lowest in the same categories. Based on this information, employment and training programs need to be geared to helping clients plan their career and job search and finding ways to get them as involved as possible.
- Women tend to score higher than men in every category, suggesting that their job search attitude tends to be better than that of men.
- Men and women face many of the same job search attitude problems.

Table 1: Internal Consistency (Alpha Correlations) *	
Scale	Alpha Coefficient
Luck vs. Planning	.85
Uninvolved vs. Involved	.88
Help from Others vs. Self Help	.91
Passive vs. Active	.89

* N = 135 Adults

Table 3: Split-Half Reliability*	
Scale	Split-Half
Luck vs. Planning	.75
Uninvolved vs. Involved	.53
Help from Others vs. Self Help	.72
Passive vs. Active	.81

* N = 135 Adults

Table 2: Stability (Test-Retest Correlations) *	
Scale	Test/Retest
Luck vs. Planning	.66
Uninvolved vs. Involved	.60
Help from Others vs. Self Help	.75
Passive vs. Active	.76

* N = 107 Adults. Retest performed three months after original testing.

Table 4: Intercorrelations Among JSAI Scales*				
Scale	Luck vs. Planning	Uninvolved vs. Involved	Help Others vs. Self-Help	Passive vs. Active
Luck vs. Planning	1.00			
Uninvolved vs. Involved	.58	1.00		

Help from Others vs. Self-Help	.47	.45	1.00	
Passive vs. Active	-.21	-.19	.11	1.00

* N = 135 Adults

Table 5: JSAI Means and Standard Deviations for Adults

Scale	Total (N = 135)		Male (N = 70)		Female (N = 65)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Luck vs. Planning	22.19	2.12	22.46	2.22	21.92	2.43
Uninvolved vs. Involved	25.31	1.92	26.23	2.86	24.39	1.50
Help from Others vs. Self-Help	26.39	2.31	26.77	2.74	26.00	2.19
Passive vs. Active	19.80	2.18	20.00	2.42	19.62	2.22

Table 6: JSAI Means and Standard Deviations for Selected Groups

Scale	Offenders		Welfare to Work		College Students		Youth	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Luck vs. Planning	23.38	3.33	22.62	3.82	23.32	2.54	21.03	3.81
Uninvolved vs. Involved	24.49	4.69	24.91	3.57	25.29	2.61	18.92	5.02
Help from Others vs. Self-Help	26.84	3.81	26.58	3.72	26.35	2.71	18.07	4.17
Passive vs. Active	21.32	2.79	20.03	3.69	20.92	2.41	16.17	5.82

Offenders: N = 554 respondents; Welfare-to-Work Clients: N = 296 respondents; College Students: N = 535 respondents; Youth ages 12–18: N = 308 respondents

Table 7: JSAI Means and Standard Deviations for Adults

Scale	Total (N = 129)		Male (N = 70)		Female (N = 59)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Luck vs. Planning	21.38	4.79	21.27	5.36	21.51	4.06
Uninvolved vs. Involved	23.44	5.23	22.33	5.27	24.76	4.90
Help from Others vs. Self-Help	23.60	5.34	22.77	5.47	24.58	5.05
Passive vs. Active	21.96	4.44	21.64	5.07	22.34	3.57

JSAI Fourth Edition

The fourth edition of the *JSAI* included a new scale called Pessimistic vs. Optimistic. This scale measures how positive people are about their job search and their future. The results for the fifth edition (See Table 8) of the *JSAI* also include scores on all five scales of the *JSAI*.

For the fourth edition, women scored highest on the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 23.05$), suggesting that women are involved in their search for employment. It should be noted, however, that this score is considered in the high-average range, very close to the high range. Women also tended to be fairly optimistic ($M = 21.64$) about their future and their search for employment. Women scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 19.36$), suggesting that they believe an element of luck needed to find employment.

Men scored lower than women on every scale except for the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale ($M = 22.16$), although this was not the highest scoring scale for men. This suggests that men are more likely than women to depend less on other agencies and other people in their search for employment. Men scored highest on the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 22.59$), suggesting that men are becoming much more involved in their job search campaign than with previous administrations of the *JSAI*. Men scored lowest on the Pessimistic vs. Optimistic scale ($M = 19.24$), suggesting that they are somewhat pessimistic about their chances of gaining employment.

When looking at combined scores, men and women scores highest on the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 22.79$), although this score is still in the high-average range. The lowest scores when combined include the Pessimistic vs. Optimistic scale ($M = 20.35$) and the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 20.37$). Career and employment counselors still need to help clients be more optimistic, take responsibility for their job search, and not rely on luck in finding employment.

A study (Les, 2013) was completed in Slovenia (See Table 9) to explore the relationship between the dimensions of time perspective and attitudes to job search campaign with unemployed adults (Mentor, 2013). Interestingly, the scores for both men and women were very similar, and little difference could be found in their job search attitudes.

Adult men in Slovenia tend to have the most responsible job search attitudes on the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale ($M = 24.02$) and the Uninvolved vs. Involved scale ($M = 22.14$). They scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 19.93$) and Passive vs. Active scale ($M = 20.99$). This suggests that men rely on themselves and not outside agencies in their search for employment and that they are somewhat involved in the search process.

As can be seen from Table 9, adult women in Slovenia scored highest and lowest on the same scales. Women scored highest on the Help from Others vs. Self-Help ($M = 25.60$) scale. They tended to be even more self-reliant than the men. Similarly, they scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale ($M = 20.49$) and Passive vs. Active scale ($M = 21.67$). This suggests that women rely on themselves and not outside agencies in their search for employment and that they are somewhat involved in the search process.

Adults in Slovenia tend to have the most responsible job search attitudes on the Help from Others vs. Self-Help scale (M = 24.93) and Uninvolved vs. Involved scale (M = 22.50). On the other hand, they scored lowest on the Luck vs. Planning scale (M = 20.25) and Passive vs. Active scale (M = 21.15). This suggests that they rely on themselves and not outside agencies in their search for employment and that they are somewhat involved in the search process.

Table 8: JSAI Means and Standard Deviations for Adults Using Fourth Edition

Scale	Total (N = 190)		Male (N = 102)		Female (N = 88)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Luck vs. Planning	20.37	4.08	21.24	4.13	19.36	3.77
Uninvolved vs. Involved	22.79	3.62	22.59	4.02	23.05	3.08
Help from Others vs. Self-Help	21.50	4.60	22.16	4.39	20.75	4.72
Passive vs. Active	20.78	3.43	20.53	3.07	21.02	3.82
Pessimistic vs. Optimistic	20.35	3.89	19.24	3.44	21.64	3.98

Table 9: JSAI Means and Standard Deviations for Adults Using Fourth Edition in Slovenia

Scale	Total (N = 203)		Male (N = 86)		Female (N = 117)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Luck vs. Planning	20.25	4.09	19.93	4.13	20.49	4.06
Uninvolved vs. Involved	22.50	3.48	22.14	3.54	22.77	3.43
Help from Others vs. Self-Help	24.93	3.53	24.02	3.80	25.60	3.17
Passive vs. Active	21.15	3.50	20.99	3.72	21.27	3.33
Pessimistic vs. Optimistic	21.72	4.09	21.67	3.97	21.67	3.97

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About the Author

John Liptak, Ed.D., is one of the leading developers of quantitative and qualitative assessments in the country. He is the associate director of the Experiential Learning and Career Development office at Radford University in Radford, Virginia. He provides career assessment and career counseling services for students and administers and interprets a variety of career assessments. Dr. Liptak focuses on helping students develop their careers by becoming engaged in a variety of learning, leisure, and work experiences.

In addition to the *JSAI*, Dr. Liptak has created the following assessments for JIST Publishing: *Career Exploration Inventory*, *Transition-to-Work Inventory*, *Job Search Knowledge Scale*, *Job Survival and Success Scale*, *Barriers to Employment Success Inventory*, *Transferable Skills Scale*, *College to Career Transition Inventory*, *Career Planning Scale*, *Offender Reintegration Scale*, and *College Survival and Success Scale*. Dr. Liptak consults on the development of assessments for schools and agencies around the country and has developed specialized assessment instruments for use with clients.