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ATTITUDE CHANGE IN FEMALE UNDERGRADUATES TOWARD OCCUPATION
GOALS AND ROLE ORIENTATION

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education: Vocational Education

by
Jung Hou
September 1998

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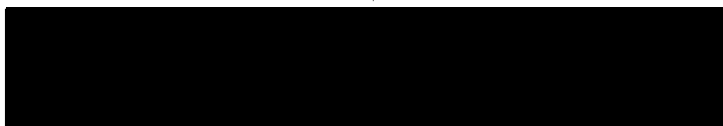
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ABSTRACT

Expanding technological developments synchronized with socio-economic changes have impacted society and the views and values regarding women's priorities in life, role orientation, job selection, and the way they define achievement.

In the past, jobs such as housekeeping, nursing, teaching, secretarial working, and social work, etc., have been identified as tradition occupations for females. Today, 21st Century occupations are available. Women are now competing for the same, high pay, more challenging jobs. Examples of these jobs are senior executives, attorneys, pilots, and doctors.

Therefore, the purpose of the study was to assess the attitudes and perceptions of maturing females. The focus of the study was to compare and contrast traditional and non-traditional role perception, expectation, and performance. It was hoped to verify the female role shift and job achievement.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

No accomplishment such as this can be made without the support of many people. I would like to thank to my advisor, Professor John C. Emerson, for his guidance, encouragement, and patience to complete this thesis. He was an enthusiast and interesting instructor and advisor. Also, I would like to thank Dr. Ronald K. Pendleton and Dr. Joseph A. Scarcella for their time and encouragement during my study.

Most importantly, I would like to thank my parents and my sisters, for their love, strength, and support. They always encouraged me to reach for my dreams.

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CHAPTER ONE

Background

Introduction

The contents of Chapter One present an overview of the project. The context of the problem is discussed followed by the purpose and significance of the project. Next, the limitations and delimitations that apply to this project are reviewed. Finally, a definition of terms is presented.

Context of the Problem

With quickening technological breakthroughs and socio-economic changes, more and more women find it necessary to join the labor force, but when it comes to discussing their occupations and earnings relative to those of their male counterparts, especially the projections made by authoritative authors (which are usually about a decade behind times), we sometimes find their opinions misleading because things do not necessarily turn out the way conventional wisdom believes they do. At present, while there is an increasing proportion of female job-seekers, an increasing number of job openings are available for them. The percentage of women in the labor force has risen continually from 35.7% (as compared with 85.4% of men) in 1955 to 59.3% (as compared with 74.9 of men) in 1996, and by 2005, 61.7% of women will be working (as compared to 72.9 of men) (Wall Street Journal Almanac, 1998). Considering this, the estimated growth in the labor force between 1986 and 2000 is expected to be nearly 21 million jobs with women comprising nearly two-thirds of the new entrants to the work force during this period (Hoyt, 1988).

Much as women in today's work force are still under represented in occupational areas experiencing the greatest job growth but over represented in areas experiencing the least growth, the gap is narrowing. Hoyt (1989) has warned us that by 2000, 80% of the females in the 25~54 age group will be holding a job, and 90% of the 21 million new jobs projected will be in service-producing industries and that the greatest number of jobs will be in low-wage occupations (e.g., private households, cleaners, handlers, helpers), which are more likely to be available to women with limited skills (Hoyt, 1989). For instance, in private households, the lowest wage category, 346,000 women each received a \$213 median weekly earning in 1996 while only 19,000 men held the same category of job and their earnings are not available (Information Please Almanac, 1998). In administrative support including clerical 10,648,000 women were employed for \$391 as compared with only 3,212,000 men for \$489 (Information Please Almanac, 1998). In technical, sales, and administrative support, 16,128,000 women were employed for \$394 a week as compared with 9,988,000 men, who earned \$567. Hoyt (1989) also pointed out that the percentage of women in professional and management occupations nearly doubled in the 1970's, but almost 20 years later, women continue primarily to be clustered in low-status, low-paying clerical jobs, retail sales, and service jobs, with 75% of the jobs in higher paying profession held just by men. These infers that women may tend to be less capable of occupational success by the educational system than men.

It is projected that by the year 2000 75% of all workers who will be employed in the labor force today, suggesting that the large number of women entering the labor force, in the next decade will have slim chances of upward mobility (Hoyt, 1989).

Comparing with Hoyt's projection, there is a far better scenario. Due to the long-standing strong economy and the global economy which is shifting no small number of low-paid manufacturing jobs overseas, while the unemployment rates of women of 16-year-old and over in 1995 and 1996 were the same as men, i.e., 5.6% and 5.4 respectively. (Information Please Almanac, 1998), the percentage of women employees at the executive/professional ranks rose from 43.7% in 1983 to 45.2 in 1996, and their figures exceeded their male counterparts in 1996 in professional specialty (53.3%), psychologists (61.4), authors (54.1%), editors/reporters (55.7%), medical/health managers (75.3), and accountants/auditors (56%), while between 1986 and 1996, their percentage in lower-paid occupations such as technical, sales, and administrative support and service occupations dropped and in operators, fabricators, and laborers and in farming, forestry and fishing remained unchanged (Wall Street Journal, 1998).

In 1995 CPI-U-X1 (Consumer Price Index) adjusted dollars, women's median earnings between 1970 and 1996 relative to men's showed sure but slow improvement. While the average man's median earning dropped from \$33,890 to \$32,199, the average woman's rose from \$20,074 to \$23,777 (Information Please Almanac, 1998).

The impact of women on the labor force can be inferred from labor force projections, which provide clear evidence of the need for women to have exposure to careful vocational planning and decision-making strategies and for career development specialists to understand female vocational development.

The evidence points in the following direction: "Women tend to marry later, less of their lives are spent in childbearing and rearing activities, they are having fewer children,

and an increasing number of women function as heads of household.” The change in the feminine role from homemaker to salary-earner can have a tremendous impact on society, the work force, and the role of work as a major vehicle for self-expression, self-esteem, and personal fulfillment.

Apart from using the male career development theory for the career development of women, a review of the literature indicates that some basic issues have been raised that should be taken into consideration when studying females. 1) According to Farmer (1976), women tend to experience a decline in academic self-confidence during their college years. Young college women believe they are less intelligent than men resulting in lower prestige and aspirations. 2) Women are thought to have been influenced in their career development by what men think is appropriate female behavior (Hawley, 1971). Additionally, 3) Hawley (1971) revealed that young college women have feared the perceived negative social consequences of high achievement and/or intelligence, and they have feared that success in achievement situations results in loss of femininity or being unpopular with men. This view is expressed in the classic idea that a “smart” woman will not find a husband, which reminds one of the traditional Chinese male chauvinist norm in “A woman’s lack of talent is her virtue.” This notion has been applied particularly to heterosexual relationships and it may be a major inhibitor of women’s aspirations (Hawley, 1971). A variation of this assumption is that women enjoy vicarious achievement motivation. They are satisfied through the achievements of significant others (i.e., spouse and children) rather than through their own accomplishments (Smith, 1972). This is even more true in Asian communities, which accounts for the parents’

(especially mother's) mind-set in this Chinese saying "longing for the son to become a dragon." This vicarious achievement is thought to limit the career aspirations of women and foster the acceptance of "traditional" female vocational roles. Finally, young women have been depicted as unable to cope with the conflict between the roles of homemaker and career woman (Hawley, 1971). This research has indicated that such conflicts have inhibited the aspirations and achievement of many college women.

Considering this, career roles for men and women are changing. More men assist with child rearing in addition to their careers and more women pursue careers while raising a family (Schachter, 1989). In 1955, only 35.7% of women (as compared with 85.4% of men) were in the work force; in 1996 their percentage grew to 59.3% (while that of men dropped to 64.9%), and by 2005, their projected percentage will be 61.7% as compared with men's 72.9% (Wall Street Journal, 1998). The majority of married women today work to supplement their family income. Statistics show that in 1955, only 27% of mothers with children under 18 were working, 70.2% of the same category of mothers were working in 1996 (Information Please Almanac, 1998). Working mothers is now the rule rather than an exception.

This study will investigate the career development of young college women and re-entry college women. A Career Goal Questionnaire and Personality Mosaic will be used to demonstrate traditional and non-traditional career roles, life style option, vocational aspiration, and social evolution.

Purpose of the Project

This topic will examine the differences and similarities in the career development of young college women and re-entry college women. The purpose of this corrective study, involving two groups of women, (i.e., young and re-entry women enrolled in a four-year colleges) is to identify any relationships between two sets, specifically, this study will investigate: 1) Traditional and non-traditional career and lifestyle options and 2) The difference in high achievement motivation levels of the two groups. The hypotheses reached are as follows: 1) Young college women will have more non-traditional career and lifestyle options than the re-entry. 2) Young college women will be more likely to have a positive view of high achievement motivation than re-entry women.

Significance of the Project

The project is intended to shed light on how female intellectuals feel about career selection, how they define achievement, how within hardly one half generation they change their attitude and values, and how they orient themselves in role-playing.

Limitation and Delimitations

A number of limitations and delimitations surfaced during the development of this project. They are presented in the next section.

Limitation

Given the disproportionate categories of subjects, the relative small sample size of the re-entry group (28) in proportion to the young woman undergraduates (138), and the disproportionately large number of ethnic Chinese students, the findings may be limited in their validity in these respects.

Delimitations

The following delimitations of the study serve to narrow the focus of the study and limit the generalizability of the findings:

1. Subjects are sampled from only four universities.
2. Only women are surveyed.
3. Only women attending college are surveyed.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as they apply to this project.

Career Option-- self-selected occupations (e.g., artist, lawyer, doctor, and secretary, to name only a few) developed in this research. These occupations are then classified as representative of either traditional or non-traditional careers. (Osipow, 1983)

Career Role-- a role in which a woman may or may not be married, but engages in significant out-of-home employment at various times in her life (perhaps with interruptions for childbearing and a few years of intense mothering). Women were identified in terms of career-oriented types as measured by an Investigative (I-type) and/or Enterprising (E-type) type score on the Personality Mosaic (Moichelozzi, 1980).

High Achievement-- work which produces visible, tangible results and gives the individual a sense of accomplishment. (McClelland, 1953)

Homemaker Role-- a role in which a woman never engages in any significant paid work outside her role as wife, mother, and homemaker. Women are identified as homemaker-

oriented types as measured by Conventional (C-type) and/or Social (S-type) type score on the Personality Mosaic (Michelozzi, 1980).

Life-plan Options-- the degrees of work involvement women anticipated in their lives, especially within a marriage (e.g., to never work or to work most of the time combining a career and marriage). Life-plan options will be listed in the Career Questionnaire and defined as either traditional or non-traditional life-plan options. (Osipow, 1983)

Traditional Female Vocational Role-- work in a career role thought to be socially “appropriate” for women to engage in including teaching, nursing, clerical, and social work. (Strong, 1951)

Non-Traditional Female Vocational Role-- work that does not exclude any occupation but does include occupational areas that women have not typically entered including such fields as law, medicine, engineering, media, and administration. (Strong, 1951)

Organization of the Project

This project is divided into five chapters. Chapter one provides an introduction to the context of the problem, purpose of the project, significance of the project, limitation and delimitations, and definition of terms. Chapter Two consists of a review of the literature. Chapter Three outlines the population to be served and the project design. Chapter Four reviews the research and survey analysis. Chapter Five presents the conclusion and recommendations gleaned from the thesis. The references follow Chapter Five.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

Introduction

This Chapter consists of a discussion of the relevant literature. The chapter begins with an introduction which is followed by two sections: (A) a review of major theoretical formulation and (B) the presentation of studies that have focused on the relationship of selected variables to women's vocational development. In the first section, major theoretical formulations including the following are reviewed: (A) self-concept and developmental theories (Super, 1957a); and (B) adult developmental theory. In the second section, selected variables in study of women's career development are review including: (A) traditional and non-traditional career and lifestyle options (B) homemaking and career roles, and (C) achievement motion.

Literature Subsection One

Review of Major Theoretical Formulation

While the traditional career developmental theories may not be sufficient to adequately explain women's career development, they shed light on women's career development. Super (1957a) suggests that the approaches to career development and choice fall into three categories "those developments match people and occupations, those that describe development leading to matching, and those that focus on decision-making" (Herr & Cramer, 1984, P.89). The current study is focused on the developmental theories of vocational development and choice. A review of two major

developmental theories will be presented in this section: (A) Super's (1957a) self-concept and developmental theories; and (B) his adult developmental theory.

Super's Self-Concept and Development Theories

Donald Super has made extensive study of vocational development. Super (1957a) proposed that the individual will choose an occupation that allows him/her to operate in a role consistent with his/her self-concept. This implementation is a function of the individual's stage-of-life development, which in Super's theory is based on three psychological areas: (A) differential psychology; (B) self-concept theory; and (C) developmental psychology.

As regards the field of differential psychology, Super believes that the individual is capable of success and satisfaction in different occupational environments (1957a). He points out that the trait-factor notion in which interests and abilities fall into patterns that are more consistent with some occupations than others. Individuals in those occupations that require patterns of interests and abilities are different than their own.

The second psychological area in Super's model has emerged from the self-concept theory. Children are thought to observe and identify with adults involved in various activities including work causing the development of vocational self-concept. Because these self-concepts change with time and experience, it makes choice and adjustment an on-going process. The individual chooses occupations that will allow him/her to function in roles that are consistent with this conceptualization of the self. Super also feels that each individual possesses a range of abilities and occupational traits. As the individual

grows through adolescence to adulthood, this self-concept becomes firmly established as part of his/her personality.

The third area is based on theories and research related to the field of developmental psychology which emphasizes that many behaviors are under continual modification over the life span of the individual. The life-span concepts led Super to the idea of career patterns.

The career behavior of people follows general patterns which may be recognized as regular and predictable after study and examination of the individual. These patterns are the result of many psychological, physical, situational, and societal factors which, when accumulated, make up and individual's life. (Osipow, 1983, p. 54)

This view suggests that career choices may tend to occur throughout the life span rather than at any particular moment in time. Super (1957) acknowledged that "women's careers have not been studied in the way in which Miller and Zorn (1951) studied men's careers" (p.76). Because of biological differences, the careers women choose tend to differ from those men choose. For example, a "woman's role as childbearers makes them the keystone of the home, and therefore gives homemaking a central place in her career" (Super, 1957b, p.76). Much as this is a controversial "sexist" viewpoint, Super was the first and only early vocational developmentalist to classify women's career patterns.

For women, seven career patterns have been identified: Seven clearly separate working roles from homemaker roles and three patterns reflect alternation between working and homemaking are as following: (A) Stable/homemaker where the woman married shortly after completing her education with little or no significant work

experience. (B) Stable/career pattern is identified by entry into a career that becomes the woman's life work. (C) Conventional pattern which includes a work period after education and then full-time homemaker or in which work is pursued in traditional occupations. (D) Unstable pattern which mirrors irregular economic pressures. (E) Double track patterns reflected by women who continue to work and are homemakers simultaneously. (F) Interrupted pattern identified by the woman working, leaving a job for homemaking and returning to working after a period of time. And (G) multiple trial, which includes a series of unrelated and unstable jobs.

Adult Developmental Theory

For over fifteen years, more and more emphasis on adult career development has been placed on research exploring career related factors. No small number of researchers have argued that exploration and change do not end with adolescence but are a life-long processes. As previously mentioned in this review, Super (1957a) has extended his initial work to include the possibility that career decision-making is a life-span phenomenon. Recent theorists have studied the implementation of a first work choice through the Establishment Stage into the middle-career period. Cowden (1975) drew the following conclusions: (A) The process the individual employs when choosing a career is a major confrontation with aging, that is, the individual expects that the choice will determine how the rest of life will be "filled in." (B) Students feel that beginning a lifetime in a field of a second or third choice is tragic. (C) More people are changing career field. (D) The educational system places pressure on the student to narrow a variety of occupational

choices to a single one which focuses attention further on the aging process. The general view is that individuals may have several careers in their work.

Literature Subsection Two

Selected Variables in the Study of Women's Vocational Development

The literature on women's career development covers an extensive range of variables. The review for this study will focus on traditional and non-traditional career and life style options, homemaking and career roles of women, and achievement motivation.

Traditional and Non-traditional Career and Lifestyle Options

Lifestyle Options

During the early 60's, literature supported the view that women preferred marriage over career as a lifestyle option. In their study of career and marriage attitudes of 1,237 girls and young women, Mattews and Tiedeman (1964) described an indicator of lifestyle as level of education, type of course pursued in high school, and plans for patterning career and marriage. According to Mattews and Tiedeman (1964), themes affecting lifestyle during maturation include: "(1) a woman's impression of the male's reaction to use of her intelligence; (2) struggle over the possible position of dominance of men at work and the "place" of women at home; (3) conflict between family and work demands upon the time of a wife and mother; (4) dilemmas of timing in dating and marriage; and (5) issues in acceptance of the general outline of the feminine role." (p. 375)

In the early 1970's, researchers began reporting evidence of a movement toward career development for lifestyle choices made by women. Rand and Miller (1972), postulated that "a new cultural imperative" was emerging which accommodates both

marriage and career decisions for women. "As young women develop they become more liberal in their attitudes and desires about work, which can now be fulfilled because of relaxing cultural interdiction against married women working." (Rand & Miller, 1972, p. 317)

In a discussion of female development, Hayes and Aubrey (1988) suggested that while the life patterns of men are predictable and coherent, the life directions of women are much less linear. "Women interviewed by Steward (1976) displayed many more ways of living in the world than men did. In fact, their lives shifted so much that conducting a systematic study was difficult for Steward. She found women dealing with intimacy, industry, and identity issues in a zigzag fashion." (Hayes & Aubrey, 1988, p. 52)

However, while it is not completely clear how women's development has changed over the years, young women today may tend to look for alternative ways of putting things together both emotionally and professionally. In support of this view, Sheehy (1976) described the following five life patterns for women:

1. Caregiver. A Caregiver marries in the early 20s and lives out a traditional, domestic life role.
2. Either. (A) The nurturer woman may defer achievement and postpone serious career efforts to marry and start a family, or (B) The achiever woman may defer nurturing and postpone marriage and family to spend time getting into a career.
3. Integrator. An integrator tries to combine all options in the 20's – marriage, career, and motherhood. A few integrators find themselves letting go of something at approximately the age of 30.

4. Never-married. The never-married women include “paranurturers” and “office wives,” actively involved in the lives of others.
5. Transients. Transient women choose impermanence in their 20’s and wander. They want to keep options open and protect freedom by not making commitments.

Career Option

Some might agree that as most young women no longer find marriage and working mutually exclusive are exceptional career option. Many still believe that some jobs are intended for men and others are for women. In the past, women made choices in limited fields commonly known as traditional fields (i.e., teaching, social services, nursing, and clerical jobs). Psathas (1968) indicated that even though the number of women participating in the work force has grown (between 1947-1979), the growth of women workers rose by 7.1 million as compared with males at 4.1 million during the same period, this increase has been concentrated on relatively few occupations. “Among professions in which the proportion of women is high are nursing (98%), librarians (82%), and school teaching (71%) (Psathas, 1987, p. 256).

Several studies have tried to link Holland’s (1990) career theory to the occupational choice difference of women. Holland believed that when the occupational environment was congruent with the individual’s personal orientation, work satisfaction was present. “These orientations represent a somewhat distinctive lifestyle which is characterized by preferred methods of dealing with daily problems (Psathas, 1987, p. 355). So, a hierarchy of preferences is established for each individual. Psathas postulated that this

hierarchy might account for women's choices in "typical" women's occupations, although it does not explain the attraction of women to "nonfeminine" occupations.

Homemaker and Career Roles

In an attempt to determine the demographic and attitudinal differences between homemaking and career-oriented women, Gysbers and Johnston (1968) came to the conclusion that "Stable career women were more apt to be single, have pursued more education, and come from families where both parents had more education than was true for those from the stable homemaker group" (Gysbers & Johnston, 1968, p. 542). Career-oriented women considered personal achievement as more important than others do and homemaking women saw them as equal. Gysbers and Johnston believed their data supported Hoyt and Kennedy's (1958) conclusion that career-oriented women may be motivated by independence needs, for instance, achievement.

Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) hypothesized that (a) homemaking and career-oriented women would differ on housewife, stenographer/secretary, office worker, and elementary teacher scales of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB; Strong, 1951); and (b) personality differences exist between homemaking and career women, as measured on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS; Edwards, 1954). Findings reveal that the SVIB results were rather circular and those obtained on the EPPS are more meaningful. Whereas, career women had higher scores on achievement and interception needs, homemaking women had higher needs related to heterosexuality and endurance. Thus, career women are looking to prove their worth through vocational accomplishments and homemaker's are motivated by affection and acceptance.

Achievement Motivation

The classical theories of achievement motivation and arousal techniques do not suffice to explain female vocational behavior (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). The achievement “gap” with males was always known as women taking greater responsibility for homemaking and child-rearing tasks. Women’s achievement was thought to be different from men’s. In the work of McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953), the achievement motive was regarded less central from women than men (Alper, 1974). While achievement motivation study based on male subjects usually yields significant findings, it is not so with women. Research findings seem to point to women as “motivated by a desire for love, approval, and social approbation, whereas boys are motivated by mastery striving and a desire for excellence” (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). To elaborate on these findings, it has been argued that females have not been given adequate parental encouragement in early attempts toward independence (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). It is in the social arena that women are believed to strive for excellence. Farmer (1976) defined six basic issues women must overcome if they are to achieve similar self-fulfillment and the sense of social contribution that men appear to experience through work, including the following:

1. smaller academic self-confidence for girls in college;
2. college women’s fear of the social consequences of success;
3. vicarious achievement motivation, which contributes to women’s contentment with traditional career roles;

4. home-career conflict found in college and working women interfering with career motivation;
5. sexist attitudes, real and perceived, about working women inhibiting the career development of college;
6. studies of academic motivation which find risk-taking behavior lower in girls than in boys.

Summary

The review of the literature shows that there is no connecting theory of female career development. Major theoretical formulations reviewed were based on studies of male vocational development. Super's (1957a) concept of career patterns led to a discussion of life stages. Super was the only developmentalist to classify women's career patterns.

While findings from early studies suggest that women preferred marriage over career as lifestyle, more recent studies have indicated that women are beginning to choose a combination of marriage and career.

Contrasting analysis of homemaking and career-oriented women shows that homemakers had an interest in male association and interim job would precede marriage. Career women had higher achievement motivation scores and found personal achievement more important than did homemaking women. Homemaking women defined themselves through affiliation needs and achievement of significant other. More recent studies have demonstrated a trend for boys to expect to share parenting and homemaking and for girls to aspire to high level careers.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter is made up of four major sections which describe (a) the research design, (b) subject selection, (c) methodological procedures, (d) methodological assumptions, and (e) limitations of this study.

Method

Research Design

This investigation examined the differences and similarities in the career development of young college women and re-entry college women enrolled in a 4-year undergraduate program. It focused upon the relationships among the scales of the Career Questionnaire. There are three sets of career-related variables: (a) traditional and non-traditional career and lifestyle options, (b) homemaker and career roles, and c) the social consequences of high achievement motivation.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects chosen for this study were full-time or part-time female undergraduates during the 1997 fall semester from two groups: young college women (ages 18-24) and re-entry college women (25 or older). A total of 165 women at four colleges in Southern California (Chevy College, Valley College, and Cal State, San Bernardino) and Taiwan (Tamking University) were interviewed. Of these 165 subjects, 138 were in the young women group (ages 18-24) and nine in the re-entry women group (ages 25 or older).

Subjects' History

The Subjects' History section of the Questionnaire requested the following information from the respondents: (a) age, (b) name of college where currently enrolled, (c) home city and state, (d) ethnicity, (e) parents level of education, (f) educational status, (g) degree sought, (h) college major, (I) marital status, (j) number of children, and (k) career goals. The re-entry women were asked to complete an additional data sheet listing information about their life situations between the ages of 18 and 24.

Methodological Assumptions

The following methodological assumptions were made:

1. The sample was representative of the female undergraduate population colleges.

While the informants were randomly sampled from students of these two categories willing to respond direct to the researcher at this University or her representatives elsewhere in Southern California and Taiwan, some Q&A were conducted orally and others in written Questionnaire (whichever was more convenient), every effort was made to make sure these subjects were fairly representative in terms of class year, age, and racial - though not so much in ethnic background.

2. Given the self-report format of the Career Questionnaire and the Personality Mosaic, the students' honesty can be taken for granted.

Description of the Personality Mosaic

The Personality Mosaic (Michelozzi, 1980) was administered to subjects when the Career Goal Questionnaire was administered. The Personality Mosaic contains 54 items reflecting the six work personality types and environments developed by Holland (1966). These types are (a) investigative, (b) artistic, (c) social, (d) enterprising, (e) conventional, and (f) realistic. Holland's six-personality-type theory has been scrutinized and documented together with the accompanying measurement of types, the Self Directed Search (Holland, 1966). Michelozzi's (1980) instrument is couched in more general terms than Holland's (1966) Self Directed Search and does not enjoy as intensive a research base on validity and reliability. The researcher selected the Personality Mosaic because it appeared to be more applicable to individuals with less work experience, the items seemed to be more sophisticated than the quick list items on the Self Directed Search, and permission to reproduce the Personality Mosaic was easily received from the author through her publisher.

Aside from the Homemaker and Career Role Scales on the Career Questionnaire, the Personality Mosaic was used to measure the homemaker and career orientation variables in the study. A score indicating a C-type (Conventional) and/or S-type (Social) on the Personality Mosaic indicated that the respondent was homemaker-oriented. A score indicating a I-type (Investigative) and /or E-type (Enterprising) on the Personality Mosaic indicated that the respondent was career-oriented.

Limitation

To the extent that the above-referenced methodological assumptions were not met, the internal and external validity of the study would be compromised. In addition, this limitation was fairly evident: The sample size of re-entry college women was considerably smaller than that for the young college women group.

Survey Design

1. Personality Mosaic (Appendix)
2. Career Goal Questionnaire (Appendix)

CHAPTER FOUR

Research and Survey Analysis

Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the study are organized in terms of the study are organized in terms of the research questions set forth in Chapter One. A slight reordering of research questions was made in terms of the variables addressed to facilitate a logical development of the findings. Thus, Research Question 1 will be followed by Research Questions 2, 5, 3, 4, 6, and 7. A section on additional findings is also presented in this Chapter. The data were analyzed whereby a statistical software program was used, ABstat, by Anderson-Bell (1989).

Analysis – Describe Results, Statistics, and Conclusions

Questions 1: The Relationship Between Age and Traditional and Non-Traditional Career and Lifestyle Options

Questions following analyze: 1) The relationship between age and traditional and non-traditional career lifestyle options (research question 1); 2) the relationship between age and non-traditional life-plan options (research questions 2); 3) the relationship between age and traditional vocational roles (research question 4); 4) the relationship between age and career roles (research question 5).

The Relationship Between Age and Traditional and Non-Traditional Career Options (Research Question 1)

The first research question to be answered involved the extent to which a relationship existed between the age of subjects tested, young women or re-entry women, and non-traditional career options as measured by Section IV on the Career Questionnaire. The

re-entry women group retrospectively reported career options that they would have selected between ages 18 and 24.

The findings of a chi square analysis indicated that 59.6% of the young women selected three or fewer of the non-traditional career options as compared to 85.3% of the re-entry women who selected the same number of non-traditional career options. Approximately 52.1% of the re-entry group, as compared with 4.3% of the young group, selected zero non-traditional career options. Those women who selected zero non-traditional career options had selected one or more traditional career options. Forty-two percent of the young women selected between 5 and 13 non-traditional career options as compared with 10.5% of the re-entry women who selected 5 non-traditional career options. No subject in the re-entry group selected more than four non-traditional career options. A chi square value of 6.24 was statistically significant ($p = .01$). It was concluded that the young college women were more likely to choose non-traditional career options than the re-entry women had between the ages of 18 and 24.

The Relationship Between Age and Non-Traditional Life-plan Options (Research Question 2)

Research Question 2 involved the extent to which a correlation between the age of the subjects tested, young women or re-entry women, and non-traditional life-plan options as measured by Section II on the Career Questionnaire. The re-entry group of women reported these choices retrospectively. Of the 138 young college women, 120 (87%) selected non-traditional life-plan options while 18 (13%) selected traditional life-plan options. From the 28 re-entry women participating in the study, 18 (59%) selected non-

traditional life-plan options. A statistically significant chi square of 10.56 was obtained. Again, the re-entry group reported these choices retrospectively. The re-entry group was almost split in half on selecting non-traditional life-plan options. The young college women, however, were much more likely to choose a non-traditional life-plan option.

The Relationship Between Age and Career Roles (Research Question 4)

The fourth research question to be explored involved the degree to which young college women and re-entry college women identified with career roles. An ANOVA was performed to test the initial statistical significance of the difference between means of the homemaker variable for students in either the young or re-entry groups. On a possible scale of scores from 2 to 39 (39 being highest), the young women group obtained a mean of 29 and for the re-entry group, a mean of 30 was observed.

Respondents were also classified as selecting career roles as measured by a high (above the median) I-type (Investigative) and/or E-type (Enterprising) score on the Personality Mosaic. For the re-entry women group, 20% scored highest on the E-type option and 32% scored highest on the I-type option. Of the young women group, only 2% scored highest on the E-type option while 28% scored highest on the I-type option. The E-type option did not provide a strong classification for either group. Although three women in both groups were so classified, the re-entry women were proportionately higher scores on E as an option by 11%. Approximately one fourth of each the re-entry and young groups scored highest on the Investigative-type option. This finding would indicate that one fourth of both groups tested identified with Investigative types on the

Personality Mosaic and therefore one fourth of both groups were classified as selecting career roles.

The Relationship Between Age and Traditional Vocational Roles
(Research Question 5)

This fifth research question involved the degree to which re-entry college women accepted traditional female vocational roles as compared with young college women. An ANOVA was performed to test the statistical significance of the difference between mean scores for the young and re-entry groups on the Traditional Career Options Scale. The higher the score the more acceptance the traditional roles. The comparison of the two groups on the traditional career options variable yielded an $F(1,206)$ equal to .56 ($p > .04$). Thus, no statistically significant differences between the means derived from this comparison. It was concluded that there were no differences between the two groups of college women and their tendency to accept traditional career options.

Question 2: The Relationship Between Age and Personal View of the Social Consequences of High Achievement Motivation

Questions following analyze: 1) The relationship between age and view of the social consequences associated with high achievement during the college years (research question 3); and 2) the relationship between age and personal assessment of academic intelligence during the college years (research questions 6).

The Relationship Between Age and View of the Social Consequences Associated with High Achievement During the College Years

An ANOVA was performed to test for any statistically significant difference between means on the Positive View of Social Consequences Scale for students in either the

young or re-entry groups. This would reflect views of social consequences regarding high achievement during the college years.

For the young women group on the Likert-type scale with a response format from 2 to 7, a mean of 3.59 was obtained and for the re-entry group, a mean of 4.39 was observed. An F of 8.63 was obtained yielding a statistically significant difference between the means at the .04 level. The results suggest that the young college women were more likely to have a more positive view of the social consequences associated with high achievement motivation than that reported by the re-entry women.

The Relationship Between Age and Personal Assessment of Academic Intelligence During the College Years (Research Question 6)

An ANOVA was performed to test for any statistically significant difference between means on the High Confidence Scale for students in either the young or re-entry groups, which would reflect the level of academic self-confidence during the college years.

For the young women group and the re-entry group, a mean of 2.13 and 4.61 were observed respectively. The means were too similar and no statistically significant differences were. However, on the Likert-type scale of 1 to 6 (with 1 and 2 indicating high confidence and 3 being the indifferent response) 95% of the total sample tested selected either 2 or 6 and the remaining 3% selected 5. Hence the high personal assessment of academic intelligence for both young and re-entry groups.

Summary

Future analysis was conducted on the background variables of the young and re-entry women groups. The two groups tended to differ on three variables: (a) mother's level of education, (b) material status, and (c) number of children at ages 18-24.

A frequency distribution indicated that approximately 63% of the re-entry women had mothers with high school or lower levels of education, and only 37% had mothers with 2 to 4 years of college education. Close to 22% of the young women's mothers had only high school or lower levels of education, about 42% of their mothers had 2-4 years of college, and 36% of their mothers had higher degrees. For the re-entry women group, the average level of the mothers' education was attainment of the high school diploma while for the young women group, the average level of the mothers education was a bachelor's degree. The mothers of the young women group were far better educated than the mothers of the re-entry women group. Also, in identifying the correlation of these students' views of social consequences of achievement, only the mothers' level of education constitutes a significant predictor. Those students whose mothers had received tertiary education were more positive about the social consequences of achievement motivation.

A frequency distribution of selected background variables for the re-entry and young groups revealed significant differences between the material status and number of children variables of the women of the 18-24 year-old age group, in which 84% of the re-entry group were married, while all the 138 young women surveyed all single. 42% of

the re-entry group began having children between the ages of 18 and 24 while none of the young women group reported having children.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

As stated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this correlative study, involving young and re-entry 4-year female college students, was to examine relationships between the age of the participants and three sets of variables: (a) traditional and non-traditional career and lifestyle options, (b) identification with homemaker and career roles, and (c) the perceived social consequences of high achievement motivations.

Conclusions

The following are the major findings of the study:

1. Young college women were more likely to choose non-traditional career and lifestyle options than the re-entry women in the 18-24 year-old age group. The young women were likely to select four or more non-traditional career options than the re-entry women. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups on selection of traditional career options.
2. Nor were there statistically significant differences in the degree to which young and re-entry college women identified with homemaker and career roles. Both groups tended to identify with career roles more often than homemaker roles. Almost half of the young women group, however, scored highest on the Social type as measured by the Personality Mosaic. In Chapter 1, social types were defined as being homemaker-oriented. This definition would tend to classify the young women group as homemaker-oriented and yet they tend to score high on the career scales.

3. About 98% of the total sample of college women tested indicated high personal assessment of academic intelligence.
4. Young college women were more likely to have a positive view of the social consequences of high achievement motivation than the re-entry women. Also, those students whose mothers had received tertiary education more frequently held a positive view of the social consequences of achievement motivation.
5. Mothers of the young college women had received much more education than the mothers of the re-entry college women. In fact, the majority of mothers of the young women had 2 to 4 years of college or held higher degrees while most of the mothers of the re-entry group had secondary or lower education.

Recommendations

Due to the above-referenced limitations in this study, it is recommended that future researchers should seek to transcend these limitations. After all, the said limitations and possible solutions can be presented as follows:

1. This study employed a restricted sample. This factor was a limitation to the generalizability of the findings. The study only involved undergraduate college females from four colleges, most of whom were quite in the 18-24 year-old age group. There is no knowing how far these young women will actually implement their career plans. Further research needs to be done on more mature women representing a variety of career fields and patterns to identify correlates of the variables of female vocational development. Also, more research needs to be

conducted on women at various developmental stages. This type of study would assist the formulation of a career development theory for women.

2. A related limitation of the study was the restricted sample size of re-entry college women. The validity and corrective possibilities of the study might be questioned on the basis of the uneven samples - the small number of re-entry college women compared with the larger number of young college women. Future research should concentrate on using larger and fairly equal numbers of young and re-entry females and include a wider range of ethnic groups.
3. The use of the Holland types as indicators of homemaker or career orientation was another limitation of this study. The students participating in the study were attending four colleges where the students interviewed were largely majors of the humanities, behavioral and social sciences. These students may have been predisposed toward the S-type (Social) on the Personality Mosaic. In addition, the fact that over half of the young women group scored highest on the Social-type led the researcher to question whether Social- and Conventional-type scores on the Personality Mosaic should be indicators of a homemaker-orientation. Social- and Conventional-type individuals, as defined by Holland, tend to select careers that this study defined as traditional occupations (e.g., social worker, teacher, secretary). It is hoped, therefore that further research might clear up this confusion by defining Social and Conventional personality types as typically selecting traditional careers.

Summary

Two findings in this study may be of some use for individuals working with women and their vocational development.

The majority of the re-entry women in this study were married. They had had their children when they were between the ages of 18 to 24. They became career committed later, after their families were older, and, at the time of the study, had returned to school to begin or complete their college education. Perhaps these women would have benefited from more information in their early years regarding educational and career opportunities. Parents, educators, and career counselors need to educate females early on regarding the variety of choices available to them.

A more general application of the findings might be made through understanding the importance of advance education for women. Almost all of the college women in this study had a strong sense of their own academic intelligence. In addition, the young women (those entering college directly after high school) tended to have a positive view of the social consequences of high achievement motivation. Students whose mothers had higher levels of education also possessed a positive view of achievement. Thus it would seem that advanced education for women is a definite contributor to woman's perception of herself as a competent, achieving participant in today's society. Women with advanced education positively influence the efficacy of their own daughters. We cannot afford to lose the significant contributions made by the growing number of professional women participating in the work force. It is hoped that as counselors, mentors, parents,

and educators work with young women they will encourage them to consider all options available, including a college education.

APPENDIX

PERSONALITY MOSAIC

DIRECTIONS: Circle the numbers of the statements that clearly feel like something you might say or do or think something that feels like you.

1. It's important for me to have a strong, agile body.
2. I need to understand things thoroughly.
3. Music, color, beauty of any kind can really affect my moods.
4. People enrich my life and give it meaning.
5. I have confidence in myself that I can make things happen.
6. I appreciate clear directions so I can know exactly what to do.
7. I can usually carry/build/fix things myself.
8. I can get absorbed for hours thinking something out.
9. I appreciate beautiful surroundings: color and design mean a lot to me.
10. I love company.
11. I enjoy competing.
12. I need to get my surroundings in order before I start a project.
13. I enjoy making things with my hands.
14. It's always satisfying to explore new ideas.
15. I always seem to be looking for new ways to express my creativity.
16. I value being able to share personal concerns with people.
17. Being a key person in a group is very satisfying to me.
18. I take pride in being very careful about all the details of my work.
19. I don't mind getting my hands dirty.

20. I see education as a lifelong process of developing and sharpening my mind.
21. I love to dress in unusual ways, to try new colors and styles.
22. I can often sense when a person needs to talk to someone.
23. I enjoy getting people organized and on the move.
24. A good routine helps me get the job done.
25. I like to buy sensible things I can make or work on myself.
26. Sometimes I can sit for long periods of time and work on puzzles or read or just think about like.
27. I have a great imagination.
28. It makes me feel good to take care of people.
29. I like to have people rely on me to get the job done.
30. I'm satisfied knowing I've done an assignment carefully and completely.
31. I'd rather be on my own doing practical, hands-on activities.
32. I'm eager to read about any subject that arouses my curiosity.
33. I love to create new ideas.
34. If I have a problem with someone, I prefer to talk it out and resolve it.
35. To be successful, it's important to aim high.
36. I prefer being in a position where I don't have to take responsibility for decisions.
37. I don't enjoy spending a lot of time discussing things. What's right is right.
38. I need to analyze a problem pretty thoroughly before I act on it.
39. I like to rearrange my surroundings to make them unique and different.
40. When I feel down, I find a friend to talk to.

41. After I suggest a plan, I prefer to let others take care of the details.
42. I am usually content where I am.
43. It's invigorating to do things outdoors.
44. I keep asking "why".
45. I like my work to be an expression of my moods and feelings.
46. I like to find ways to help people care more for each other.
47. It is exciting to take part in important decisions.
48. I am always glad to have someone else take charge.
49. I like my surroundings to be plain and practical.
50. I need to stay with a problem until I figure out an answer.
51. The beauty of nature touches something deep inside me.
52. Close relationships are important to me.
53. Promotion and advancement are important to me.
54. Efficiency, for me, means doing a set amount carefully each day.

To score your answers, circle the same numbers below that you circled on the Personality

Mosaic questions.

R	I	A	S	E	C
1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40	41	42
43	44	45	46	47	48
49	50	51	52	53	54

NOW ADD UP THE NUMBER OF CIRCLES IN EACH COLUMN

R _____ I _____ A _____ S _____ E _____ C _____

LIST THE LETTERS FOR THE THREE HIGHEST SCORES:

Highest _____

Next Highest _____

Next Highest _____

THESE THREE LETTERS ARE YOUR HOLLAND OCCUPATIONAL CODE.

By: Michelozzi, B. M. (1980). Coming alive from nine to five: The career search handbook. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing.

CAREER GOAL QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Participant history

College currently enrolled at _____ GPA _____

Age: _____ (18-24) _____ (25-30) _____ (30+)

_____ Home city/state

a. ETHNICITY:

_____ Caucasian _____ Hispanic _____ African American

_____ Pacific Islander _____ Native American _____ Asian

b. MOTHERS LEVEL OF EDUCATIONS: FATHERS LEVEL OF EDUCATION:

_____ did not graduate from high school _____ did not graduate from high school

_____ High School _____ High School

_____ 2 years college _____ 2 years college

_____ 4 years college/degree _____ 4 years college/degree

_____ Masters degree _____ Masters degree

_____ Doctorate _____ Doctorate

c. EDUCATIONAL STATUS:

_____ college freshman _____ sophomore _____ junior _____ senior

d. HIGHEST DEGREE SOUGHT?

_____ Bachelor's _____ Master's _____ PhD _____ MD _____ JD _____ Other

Major? _____ Undecided _____

e. MARITAL STATUS:

_____ married _____ single _____ divorced _____ separated

II Please check those careers below which you are considering entering after graduation from college.

Artist	Author	Librarian
Secondary Teacher	Social Worker	Psychologist
Lawyer	Secretary	Sales Clerk
Buyer	Homemaker	Elementary Teacher
Dietician	Occupational Therapist	Nurse
Dentist	Lab Technician	Physician
Musician	Performer	Banker
Store Manager	Politician	Insurance Sales
Personnel Manager	Financial Analyst	Consultant
Public Administrator	Advertising	Public Relations
Computer Programmer	Actuarial	Accountant
Hotel Manager	Sales Associate	Research Analyst
College Professor	Counselor	Intl. Relations

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