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CAREER ATTITUDES AND VALUES
OF PROFESSIONAL MEN AND WOMEN:
A LIFE STAGE AND CAREER STAGE
COMPARISON

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts in Psychology
at Massey University

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ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to compare the work attitudes and values of professional men and women and to relate these to two theoretical models. The intention was to determine if Levinson's (1978) and Super's (1957) models of life and career stage could account for the experiences of a sample of New Zealand professional people.

Each model was tested by separate MANOVAs for any significant differences between the sexes as well as variance within respondent's work attitudes within each formulation of stages. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between the work attitudes of men and women in the research sample. Levinson's model accounted for some differences between stages on the work attitudes; "willingness to relocate", "intention to leave", and "desire for promotion". Super's model accounted for more differences between stages on the work attitudes; "intention to leave", "desire for promotion", "preferred timing for promotion", "organisational commitment", and "job involvement". There were some differences between men and women on the importance placed on certain work values across career and life stages. However, there were more similarities than differences. Across both sexes, and both life and career stages, the following work values were deemed to be important; "Intellectual Stimulation", "Achievement", "Way of Life", and "Supervisory Relations".

The implications of these results are discussed in relation to previous research as well as practical implications for organisations and human resource practitioners.

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T A B L E O F C O N T E N T S

	PAGE
<u>CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION</u>	1
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	2
1.2 PLAN OF CHAPTERS	6
<u>CHAPTER TWO - DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES</u>	8
2.1 GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS OF DEVELOPMENTAL MODELS/ THEORIES	8
2.1.1 Definitions	8
2.1.2 Career development as a life-long process	9
2.1.3 Developmental theories	10
2.2 SUPER'S THEORY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT	12
2.2.1 Super's career stages	15
2.2.2 Other constructs and processes	19
2.3 LEVINSON'S THEORY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT	23
2.3.1 Levinson's life stages	28
2.4 CRITIQUE AND COMPARISON OF SUPER AND LEVINSON'S THEORIES	36
2.4.1 Critique of Super's theory	36
2.4.2 Critique of Levinson's theory	40
2.4.3 Comparison of Super and Levinson's Theories	43
<u>CHAPTER THREE - CURRENT LITERATURE</u>	47
3.1 DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES, WORK MOTIVATION, AND BEHAVIOUR	49
3.2 DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES, WORK ATTITUDES, AND WOMEN	53
3.3 THE PRESENT STUDY	60
<u>CHAPTER FOUR - METHODOLOGY</u>	64
4.1 SUBJECTS	64
4.2 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	68
4.2.1 Demographics	68
4.2.2 Organisational commitment	69
4.2.3 Job intentions and preferences	71
4.2.4 Job involvement	72

4.2.5	Job satisfaction	74
4.2.6	Work values	76
4.2.7	Career stage	79
4.2.8	Life stage	81
4.3	PROCEDURE	82
4.3.1	Pilot testing	82
4.3.2	Sampling	83
4.3.3	Data collection	83
4.3.4	Data analysis	85
<u>CHAPTER FIVE - RESULTS</u>		87
5.1	CAREER ATTITUDE RESULTS	88
5.1.1	Preliminary analysis	88
5.1.2	Levinson's life stages	90
5.1.3	Super's career stages	95
5.2	WORK VALUES	101
5.2.1	Levinson's life stages	101
5.2.2	Super's career stages	109
5.3	SUMMARY OF RESULTS AS THEY PERTAIN TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS	113
<u>CHAPTER SIX - DISCUSSION</u>		118
6.1	GENDER DIFFERENCES	119
6.2	AGE AS A DETERMINANT OF WORK RELATED ATTITUDES	123
6.3	SUPER'S CAREER STAGES AND WORK RELATED ATTITUDES	127
6.4	WORK VALUES	132
6.5	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	135
<u>REFERENCES</u>		139
<u>APPENDIX A - CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONAL CAREER FIELDS</u>		158
<u>APPENDIX B - THE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE</u>		160
<u>APPENDIX C - MEMORANDUM TO PARTICIPANTS</u>		181
<u>APPENDIX D - FEEDBACK TO PARTICIPANTS</u>		183
<u>APPENDIX E - ANOVA TABLES</u>		187

LIST OF FIGURES

	PAGE
<u>CHAPTER TWO</u>	
2.2.1 Super's life stages and substages	14
2.2.2 Super's Archway (Segmented) model of career development	20
2.3.1 Levinson's developmental stages	27
<u>CHAPTER FIVE</u>	
5.1.2.1 Intention to leave by Levinson's Life Stages	92
5.1.2.2 Desire for promotion by Levinson's Life Stages	93
5.1.2.3 Willingness to relocate by Levinson's Life Stages	94
5.1.3.1 Intention to leave by Super's Career Stages	96
5.1.3.2 Desire for promotion by Super's Career Stages	97
5.1.3.3 Preferred promotion timing by Super's Stages	98
5.1.3.4 Organisational Commitment by Super's Career Stages	99
5.1.3.5 Job involvement by Super's Career Stages	100

L I S T O F T A B L E S

	PAGE
 <u>CHAPTER FOUR</u>	
4.1.1 Industries sampled	66
4.1.2 Types of occupations sampled	66
4.1.3 Levels of responsibility sampled	66
4.1.4 Tenure within current organisation	67
4.1.5 Tenure within current position	67
 <u>CHAPTER FIVE</u>	
5.1.2.1 Means and standard deviations for career attitude variables according to Levinson's stages	91
5.1.3.1 Means and standard deviations for career attitude variables according to Super's stages	95
5.2.1.1 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in "Early Adulthood" (Age 22 to 27)	102
5.2.1.2 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in The "Age Thirty Transition" (Age 28 to 33)	103
5.2.1.3 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in The "Settling Down" Stage (Age 34 to 39)	104
5.2.1.4 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in The "Mid-Life Transition" (Age 40 to 44)	105
5.2.1.5 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in "Entering Middle Adulthood" (Age 45 to 49)	106
5.2.1.6 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in "Middle Adulthood" (Age 50 to 60)	107
5.2.2.1 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in Super's Exploration Stage	109
5.2.2.2 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in Super's Establishment Stage	110
5.2.2.3 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in Super's Maintenance Stage	111
5.2.2.4 Rankings of Importance of Work Values in Super's Disengagement Stage	112

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Career development is deemed to be an integral part of human resource management and organisational development. Within New Zealand, however, this area of study has been somewhat neglected over the past few years. Therefore, recent research conducted overseas (particularly within the United States of America) in this area needs to be applied to the New Zealand working population to take advantage of the benefits possible for employees and employers through the effective use of career planning and management. Through comparisons of the different populations involved, implications arising from the similarities and differences between such studies could be examined which may lead to applied solutions for practitioners dealing with human resource issues.

In addition, it would be appropriate to use a theoretical basis which can be utilised within an applied context for such career research, as is the case in the following study. This is similar to that of several studies recently conducted within the United States of America and seemed to be a logical point from which to approach research within New Zealand. In particular, the study of careers across Life and Career stages is most notable as organisations and employees are increasingly linked in a reciprocal relationship which may be mutually beneficial or detrimental

to both. With this in mind, effective utilisation of career development practices and policies may contribute to a win-win situation for both employees and the organisations they work for. Examining differences between male and female employees as well as employees at different life and career stages may also have implications for the effective application of career development strategies. It is therefore important to keep in mind that a career can be interpreted as a two-way matching process in which the organisation and the individual influence each other through survival needs, socialisation, and innovation (Shullman & Carder, 1983; Adams, 1991; Ford & Bhagat, 1991).

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Throughout the western world, the 1980's was an era of change in which the interests of both employees and organisations were forced to adapt to the economic and social trends present at the time. During the 1980's employees' values changed considerably. People began expressing greater interest in challenge, self-fulfilment, autonomy, flexibility, and opportunities for growth and skill development (Russell, 1991; London & Stumpf, 1970; Hall, 1986a). Preferences were also expressed for managing one's own career and being able to achieve a balance between work, family and leisure activities (Russell, 1991; Hall, 1986a; Adams, 1991). At the same time many organisations experienced slower growth with a significant number becoming smaller - evidenced in the move towards the "downsizing" of

organisations (Dewhirst, 1991). Opportunities for movement up the corporate hierarchy consequently declined quite markedly (Dewhirst, 1991).

According to Hall (1986c) the massive corporate restructuring, demographic changes, value and cultural changes, and turbulent external environments which have and are taking place will lead to the adaptability of organisations being increasingly dependent upon the capacity of their employees to change and adapt. Therefore, effective career planning and development of employees lies at the heart of effective organisational change and efficiency (Hall, 1986c).

Following from Hall's summary of the current business environment (above) it stands to reason that in the future organisations will need to be adaptable, they will need to employ a flexible work-force, and they will need to direct their energies towards retaining high performing employees in increasingly low opportunity organisations as career progression is no longer linear or predictable (London & Stumpf, 1970; Hall, 1986b; Stroh, Brett, and Reilly, 1992). As a result, the 1990s are projected to emphasise effective implementations of career development programs to an even greater extent than in the past to meet the needs of both employees and their respective organisations (Russell, 1991).

Consequently, it is reasonable to expect that career mobility and specialisation issues will continue to present challenges for organisational policy makers as well as making significant demands on the human resource research community (Dewhurst, 1991). Many organisations will need to focus on career development programmes which can be designed to meet their dynamic human resource needs for the future (Russell, 1991). One step towards this goal is to identify a sound theoretical base on which to develop such programmes as well as identifying the needs, values, and attitudes of employees at different life or career stages. However, very little research utilising New Zealand employees has been conducted in this area despite the fact that Steffy and Jones (1988) have suggested that organisations may benefit from career development programmes that help employees (particularly female employees) in planning their careers, and that this may, in turn, serve as a possible source of organisational commitment.

Furthermore, the proportion of women in the labour force has increased steadily over the last few decades, particularly from the 1961 to the 1991 Census within New Zealand (New Zealand Planning Council, 1989; Holdom, 1991; Department of Statistics (NZ), 1992; Osipow, 1991; McGregor, Thomson, & Dewe, 1993; Bingham, 1983; Department of Statistics (NZ), 1993). Presently 36.2% of the total full-time working population in paid employment are women (Department of Statistics (NZ), 1993). This represents over a third of

people in full-time paid employment, in addition, a great number of women are employed in paid part-time work or unpaid/voluntary work (Department of Statistics (NZ), 1993). As this influx of women into the labour market has been evident in all industrialised countries (Mannheim, 1993), it is surprising that very little research has focused on women's career development.

Women tend to face more choices when it comes to investments in work, family, and the timing of children (McKeen & Burke, 1992). As a result, it is generally assumed that the career paths of successful women differ from those of successful men. The career paths of successful women are often deemed to be less predictable than those of men for a variety of social, biological, and economic reasons. Consequently, one cannot simply assume, as has often been the case, that conclusions based on research using samples of men are necessarily true for women (Mannheim, 1993). For example, entering employment for the first time at mid-life or re-entering it after a long absence is almost exclusively a female phenomenon (Bingham, 1983). However, despite these facts and assumptions there has been very little research focused specifically on career path comparisons between men and women (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Fitzgerald & Betz, 1983; Super, 1990; Savickas, Passen, & Jarjoura, 1988; Osipow, 1991; Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980; London & Greller, 1991; Jans, 1989).

It may also be more appropriate to begin to think about men's vocational behaviour in a different way (Fitzgerald & Cherpas, 1985). It is unlikely that the majority of male careers will continue to follow the traditional career model, especially in the current employment climate of downsizing, redundancies, technological change, increased mobility, and change in industrial relations caused by the Employment Contracts Act of 1991.

Therefore, organisations who wish to remain competitive in the 1990s, and the more distant future, will have to learn to incorporate the requirements of their changing workforce. One way of achieving this is through organisation and employee career planning. However, before an organisation invests time and money into such programmes it would be wise to identify accurate prerequisite information on which to base career planning programmes. Such prerequisite information would include the needs, values, and work attitudes of employees at different ages and/or career stages. This is the purpose of the present thesis.

1.2 PLAN OF CHAPTERS

Chapter two of this thesis, Developmental Theories, shall focus on explaining and describing the rationale behind developmental theories of career development. In particular, the work of two developmental theorists, Super and Levinson, shall be discussed. Their models of career development form the theoretical basis of the present study.

Chapter three will provide a review of the current literature in the area of career development relevant to the present research. This literature shall relate to the research questions for the present study presented at the end of this chapter.

Chapter four, shall outline and describe the methodology used in the present study. The results shall then be presented in chapter five and discussed in chapter six with reference to prior research, the context of the present research, and implications for future research and practice.

CHAPTER TWO
DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES

2.1 GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS OF DEVELOPMENTAL MODELS/THEORIES

2.1.1 Definitions

A career can be defined in a number of ways. It is usually defined with reference to the sequence of jobs or work activities that people experience within an organisational context, and the attitudes and behaviours associated with these activities and experiences (Arnold, Robertson, & Cooper, 1991; Super, 1986; Adams, 1991; Stroh, et.al, 1992; Dewhurst, 1991). Hall's (1976) definition is as follows, "The career is the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviours associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person's life." (p.4). A career is also considered to be at the heart of an individual's life structure (Isabella, 1988).

A career is, therefore, more than simply the objective sequence of occupational, organisational, and job moves made by an individual. It also involves many subjective aspects of an individual's work experience which are important - such as, professional self-identity, continuing personal growth, meeting personal needs, setting and meeting professional goals, and resolving conflicting demands from other areas or roles of one's life (e.g, family, friends, health) (Cron & Slocum, 1986; Super, 1986). In comparison, a person's life cycle is defined as, "A series of stages

characterised by changing patterns of developmental tasks, career concerns, activities, values and needs, which emerge as he or she ages and passes through various age ranges" (Hall, 1973, cited Adler and Aranya, 1984, p.52).

Development within a career, therefore, refers to the changes that will occur over an adult's life with respect to their motives, needs, abilities, attitudes and values which are related to their work and/or occupation (Cron, 1984). The sorts of changes that tend to occur have been operationalised by developmental theories and models as career or life stages and they appear to follow reasonably predictable patterns.

2.1.2 Career Development as a Life-long Process

It is now apparent that occupational choice is a life-long process of decision making. People tend to repeatedly reassess how they can improve the fit between their changing career goals and the realities of the world of work (Brown & Brooks, 1990). Individuals are likely to select and choose to remain in jobs that they perceive to be congruent with their values and that offer them the forms of satisfaction they prefer (Jenkins, 1989). Furthermore, because a person's needs, expectations, abilities and behaviours change over time, their career stage may serve as an important moderator to explain differences in an employee's willingness to attend work, to remain in a certain job or

occupation, and to accomplish organisational goals at selected points in their careers (Mount, 1984).

2.1.3 Developmental Theories

Theories which have focused upon development over the life-span share the common assumption that one's self-concept becomes more clearly defined with age, and that career choice is a process of matching one's self-concept with one's images of the occupational world (Swanson, 1992). Accordingly, developmental theories assume that people tend to progress through distinct occupational stages in their organisational careers. In turn, each stage is believed to be characterised by different work attitudes and behaviours such as the tasks and activities performed, types of relationships needed, and aspects of work which are valued (Mount, 1984).

Furthermore, developmental theories see occupational choice as not just something that happens once in a person's lifetime, when they leave school, but throughout one's adult life (Super, 1990; Mount, 1984; Pryor, 1982). In fact, "...research in the areas of sociology and vocational psychology indicate that an appreciation for how people change is central to any account of a person's relationship to a job." (Cron, 1984, p.50). Career theorists, in particular, have suggested that individual perspectives on such issues as organisational membership, participation, progression, and performance are always in various stages of

revision and reconciliation with one's self-image (Cron, 1984). Moreover, because the career concept is intrinsically linked to the passage of time, a developmental perspective seems to be essential in capturing the dynamic aspects of adult careers (Hackett, Lent, & Greenhaus, 1991).

In short, developmental theories hold that people and situations develop, and that career decision-making tends to be a series of decisions of varying degrees of importance each stemming in some degree from the last (Super, 1990; Mount, 1984). Developmental models generally presume that people change as they grow older and accumulate experiences in their work and non-work lives. From this perspective a person's life can be seen as a series of stages characterised by changing patterns of activities, career concerns, values, and needs, which emerge as the individual passes through various age ranges and/or psychological stages (Adler & Aranya, 1984).

The notion of stages, of course, presupposes the existence of differences in work-relevant attitudes and motives between individuals in different age groups or psychological career stages (Adler & Aranya, 1984). Each stage then requires the mastery of developmental issues unique to each stage. Movement to subsequent stages is viewed as contingent upon the satisfactory completion or resolution of previous stages (Campbell & Heffernan, 1983; Pryor, 1982; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Stout,

Slocum, & Cron, 1988; Crites, 1969; Hackett, et.al, 1991; Super, 1976; Osipow, 1990). In a vocational sense this means that a stage is delimited by somewhat unique and differentiable behaviours, tasks, or challenges which predominate over others during a given period of time (Crites, 1969; Hackett, et.al, 1991). In addition, each career stage may provide a cognitive basis for interpreting and giving meaning to one's experiences (Isabella, 1988).

At this point it would seem to be appropriate to introduce, discuss, and critique the theories of career development which have been chosen as the basis for the following research. The reason for the use of these established theories are three-fold; (1) to comply with the recommendations of Brown (1990a) and others, that future research needs to be more theory-driven, (2) to ensure that the results of this study can be compared with overseas research, and (3) to attempt to advance knowledge in the area of career development without "reinventing the wheel". After all, "...the aim of theory is to organise what we know to make it useful" (Mount, 1984, p.12). Consequently, to build on the current knowledge in career development via two established theories would seem to be a sensible place to start.

2.2 SUPER'S THEORY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Super's theory of career development has been constantly reviewed and developed over the years by Super and his

colleagues. This review of Super's theory will be limited as much as possible only to the aspects of Super's theory relevant to the present research. This is not to disavow the importance of other aspects of Super's work but merely to restrict the amount of information that is necessary for the reader to assimilate. Super's theory is after all rather broad and all encompassing.

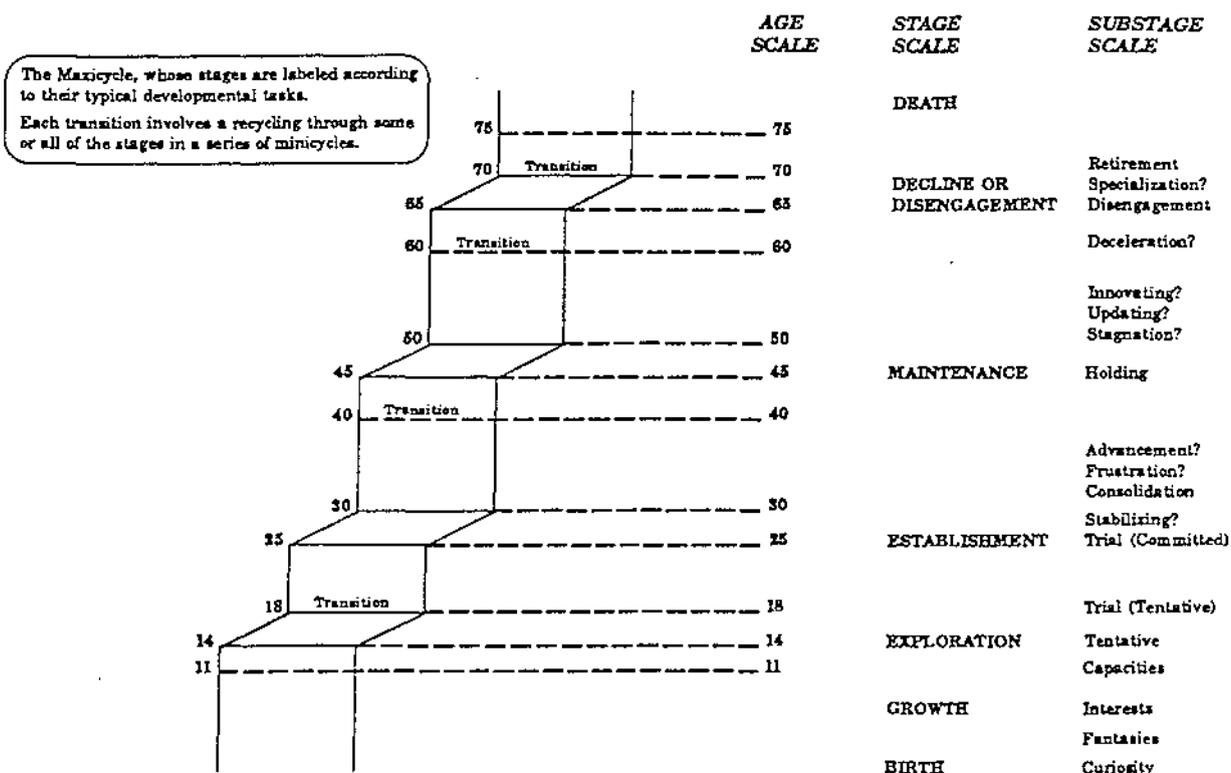
Career stages, as opposed to life stages, are more directly related to the world of work. They focus on work-related behaviour through which the individual seeks to define, clarify or fulfil his or her psychological identity, needs, and values (Burack, 1984). This suggests that people exhibit different needs, expectations, and abilities at various career stages (Yates, 1990). On this basis Super's psychological career stages appear to be a good example of a career-stage approach.

Super's theory of career stages was built on earlier work conducted by Buhler (1933) and Havinghurst (1953) (Super, Thompson, & Lindeman, 1988; Hall & Mansfield, 1975). Super (1957; 1980) elaborated on the idea of work-relevant life stages proposed by Buhler and postulated four stages of adult career development based on his research and findings with a sample of men (Super, et.al, 1988; Hall & Mansfield, 1975; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990). These four stages are characterised as types of developmental tasks with which people cope as they go through life. These include:

EXPLORATION - exploration of various career possibilities;
ESTABLISHMENT - establishment of oneself in an occupation;
MAINTENANCE - maintenance or holding one's own in one's occupation;
DISENGAGEMENT (otherwise known as **DECLINE**) - decline or decreased energy, activity, and work involvement.
 These stages are shown in Figure 2.2.1.

Figure 2.2.1

SUPER'S LIFE STAGES AND SUBSTAGES



(Super, Thompson, & Lindeman, 1988, p.3)

Super's theory holds that each developmental stage has concomitant issues that are salient and that must be satisfactorily dealt with before moving onto the next stage (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990). Unlike Levinson's stages,

Super's stages are not determined by age, but rather by an individual's circumstances and perceptions (Swanson, 1992). Thus, individuals can be in any stage at various points in their lives or careers, and they can recycle through stages when major transitions occur (Swanson, 1992; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990).

2.2.1 Super's Career Stages

Figure 2.2.1 identifies the sub-stages that can be present in each stage, although, as the broken lines indicate, the stages tend to overlap and are not clearly defined by age limits. It is here that Super's conceptual scheme differs radically from Levinson et.al's (1978) formulation. "My formulation has sought to make it clear not only that the ages of transitions are very flexible but also that each transition involves a recycling through one or more of the stages - a mini-cycle... Implicit in my formulation of the life-stage model, and explicit in the variations in the age limits of the stages, are the terms trial and transition to denote recycling." (Super, 1990, p.4). However, skipping a stage in the normal cycle is thought to result in difficulties at a later stage (Super, 1990). Therefore, Super's theory consists of the following career stages, which are thought to impact on one's work attitudes and behaviours (Slocum & Cron, 1985; Dalton, 1989; Super, 1990; Super, et.al, 1988):

1. **Exploration:** of both oneself and the world of work in order to clarify the self-concept and identify occupations which fit with it.

People in the exploration or trial stage are concerned with learning the appropriate behaviours and norms associated with their job and work group (Noe, Noe, & Bachhuber, 1990). They tend to shift jobs more frequently, have a greater propensity to relocate, are expected to be less committed to their organisation, less involved in their jobs, and less satisfied with their work than people in the latter stages (Slocum & Cron, 1985; Ornstein, Cron, & Slocum, 1989). These conclusions seem to be based on the exploratory or trial nature of this stage. However, it appears that proper mentoring of such employees by considering their needs at this stage (such as adjustment), as well as assigning them to challenging projects, may improve their commitment and performance (Slocum & Cron, 1985).

2. **Establishment:** a person finds a career field which suits him or her and makes efforts to prove their worth in it.

According to Super, during the establishment stage there is a tendency to settle on a specific career path and to build on it. This tends to be accompanied by a feeling of greater job involvement, success, and satisfaction (Cron & Slocum, 1986). People within the establishment or stabilisation career stage tend to have higher levels of career identity,

insight, and resilience (Noe, et.al, 1990). These people are actively involved in developing career goals, assessing new employment opportunities, striving to attain additional responsibility and authority in work assignments, and are concerned with achieving job and occupational success (Noe, et.al, 1990; Cron & Slocum, 1986). However, due to their increased need for stabilisation in this stage employees will be more reluctant to relocate within the company or to leave their present employer (Slocum & Cron, 1985).

3. **Maintenance:** the concern in this stage is to hold onto the niche one has carved for oneself. This can be a considerable task, especially in the face of technological changes and vigorous competition from younger workers.

During the maintenance stage people are concerned with holding onto a level of success already achieved within their chosen field (Cron & Slocum, 1985; Arnold, et.al, 1991). Achieving job-related goals has immediate relevancy to their overall career concerns (Cron & Slocum, 1985). Moreover, adapting to change may be a core task of career maintenance, in that coping with change is required to maintain equilibrium and adapt to the changing work environment (Williams & Savickas, 1990).

4. **Disengagement:** characterised by decreasing involvement in work - there is a tendency to become an observer rather than a participant.

The fourth stage, disengagement, is seen as two progressive stages. The first is a period of tapering off from activities, slowing down and cutting out. The second is one in which considerable cutting down has been made, major readjustments have to be made to the curtailed activity, including the finding of substitute activities and the adjustment to "a new self" (Crites, 1969).

5. **Recycling:** Returning to earlier stages of career development due to transitions, changes, or crises.

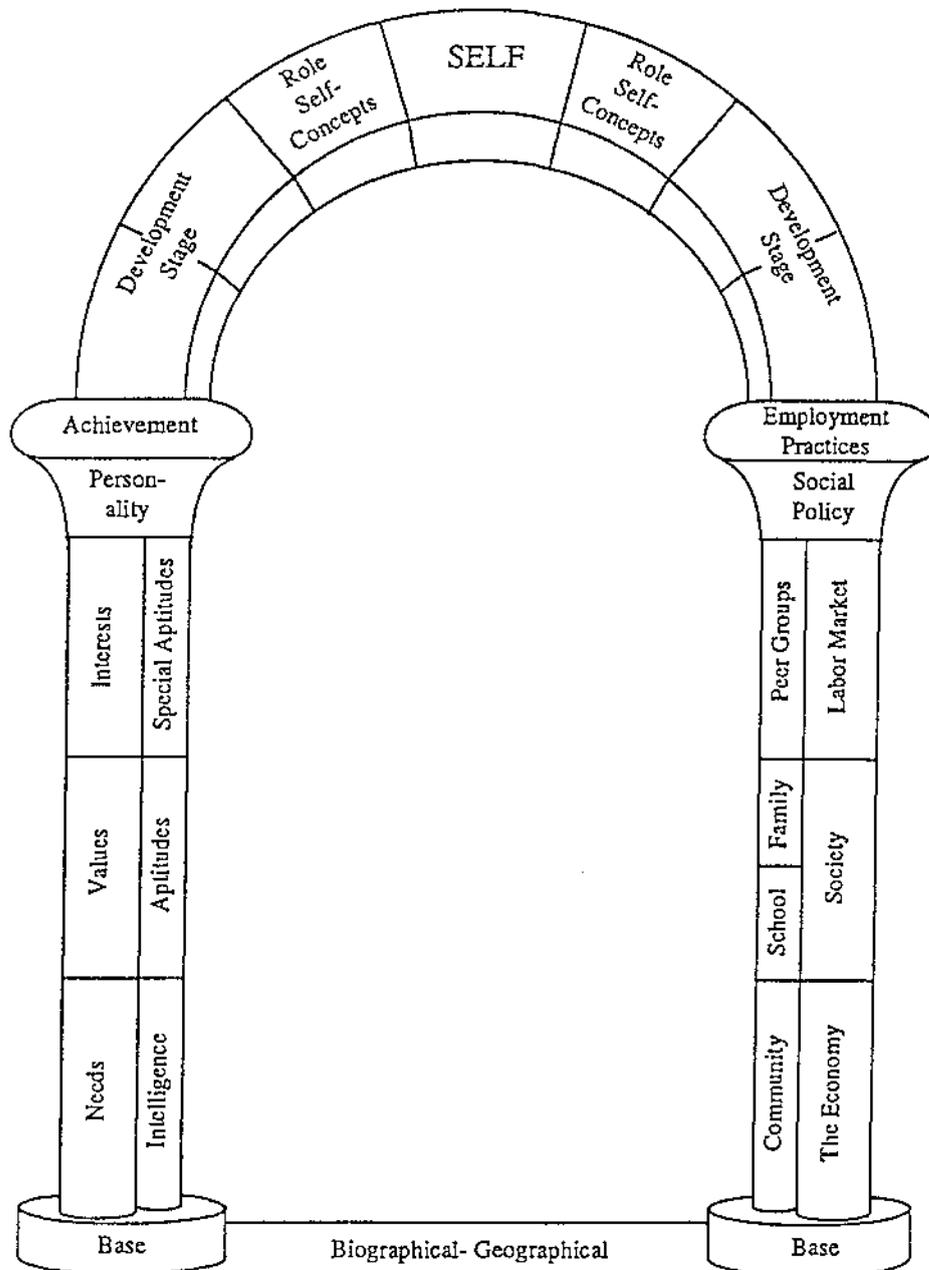
Through Super's notion of recycling the ideas of re-exploration and re-establishment have attracted a great deal of attention, and the term transition has come to denote these processes (Super, 1990). Transitions are generally considered to be likely several times during a career. According to Super (1990) interest in adult development, as well as more rapidly changing technology and economy, have helped to highlight the need for, and the problems of, transitions. The typical impetus for any specific transition is not necessarily age itself, as the timing of transitions or stages is not only a function of the individual's personality and abilities, but also of his or her situation (Super, 1990).

2.2.2 Other Constructs and Processes

Along with the career stage aspects of Super's theory it is also important to understand some of the underlying theoretical constructs and processes that are believed to be essential elements of Super's theory of career development. These are probably best explained when discussed in relation to Super's illustrative representation of these underlying constructs. Super recently developed the Archway Model (Figure 2.2.2) to clarify a number of aspects of his theory. This model was designed to emphasise the segmented but unified and progressive nature of career development. Examining this model the left hand column represents "personal forces" within an individual, while the right hand column represents factors external to the individual ("social forces") which have some influence on their behaviour.

Figure 2.2.2

SUPER'S ARCHWAY (SEGMENTED) MODEL OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT



(Super, 1990, p.200)

Personality, seen at the top of the left hand column and incorporating all the blocks in the column below it, is seen as the global construct to be used to include all of the qualities that constitute a person (Super, 1990). This includes the model's biological base, the needs and

intelligence that develop from it in interaction with the environment, and the values that derive from needs (Super, 1990). The aptitudes (e.g verbal, numerical, spatial) are seen as derivatives of general intelligence, and special aptitudes (e.g clerical, mechanical) are seen as further refinements of this (Super, 1990). The very top of the left-hand column, achievement, symbolises the result of the use, misuse, or disuse of personal resources (Super, 1990). Traits and attitudes, not shown in the Archway, (e.g honesty-dishonesty, extroversion-introversion) are thought by Super to represent modes or styles of behaviour. If they were to be graphically represented they would appear as arrows between the right and left-hand columns. The top of the columns represent the integration of the aspects of the individual with those of society (Super, 1990). Although not graphically represented in the model, the variables in the left and right-hand columns of the Archway are thought to interact substantially with each other and the cement of the model (the logic that binds the model together) is thought to be interactive learning (Super, 1990).

The arch itself represents the overall career. At each end of the arch are the developmental stages. These stages confront the individual with developmental tasks rising partly from chronological age and from social expectations (Super, 1990). "The keystone of the Archway is the person, the decision maker in whom all of the personal and social forces are brought together, and organised in terms of

concepts of self and of roles in society. These forces are weighted and used in the making of career decisions. The keystone, the person, is thus, indeed, the central component of the Archway, of the career." (Super, 1990, p.203). As a result, Super tends to view occupational choice and career development as an attempt to implement one's self-concept (Super, 1990; Osipow, 1983; Crites, 1969). In other words, "Super views career development as a synthesising process between a person's self-concept and the external realities of the work environment." (Shullman & Carder, 1983, p.143). The synthesis is thought to develop through a person's increasing awareness of his or her self-concept and through experiences within particular occupations (Shullman & Carder, 1983). In this respect, it is important to realise that self-concepts are learned through experiences with people, objects, and ideas. Thus, society and one's environment can have a large impact on their later career choices, adaption, and career development through the processes of social learning, experiential learning, and interactive learning (Super, 1990).

In short, Super's theory consists of a model of career stages through which people progress or "develop" during their working life. The underlying concepts of roles and self-concept, and the illustration of how these all interact helps to explain in a general sense how one's career stage can interact with the demands of the external environment. Moreover, although Super does not devote extensive work to

the impact of organisational environments on the careers of individuals, he does at least acknowledge the importance of this interaction (Shullman & Carder, 1983).

2.3 LEVINSON'S THEORY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Levinson's theory grew out of an extensive qualitative study of forty men, ages 35-45, from four different occupational groups (hourly workers in industry, business executives, university biologists, and novelists) (Shullman & Carder, 1983; Levinson et.al, 1978). All of the subjects were born in America and all had been married at least once, they varied in social class, racial/ethnic/religious origins, and education (Levinson et.al, 1978). Based on this sample, Levinson's theory focuses on life stages or stages of the life cycle as indicated by particular age groupings (Swanson, 1992). In other words, Levinson conceived of the life-cycle in terms of a sequence of age-linked developmental periods (Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989).

Levinson's theory of career development is also based on the premise that adult lives are governed by regularities represented by repeating patterns of growth, transition, and stabilisation which is believed to characterise the maturation of adults (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990; Hackett, et.al, 1991; Arnold, et.al, 1991). This maturation is thought to result from age-related biological changes, developmental tasks, or life "crises" which represent particular work activities and psychological issues that one

needs to master at predictable times over the life span (Mount, 1984; Levinson, et.al, 1978; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990; Ornstein et.al, 1989). During Levinson's age-related stages, particular developmental challenges and tasks are confronted as each individual addresses critical concerns about themselves, their career and their relationships to others (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990; Swanson, 1992). Levinson uses the term "structure" to denote the life style that an individual chooses to adopt during a particular stage of development to deal with the tasks and issues which arise at that stage. Levinson et.al's theory, therefore rests on the following ideas: Firstly, that adults are periodically faced with developmental tasks which are largely predictable. Secondly, that these developmental tasks are the major challenges to be faced in adulthood and roughly correspond to the individual's age. Thirdly, adulthood can be described as a series of stages in which life and career structures change as personal needs and opportunities arise. Finally, every life stage, according to Levinson's theory, gives high priority to certain aspects of the self and neglects or minimises other aspects. (Burack, 1984; Levinson, et.al, 1978). Thus, the adult life stage is assumed to act as an important moderator variable in the relationship between career satisfaction and the career development adjustment process (Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989).

There are four overlapping eras in the life cycle, each lasting some 25 years. Each era is distinguished by its

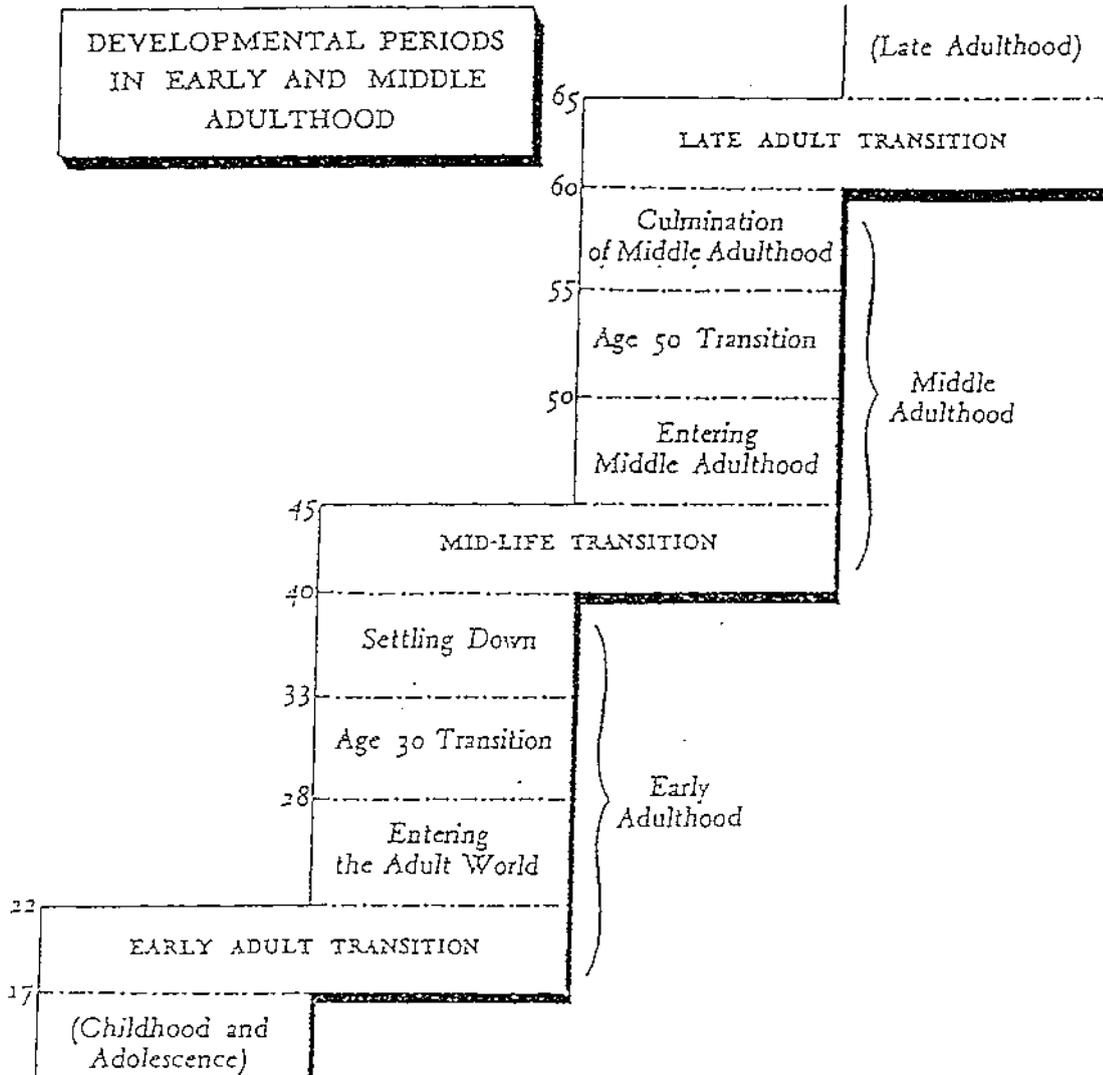
overall "character of living" which has biological, psychological, and social aspects which (as mentioned above) is referred to by Levinson as its structure (Levinson, et.al, 1978). Developmental periods are alternated with transitional periods, both of which last a span of years with the transitional periods being relatively shorter (Burack, 1984; Levinson, et.al, 1978). Shifting from one stage to the next is deemed to be a major developmental change which does not occur easily or quickly.

The tasks of the stable periods include making key choices, forming a structure to implement decisions and goals, as well as working on particular psychosocial issues which emerge at each life stage (Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989). These periods ordinarily last six to eight years (Levinson, et.al, 1978). The tasks of transitional periods are to reappraise the past life structure, explore new possibilities within oneself and work, and to commit to critical choices that are the basis for developing a new life structure (Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989). These periods generally last four or five years and terminate the existing life structure, thus creating the possibility for a new structure via questioning and reappraising the previous life structure (Levinson, et.al, 1978). Transitional periods can reach crisis proportions characterised by inner upheaval and conflict, especially if issues at earlier stages of development have not been successfully dealt with (Burack, 1984; Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989; Levinson, et.al, 1978).

Levinson proposes that people will differ in how they attempt to work on various developmental tasks and how successfully the tasks will be resolved. It is also argued that the nature of the developmental tasks will allow certain career attitudes and perceptions to dominate individual life stages (Ornstein, et.al, 1989). For example, the early adult stages involve the tasks of both making commitments and of keeping options open, people will often vary in the relative emphasis they give to these tasks in each sphere of life (Ornstein, et.al, 1989). Furthermore, "In the actual process of development each period is 'interpenetrated' with the others. The current period is predominant, but the others are present in it..." (Levinson, et.al, 1978, p.318). Therefore, during the current life-stage, a person works predominantly on the developmental tasks of that period, but may also work on tasks related to other life-stages.

Figure 2.3.1

LEVINSON'S DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES



(Levinson, et.al, 1978, p.57).

The major adult stages that Levinson visualised, illustrated in Figure 2.3.1, are discussed below:

2.3.1 Levinson's Life Stages

EARLY ADULTHOOD

Early adulthood (the novice phase) is composed of three distinct periods; Entering the Adult World (age 22 to 28), the Age Thirty Transition (age 28 to 33), and the Settling Down period (age 33 to 40). Each of these periods has its own developmental tasks and together they form a single phase that serves a crucial developmental function which is the process of entry into adulthood (Levinson, et.al, 1978). Throughout the novice phase, choices are made and relationships established which will define the character of a person's life in early adulthood (Levinson, et.al, 1978).

Four major tasks of the novice phase overall are:

1. Forming a Dream and giving it a place in the life structure
2. Forming mentor relationships
3. Forming an occupation
4. Forming love relationships, marriage and family

There are other common tasks, such as relating to authorities and gaining greater authority for oneself; forming peer relationships with men and women; relating as an adult to people at different age levels; forming an adult outlook and values with regard to religion, politics, ethnicity, and one's community (Levinson, et.al, 1978).

Early adulthood generally ends at about 45 years of age. The span of time from 20 years of age to 40, is according to Levinson et.al (1978), the era of greatest biological abundance, contradiction, and stress. Over the course of this era a "man" is deemed to transcend from being a "novice adult" through to the point where he can assume a more senior position in work, family, and the community.

ENTERING THE ADULT WORLD (age 22 to 28)

This period involves a number of developmental tasks and processes such as; exploration of the self and the world, making and testing provisional choices, searching for alternatives, increasing one's commitments and constructing a more integrated life structure. This period, therefore, involves assuming an initial or provisional life structure that appears to be workable within the individual's life roles.

Developmental Tasks

- (1) To explore the possibilities for adult living: to keep one's options open, to avoid strong commitments, and to maximise the alternatives.
- (2) The second task contrasts with the first in that it is to create a stable life structure, become more responsible, and to "make something" of one's life.

THE AGE THIRTY TRANSITION (age 28 to 33)

This transitional stage appears to provide the opportunity for the individual to work on the flaws and limitations of

the first adult life structure, and to begin to revise and create the basis for a second more satisfactory life structure. Life takes on a more serious "for real" quality. For some people the transition is a relatively smooth process. Their life structure is modified but not drastically revamped. However, a crisis may occur if the individual has a great deal of difficulty with the developmental tasks of a period within this era (Levinson deems this to be true of most men at this stage). Therefore, at this time a person may make important new choices or they may reaffirm old ones. Either way their decisions have important implications as they form the basis for the second life structure.

SETTLING DOWN: BUILDING A SECOND ADULT LIFE STRUCTURE

(age 33 to 40)

The end of the "Age Thirty Transition" is the end of the preparatory or novice phase in early adulthood and the beginning of the second adult life structure, the "Settling Down" period. This period lasts until the mid-life transition at about 40 years of age. During this period a person invests as fully as possible into the various key components of their life structure (for example; work, family, friendships, community, and leisure) and is pursuing long-term plans and goals within this framework. This period appears to be a time when the individual assigns priorities to certain aspects of their lives and may neglect what they see as secondary interests and life-roles.

Developmental Tasks

- (1) To establish one's niche in society and one's occupation.
- (2) To work towards advancement.

There are also two distinct phases within the Settling Down period, each lasting three or four years. The first is called "Early Settling Down" and the second "Becoming One's own Man".

Early Settling Down

The first task or period at the beginning of the Settling Down period is committed to progressing beyond the "apprentice" or "novice" stage and focuses on becoming a fully-fledged adult. The initial life structure of this period is intended to provide a base on which one can plan for the future and identify long-term goals. During this period there is a great need to maintain a stable life-structure and to deal with problems by making accommodations within one's existing life framework rather than by attempting major structural changes.

Late Settling Down: Becoming One's Own Man

This phase of the Settling down period ordinarily extends from about the age of 36-37 to 40-41. It represents the culmination of the early Settling Down phase and the climax of early adulthood. The developmental tasks in this phase are to accomplish the goals of Settling Down, to advance

sufficiently within one's career, to become a senior member of one's enterprise, to speak more clearly with one's own voice, to have a greater measure of authority, and to become less dependent on other individuals and institutions within one's life (Levinson, et.al, 1978). The in-built dilemma of this phase is that on the one hand, a person wants to be more independent, and on the other, s/he seeks affirmation in society. During this period mentor relationships are likely to be especially stormy and vulnerable. The termination of a close tie with a mentor just now is often a mutually painful, tortuous process.

MID-LIFE TRANSITION (age 40 to 45)

At approximately 40 years of age a crucial developmental change is thought to occur. This is the most popularised stage of Levinson's theory known as the Mid-life Transition (or the "mid-life crisis"). This transitional stage is devoted to the termination of early adulthood and the initiation of middle adulthood. Within this period the life structure once again comes into question as one yearns to express one's actual desires, values, talents and aspirations. According to Levinson's theory, during a transitional period such as this, the neglected parts of oneself seek expression more urgently and stimulate the modification of the existing structure. Therefore, the process of the mid-life transition is generally seen as that of reviewing one's past life and reassessing plans for the future. This can occur with a considerable sense of urgency

and emotion and can lead to substantial even drastic changes of life style (Arnold, et.al, 1991; Levinson, et.al, 1978).

The Mid-life Transition may be rather mild and non-disruptive. However, when it involves considerable turmoil and disruption then it is generally referred to as a mid-life crisis. According to Levinson, et.al (1978) the mid-life transition is generally a period of crisis. Furthermore, it has been found that a value shift may occur during the mid-life transition as workers drift from adherence to cultural values to acts of self-expression (Yates, 1990). It is also possible for stagnation and decline to occur in the mid-life transition and middle adulthood, however, this is not considered by Levinson and others to be "normal" adult development.

Developmental Tasks

- (1) To terminate the era of early adulthood. To review one's life within this era and reappraise what one has achieved.
- (2) To take one's first steps toward the initiation of middle adulthood.
- (3) To deal with the polarities within one's life.

The initial focus in the Mid-life Transition is towards reappraising the past. As the Mid-life Transition proceeds, the emphasis gradually shifts from the past to the future where the focus is on making choices that will modify the existing life-structure and provide the central elements for

a new one. This involves planning for the next phase of life. When one commits to these choices and embarks upon a new pattern of existence, the transition period is complete and a new period - Entering Middle Adulthood - has begun (Levinson, et.al, 1978).

MIDDLE ADULTHOOD

ENTERING MIDDLE ADULTHOOD (age 45 to 50)

In the process of entering Middle Adulthood the tasks of the Mid-life Transition are given up. Although the opportunity to question and search is still present throughout middle adulthood and beyond it no longer predominates life as the main priority. One must now make the necessary, crucial, choices, give these choices meaning and commitment, and begin forming a new life structure around them. According to Levinson, et.al (1978), an initial life structure for middle adulthood is usually formed by the late forties.

THE AGE FIFTY TRANSITION (age 50 to 55)

The functions of this period in middle adulthood are similar to those of the Age Thirty Transition in early adulthood. Thus, one can further work on the tasks of the Mid-life Transition and can modify the life structure formed in the mid-forties. It is notable that Levinson, et.al (1978) did not believe it was possible to pass through middle adulthood without having at least a moderate crisis in either the Mid-life Transition or the Age fifty Transition.

THE SECOND MIDDLE ADULTHOOD LIFE STRUCTURE (age 55 to 60)

This stable period is devoted to building a second middle adulthood structure. This structure then provides a vehicle for completing middle adulthood (this phase is analogous to the Settling Down phase in early adulthood).

LATE ADULTHOOD TRANSITION (age 60 to 65)

According to Levinson, et.al (1978) this phase exists for the same kinds of reasons as the Mid-life Transition (although the specific content may be different). The tasks of this transition are to conclude the efforts of middle adulthood and to prepare oneself for the era to come. There is once again the realisation of biological decline, the increasing frequency of death and serious illness among loved ones, friends, and colleagues, there is also a socially defined change in generation. This transition seems to mark the gradual, or not so gradual, withdrawal of the individual from centre stage in many areas in their life. This type of adjustment can be traumatic and alienating. (Levinson, et.al, 1978).

LATE ADULTHOOD

In the early sixties middle adulthood normally comes to an end and late adulthood begins. The character of living is altered in fundamental ways as a result of numerous biological, psychological, and social changes. Levinson and his colleagues suggest that the primary developmental task

of late adulthood is to find a new balance of involvement within society and re-establish one's identity. This period lasts from about 60 to 85 years of age (Levinson, et.al, 1978).

Levinson, et.al (1978) also suggested that a new era, late, late adulthood, begins at around 80 years of age.

2.4 CRITIQUE AND COMPARISON OF SUPER AND LEVINSON'S THEORIES

2.4.1 Critique of Super's Theory

Developmental models and theories, particularly Super's theory, have profoundly influenced thinking about career behaviour (Hackett, et.al, 1991). In the 1970s and 1980s Super's theory was viewed as the most technically adequate, comprehensive, and advanced, and Super was regarded as the single most influential person in his field (Hackett, et.al, 1991; Osipow, 1987). Since then Super has revised and advanced his theory to incorporate the notion of Recycling (re-entering previous stages in response to change). This has led to a much more flexible framework for mapping a person's life and career development (Arnold, et.al, 1991). Indeed, according to Borgen (1991) "The power of Super's overarching thinking is apparent in how readily new ideas and trends are immediately compatible with his work decades earlier." (cited Fouad, 1992, p.278).

Logically Super's theory of career development, with its notion of recycling, is the most likely of all the career development theories currently available to be able to incorporate the career experiences of professional men and women. The notion of re-exploration and re-establishment (through recycling) appears to be of particular value with regard to understanding the needs and experiences of groups of people such as re-entry men and women. Thus, Super's ideas stand out as innovative and dynamic with regard to their potential to account for career development, not only of those pursuing the "traditional" career paths, but also for those who may be following alternative patterns of career involvement. Super's theory therefore seems to be the forerunner in this area, as well as the theory most likely to account for the career experiences of working women. Indeed, "Of the major theorists, only Super (1957) has made a serious attempt to extend his work to women..." (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980, p.45)

However, Super's theory has been criticised for several reasons. One of the most basic of Super's constructs, that of the Self-concept, has been criticised as lacking in explanation as to how this relates to objective outcomes (Brown, 1990a). Brown suggests that Super needs to illustrate in greater depth how self-concepts develop, and also to identify forces that result in their change. Furthermore, Super himself readily admits that he has not fully integrated the phenomenological, developmental, and

differential aspects of his theory into a cohesive statement (Brown, 1990a). Similarly, it appears that socio-demographic variables need to be more carefully accounted for in Super's basic propositions (Brown, 1990a). Osipow has also pointed to Super's lack of attention to economic and social factors as major weaknesses of his theory (Osipow, 1983; Hackett, et.al., 1991). Therefore, it appears that although Super recognised the importance of addressing the complex variables associated in the career development process with regard to sex, race, and socioeconomic status, these are still lacking in his theory.

The segmentation of Super's theory with regard to the "Archway" model of career development (Figure 2.2.3, p.24) also needs to be addressed. In this respect Super has attempted to compartmentalise aspects of his broad theory of career development implying that these compartments are all interrelated via interactive learning. Indeed, Super does not appear to seek the glory of one big idea, rather he is seeking to collate all relevant ideas and possible connections between them (Fouad, 1992). Thus, instead of one integrated, comprehensive, and testable theory, Super sees the current status of his work as a "...loosely unified set of theories dealing with specific aspects of career development, taken from developmental, differential, social, personality, and phenomenological psychology and held together by self-concept and learning theory" (Super, 1990, p.199).

However, Super's theory is a useful description of the process of vocational development, as it provides a systematic examination of important components of vocational development, and it also has considerable utility and empirical support for both research and practice (Hackett, et.al, 1991; Osipow, 1983; Osipow, 1990; Yates, 1990). As a conceptual model, Super's theory seems to be the most highly developed and advanced (Osipow, 1983; Osipow, 1990). "This is reflected in its explicitness, its fairly high degree of empirical support, and its substantially larger number of applications to human affairs." (Osipow, 1983, p.307).

Moreover, Super has contributed conceptually unique ideas, relative to other models of career development. This is epitomised in the idea of recycling which appears to be a useful and insightful adaptation of theory to reality. Recycling is also a useful amendment of Super's original model in an attempt to account for such alternatives to "traditional" models of careers as; changes of occupation or organisation, re-entry careers, and unstable careers. Support for this addition to Super et.al.'s model was provided by research conducted in the 1970s. This research has amply shown that during the adult years there is substantial recycling through earlier career development "stages" and that earlier developmental tasks are often re-encountered later in life with social, economic, and psychological changes (Super et.al, 1988).

Despite its limitations, Super's theory currently occupies centre stage among the theories of career development, and there is no reason to doubt that it will continue to be of considerable importance in the future (Brown, 1990a; Osipow, 1983). Super's theory and ideas therefore stand out as the strongest and most comprehensive theoretical influence on career development in practice and research to date (Brown, 1990a).

2.4.2 Critique of Levinson's Theory

Although Levinson's emphasis is on a period he refers to as the midlife transition (popularised as the "midlife crisis"), he does describe a model of adult development that includes both alternating stable periods of approximately 6-8 years and transitional periods of approximately 4-5 years (Shullman & Carder, 1983). His theory and research have been useful and have aided in the advancement of career development by providing constructs for predicting organisational behaviours during specific stages. The original sample used, however, was small and included only males (Shullman & Carder, 1983).

Another limitation of Levinson's theory appears to be its overemphasis on age-related development and its inability to account for the career development of people following alternative patterns of career involvement (for example, re-entry careers, change of occupation or organisation, late starting careers). Furthermore, there has been some

criticism that this theory has not been successful in studying managerial and professional careers since the transitional stages do not always correspond to the situational reality of a corporation (Mount, 1984).

In addition, although this theory has been applied to the career development of women and minorities, there is still a lack of empirical evidence to suggest that this approach is appropriate for such groups. For example, Gilligan (1980, 1982) questioned whether women have the opportunities to change their life structures in the way that men seem to according to Levinson's schema (cited Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989). Gilligan also criticised Levinson's emphasis on individual achievement in males as inappropriate in studying the lives of women. There is also some suggestion that the life course of women may be more closely tied to the family life cycle than to chronological age (Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989). Levinson, et.al (1978) themselves suggested that this was a limitation in their study and stated that "...the differences in the career experiences between men and women are sufficiently great so that they would have to become a major focus of analysis" (p.9). On the other hand, Levinson et.al (1978) did not seem to believe that the two gender groups were so different that separate theories of career development needed to be developed. They suggested that their model be used as the basis for a study of women's careers without necessarily making the assumption that the

two genders develop in either identical or totally different ways.

Another query with regard to Levinson's theory of life stages is the amount of emphasis on the mid-life transition. Indeed this was the main interest of their original study. However, as such a fundamental aspect of their work it is also the most controversial. Levinson, et.al (1978) admitted this when they stated "Our discovery of the Mid-life Transition, and our conception of it as a link between two distinctive eras in the life cycle, are among the most controversial aspects of our work" (p.23). Much controversy still surrounds the Mid-Life Transition or Crisis (as it is more commonly known). Thus, a major problem with Levinson's theory seems to be the overuse of his concept of the midlife crisis. The overly common use of the term has had the effect of exaggerating the concept and implying that what may very well be normal developmental changes be interpreted as crises (Super, et.al, 1988).

Despite the limitations of Levinson's theory it does represent major advances in the understanding of adult career and life development (Shullman & Carder, 1983). Career issues and activities are seen as critical, and the theory provides constructs for predicting organisational behaviours during specific stages of life (Shullman & Carder, 1983). Levinson's theory has also been helpful in the identification and description of various stages in the

adult development process and the critical nature of the transitions or "transformations" from one stage to the next (Hall & Lerner, 1986). This model has also fostered a good deal of research on career adjustment as moderated by age (Ornstein, et.al, 1989). However, although Levinson suggests that attitudes are likely to be different in distinct age categories, none of the research to date supports such explicit differences between each age group (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990).

2.4.3 Comparison of Super and Levinson's Theories

Super and Levinson both argue that people, no matter what their occupation or background, pass through specific career stages characterised by various crucial activities and psychological adjustments (Cohen, 1991; Campbell & Heffernan, 1983; Mount, 1984; Stout, et.al, 1988; Burack, 1984). These theories posit that one's stage will influence the strength of the relationship between commitment and its outcomes (Cohen, 1991).

However, due to the fact that Levinson's and Super's theories of careers were originally constructed at a time when employees were mostly men who entered the work-force early and stayed in the workforce until retirement, issues of women's development and the current trend of "downsizing" were not built into their formulations (Dalton, 1989). Therefore, an overall problem of both theories lies in the continuing lack of information on female and minority career

development as well as the need to incorporate socio-economic trends into their formulations. Due to this oversight, the issue of whether Super's or Levinson's stages of career development are equally valid for both sexes has yet to be established (Solomon, Bishop, & Bresser, 1986). Furthermore, recommendations have been made for separate theories of female career development (Osipow, 83; Fitzgerald & Betz, 1983; Cytrynbaum & Crites, 1989; Gallos, 1989). Although it is probably not necessary to start "reinventing the wheel", so to speak, this area is in need of a great deal of attention especially due to increasing numbers of women actively pursuing careers.

Despite these similarities between the two theories there are also some key differences. One of these being Super's view that career stages are flexible, and that each stage is amenable to recycling at a later point in development (Hackett, et.al, 1991). Super's theory, therefore, holds that although it is generally expected that the stages in the theory proceed in chronological order, it is possible for people to be at any stage at any point in their life or career, whereas Levinson's stages are rather more firmly determined and are assumed to progress in a well-ordered sequence (Ornstein, et.al, 1989). Accordingly, these two models make different predictions about the attitudes and behaviours that people are likely to experience over the course of their career.

Furthermore, the methodologies which each theorist used to conduct their initial theory forming research differed quite markedly. Levinson's theoretical model was based on research conducted in the 1970s utilising qualitative techniques and a small sample (n=40), whereas Super's theoretical model has been continually updated and refined due to numerous empirical studies utilising larger and more varied samples. In short, Super's original theory (1957) has benefited from decades of research, adaptation, and revision whereas Levinson's theory has not. Super's revision and update of his theory in 1986 and new measurement instruments developed as recently as 1988 are a prime example of this. In comparison, Levinson's model appears to be somewhat "dated" especially in the 'sexist' language used in his writings and the more general assumptions made about society and the world of work. For example, nowadays there is increasing pressure to demonstrate that one is established in one's life and career at younger ages than indicated by Levinson's model.

Furthermore, the rigidity of Levinson's age based assumptions is questionable, especially with regard to the timing of crises in one's life or career. Levinson's model also seems to be repetitive in certain places although he maintains that each stage is uniquely different from all the rest. This is probably not surprising as the earlier stages of the model were based on retrospective information and the latter stages seemed to be based, in many respects, on

Levinson's professional opinion. It seems to be entirely possible (due to Levinson's case-study based research and his small sample size) that Levinson's conclusions and subsequent theoretical model may have been unduly influenced by a few, possibly unusual, cases. Super's model would therefore seem to represent a more highly sophisticated (albeit still incomplete) theoretical model than Levinson's.

C H A P T E R T H R E E
C U R R E N T L I T E R A T U R E

A number of studies have suggested that relationships between attitudes and work behaviours are moderated by developmental stages. The interest in developmental stages and career patterns has also been elevated due to the growing number of women initiating careers at a later age (Morrow & McElroy, 1987). A number of researchers suggest that values, needs, perceptions, and expectations of employees change as they go through different developmental stages in their lives and careers (Rhodes, 1983; Cron, 1984; Pond & Greyer, 1987). It is implied that these value changes may have important implications for behaviours, and work related attitudes such as satisfaction and organisational commitment (Cron, 1984; London, 1983; Bedeian, Ferris, & Karmar, 1992; Ornstein, et.al, 1989; Chusmir, 1982; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Reilly & Orsak, 1991). Further, it is implied that one's work-related attitudes have implications for work-related outcomes such as employee turnover, mental health, performance, and productivity (Veiga, 1988; Weiner, Muczyk, & Gable, 1987; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Aryee & Tan, 1992; Jauch, Glueck, & Osborn, 1978; Reilly & Orsak, 1991; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Aranya, Kushnir, & Valency, 1986; Gattiker & Larwood, 1990; Swanson, 1992).

There is an intuitive appeal in the idea that if people move through patterns of adjustment in their careers, and life in general, then identifying the patterns and issues associated with various stages of adjustment should help our understanding of employee's attitudes and behaviours (Ornstein, et.al, 1989). This may then allow for more effective (and cost-efficient) organisational career planning programmes (Ornstein, et.al, 1989; Russell, 1991). Therefore, information about differences in values and attitudes of employees at different age and career stages is likely to provide a better basis for human resource and ergonomic improvements such as redesigning jobs, restructuring work, or adjusting remuneration and work related benefits to better meet the needs of employees in different age and career stages (Mount, 1984). Thus, recognition of differences between values and attitudes at different career and age stages, and between genders, for professional and long-term employees is likely to provide valuable information for the management of human resource.

In response, the present research is intended to help organisations with their human resource management needs by examining the values, career concerns, and attitudes of professional employees. In this respect, this study is concerned with the career experiences of professional male and female employees, especially with regard to gender differences in work attitudes and the degree of "fit" with the two theoretical formulations utilised in the present

research (discussed in the preceding chapter). First, however, it is important to present the relevant research conducted in this area prior to the present research.

3.1 DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES, WORK MOTIVATION, AND BEHAVIOUR

The presence of "career stages" has been well established in the literature by Super (1957; 1986; 1990) as well as Slocum and Cron (1985), Hall and Mansfield (1975), Cron (1984), and many others. These studies support the proposition that one's career stage effects or acts as a moderator with regard to work related attitudes such as job satisfaction, job involvement, perception of work environment, intentions to leave, organisational commitment, and various forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Slocum & Cron, 1985; Cron, 1984; Cron & Slocum, 1986; Gould & Hawkins, 1978; Mount, 1984; Stumpf & Rabinowitz, 1981; Veiga, 1983; Cohen, 1991; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Aryee & Tan, 1992). Some of these studies even imply that job performance varies according to one's career stage (Slocum & Cron, 1985; Cron, 1984; Cron & Slocum, 1986; Gould & Hawkins, 1978; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Reilly & Orsak, 1991; Meyer, et.al, 1989). However, these studies are limited to the extent that they have focused almost exclusively on male careers (when females were included the samples were too small to justify separate analyses or inclusion in the study's main results). Nevertheless, despite these limitations the following studies show that one's career stage does affect certain work attitudes.

Noe, et.al (1990) highlighted the fact that personal characteristics, including one's career stage, has an influence on employee attitudes and behaviours. The job attitudes that Noe, et.al (1990) found were influenced by career stage were work involvement, satisfaction, willingness to accept mobility opportunities, and organisational commitment. These findings were similar to those of Noe, Steffy, and Barber (1988) who maintained that an employee's willingness to accept mobility opportunities was related to their career stage. These results further illuminated the need for continuing research to understand better the implications of an employee's career stage on work attitudes, behaviours, and ultimately business productivity (Noe et.al, 1990; Gould & Hawkins, 1978).

In 1989 Ornstein, Cron and Slocum initiated research examining the effects of career stage and age on one's job attitudes and performance in response to the recognition of a lack of current research in the area. Ornstein et.al's study compared the theories of Super and Levinson with regard to the extent to which they account for men's attitudes and behaviours at different stages of their working lives. Their sample consisted of 535 Salespeople, 96% of whom were men. Based on their findings Ornstein, et.al. (1989) contend that Levinson's theoretical life-stage model better explains employee's attitudes and behavioral intentions about events external to the work itself, while Super's model focuses more on attitudes relative to the work

itself. Consequently, Ornstein, et.al (1989) suggested that managers and human resource professionals may want to target their career programmes towards employees in their early career stages (as they found that these employees were more homogeneous compared with employees at later career stages). They also suggest that greater numbers of female employees be included in future research as this was a major limitation of their study.

Some past studies have also focused specifically on the relationship between one's life stage and one's work attitudes. In a study on the links between perceived work alternatives and job satisfaction, Pond and Geyer (1987) suggested that some aspect of employee age rather than tenure and education was probably responsible for the moderating effect found in their study. They found that the link between perceived work alternatives and job satisfaction was weaker for older than for younger employees. They explained this effect by stating that if employees in different life stages differ with respect to values, needs, and expectations, it is likely that they value outside job opportunities differently. They further suggested that more research is needed to investigate the moderating effects of employee age on various work-related attitudes and perceptions. Adler and Aranya's (1984) research further maintains that at different life stages professionals, in this case male Accountants (n = 764), differ significantly in their needs and work attitudes.

This finding was supported by an earlier study conducted by Rhodes (1983). Thus, Adler and Aranya found that this particular group of professionals differed significantly in their reported important work needs, attitudes, and salient vocational preferences across different life stages.

Pryor's (1982) study supports the above notion of a moderating effect of employee age or life stage on work attitudes. He found that, within his sample of salaried professionals, older workers had more favourable attitudes towards their job, attendance at work, and towards management and its policies. Raelin's (1985) study also found support for a life-cycle hypothesis of aging and work patterns among salaried professionals (n = 114). In his study, as with Pryor's, older workers tended to be more satisfied with their jobs, have a better attendance record, less turnover, and identify themselves more strongly with management and its policies. Raelin (1985) concluded that professionals should be aware of the likelihood of undergoing life-cycle changes and that management should be aware of the differing patterns characterising their employees at different life-stages.

Results from Lee & Wilbur's (1985) study showed that job satisfaction increased with age. Younger employees were less satisfied overall with their jobs, but especially with the intrinsic characteristics of the work, whereas, older employees were more satisfied with the extrinsic

characteristics of their jobs than younger groups of employees. However, Lee & Wilbur (1985) state that the work values of older workers may have contributed to the differences found in satisfaction with extrinsic characteristics of their work. Alternatively, according to Jans (1989), organisational commitment varies across life stages due to the variations across life stages in many of the determinants of organisational commitment. Job involvement had the biggest impact on organisational commitment in the apprenticeship stage and its least in the establishment stage.

3.2 DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES, WORK ATTITUDES, AND WOMEN

As mentioned in the earlier section on developmental stages and work attitudes, most studies have been limited due to their lack of incorporation of females in their samples. As the career development literature has focused almost exclusively on males it is important that future research include greater numbers of females in an attempt to understand their career development and assess the validity of life and career stages for both sexes (Solomon, et.al, 1986; Jenkins, 1989; Fitzgerald & Betz, 1983; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990; Ornstein, et.al, 1989; Cohen & Gutek, 1991; Mannheim, 1993). There has been a tendency within the literature to assume homogeneity within the psychological experience of all women, however, it is more realistic that examining the interests and experiences of different groups of women would

result in greater understanding of female careers (Cassell & Walsh, 1993). In this respect, the attitudes and needs of women may be seen to be moderated by their Life or Career Stage.

One study which was designed to redress the lack of research on the Life and Career Stages of women was Ornstein and Isabella (1990). Ornstein and Isabella's study was a partial replication and extension of Ornstein, et.al's (1989) study (using male subjects) with the intention to compare their research and results to those of Ornstein, et.al (1989). The subjects involved in this research were 204 women within a North American Telecommunications firm. All respondents had attained at least the first level of management which was the third level of supervision within the firm. The results of Ornstein and Isabella's study provided moderate support for Levinson's theory of life stages. In general, organisational commitment, intention to leave, and desire for promotion differed for women in different Life Stages. This was similar to the pattern found for men in Ornstein, et.al's study. Ornstein and Isabella's study did not, however, demonstrate the distinctive patterns of differences across age groups as predicted by Levinson. More intriguing, was that the study found no support for Super's Career stages. This finding is both very different from the findings of Ornstein, et.al (1989) and somewhat contrary to Super's suggestions that such attitudes will be different as a function of career

stage. Ornstein and Isabella (1990) offered a variety of explanations for these results and stated that "Super's career development model involving psychological stages is still appealing but needs refinement for women.... Much more research is needed to describe the particular career experiences of women." (p.16). This has been attempted in the present study.

Russell & Rush's (1987) study also examined the concerns and needs of women. They found that different age groups of women had differing beliefs and concerns about embarking on a career in management. This study reinforced the idea that while women (and men) may share many similar opinions concerning a career in management, they also differ with respect to their concerns and needs according to age or life stage.

Hodson (1989) found few differences between men and women in determinants of job satisfaction when job characteristics, family responsibilities, and personal expectations were considered. Hodson (1989) further stated that women may arrive at higher levels of job satisfaction than men through the use of different comparison groups. Women tend to compare themselves with other women rather than with men within the same occupation (who are likely to be in a better position or have a higher salary). Therefore, working women may compare themselves to homemakers, their own mothers, or other women within a similar position rather than men within

a similar position. In addition, men may be more willing to verbalise dissatisfaction with work because of different socialisation experiences. Hodson (1989) concluded that these two factors, different comparison groups and different socialisation experiences, probably act in conjunction resulting in higher reported levels of satisfaction for females in their sample.

In Graddick and Farr's (1983) study (n = 887), male (51%) and female (49%), scientists did not appear to differ on job involvement and professional activities. They did however differ on their level of organisational commitment, their perceptions of on-the-job treatment, and the extent of their role conflicts. It may be that, as found by Cook (1993), work environments embody broadly accepted assumptions and expectations for men and women, which affect the choices and expectations they face in the work place. Cook (1993) suggests that men and women face different environmental opportunities, demands, and rewards on a daily basis which constitutes the gendered context of their lives. Thus, the work attitudes of women, and men, may depend on their environmental circumstances and the expectations of others as well as such factors as socialisation (Cook, 1993; Mannheim, 1993).

According to Solomon, Bishop, and Bresser (1986) there are two major contributors to gender differences in career development, these are: differences in attitudes,

expectations, and behaviour due to previous socialisation; and differences due to an organisational bias. Solomon, et.al's (1986) findings further suggest that specific aspects of organisational and personal realities may serve either to enhance or diminish gender differences that may exist. As stated by Solomon, et.al (1986) "...even in cases where females may perform similar tasks to those performed by males, often with equal preparation, competence, and authority, gender-based performance evaluations of females will result in different rates of progress for the females' careers." (p.28).

Another issue surrounding age or life stages of women is the assumption that at certain life stages women will generally bear the burden of family responsibilities. This is then assumed to create obstacles in the form of role overload, role conflict, and overt and covert discrimination (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Deitch & Sanderson, 1987). Based on these assumptions Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) believe that understanding the demands on women, and their ways of dealing with these demands across the life span is of central importance in understanding women's career experiences and adjustment. They also suggest that the major work needs are similar for the sexes. Both sexes value the opportunity to gain feelings of accomplishment, job security, income potential, and respect from others for their work (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Furthermore,

according to Fitzgerald and Cherpas (1985) it is likely that as women's career behaviour changes so too will men's.

Savickas, et.al (1988) support the suggestion that males and females have an equally strong intrinsic work motivation, however, they suggest that extrinsic motives differ somewhat between the sexes. They maintain that males are more interested in competition and external symbols of accomplishment, whereas women place greater value on collaborative work relationships and on the work environment itself. Despite these differences they generally support Betz and Fitzgerald's proposition that there do not appear to be differences in the overall importance of achievement between genders, and that both women and men report strong needs to use their abilities and to experience feelings of accomplishment. Thus, the assumption is that the career development for women is not fundamentally different from that of men, but that it is a great deal more complex (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Savickas, et.al, 1988; Hackett, et.al, 1991).

In short, although there is growing interest in women's issues and career development with regard to most areas of vocational psychology, there is still a need to identify the issues of concern to adult, career-orientated women. Moreover, as Levinson and Super's models have been assumed to apply to women it is important that these prominent theories be tested from the perspective of women's own

reported concerns, values, and attitudes at various stages of life and career. In this regard, it appears to be more feasible to develop or adapt theories currently available to incorporate the career experiences of women rather than develop separate theories solely for women (Brown, 1990b). Super has attempted to do this with his revision of his 1957 theory in 1984. This revision was an attempt to accommodate individual differences within a more global theory to prove that current established theories need not be discarded in favour of more piecemeal theories. In addition to this, at present there is no compelling evidence to suggest that current theories of career development predict any less well for women and minorities than they do for white males (Brown, 1990b).

It is with this in mind that two well established and recognised theories in the career development area are to be compared, examined and evaluated as to their utility for a New Zealand sample of professionals (both men and women). Therefore, the present research has attempted to incorporate this complexity into its design and analysis. Furthermore, most of the studies discussed so far were conducted with North American samples. Consequently very little research has explored this area in vocational and occupational psychology within New Zealand.

3.3 THE PRESENT STUDY

Despite being based on prior research conducted in the United States of America, the present study is exploratory in nature. Due to its exploratory nature it is intended that this study act as a springboard for further research into the area of adult career development within New Zealand. It is also intended that the results of this research, and any implications arising from it, shall be made available to the business community to help improve Human Resource practices within New Zealand. Consequently, the focus of the present research is to explore and examine the work attitudes and values of New Zealand professionals.

Work attitudes were operationalised in the present research as: organisational commitment - willingness to give something of oneself in order to contribute to the organisation; Job intentions and preferences - intention to leave one's present organisation, willingness to relocate, desire for promotion, and preferred timing of future promotions; Job involvement - one's psychological identification with work or the extent to which one's work performance affects one's self-esteem; and Job satisfaction - the degree to which one feels fulfilled or satisfied by one's job (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr, 1981; Veiga, 1981; Slocum and Cron, 1985; Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Guralnik, 1982; Blau, 1985; Blau, 1988). Work values, described as basic reference dimensions underlying needs or second-order needs (Macnab & Fitzsimmons, 1987), were

operationalised according to Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory (WVI). This includes the following values: Altruism, Aesthetics, Creativity, Intellectual Stimulation, Achievement, Independence, Prestige, Management, Economic Return, Security, Surroundings, Supervisory Relations, Associates, Way of life, and Variety (Super, 1970; Cook, et.al, 1981).

The purpose of the present research is to compare the values and work attitudes of professional men and women, in the research sample, and to relate these findings to two theoretical models of career development. These theoretical models of career development were outlined and discussed in chapter two of the present thesis. They are Super's theory of Career Stages and Levinson's theory of Life Stages. The present research is concerned with: (1) Identifying any significant differences present in various work attitudes from one Life or Career Stage to the next. (2) Identifying the most important work values of a sample of New Zealand Professionals at different Life and Career Stages. (3) Whether there are any differences between men and women with regard to their work attitudes and work values, and (4) whether Super's or Levinson's theory of career development can be utilised in a practical sense in relation to career planning and career development of New Zealand professionals. As a result, the intention of the present study is to, in some small way, bridge a gap of knowledge in the career development literature as mentioned

by many researchers (Burack, 1990; Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Shullman & Carder, 1983; Adler & Aranya, 1984; Mount, 1984; Ornstein, et.al, 1989; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990).

Based on the above literature the following research questions were proposed:

- 1(a) Are there differences in work attitudes (namely organisational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction, willingness to relocate, intention to leave the organisation, desire for promotion, and preferred timing of promotion) according to the gender of respondents?
- 1(b) Are there any differences in work attitudes (namely organisational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction, willingness to relocate, intention to leave the organisation, desire for promotion, and preferred timing of promotion) according to respondents' Life Stage? (Levinson's Theory).
- 1(c) Are there any differences in work attitudes (namely organisational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction, willingness to relocate, intention to leave the organisation, desire for promotion, and preferred timing of promotion) according to respondents' Career Stage? (Super's Theory).

- 2(a) What are the most important work values for the present sample of professional employees?
- 2(b) Do important work values vary according to gender?
- 2(c) Do important work values vary according to the present research respondents' Life Stage? (Levinson's Theory).
- 2(d) Do important work values vary according to the present research respondents' Career Stage? (Super's Theory).
3. Can either Super's Theory of Career Stages or Levinson's Theory of Life Stages be utilised with regard to career planning and career development for the present research sample?

C H A P T E R F O U R
M E T H O D O L O G Y

4.1 SUBJECTS

The subjects used in the present study were sampled from seven large organisations within the Wellington region of New Zealand. For the purposes of the present research a large organisation was defined as - an organisation which employs over 100 people. For most of the organisations involved in the present research a significant proportion of these employees were "professionals". Hence, the focus was on the professional, semi-professional, or managerial careers of employees within such "large" organisations.

The term "professional" was defined rather broadly and the working definition used was: Professional - a person who has obtained a great deal of competence, skill, and learning within a particular occupation and possesses a certain standard or quality which is expected of a professional and a professional's work (Sykes, 1982; Guralnik, 1982). This term tends to imply possession of a high level of formal education (for example a university degree or Post-graduate degree) or membership of a "professional" association or group. Although many individual's within the research sample did possess such qualifications (n = 166, 45.1%), the remainder (54.9%) did not. However, each respondent was perceived to be a professional by their employer. The sample of subjects obtained for the present research are not

generally representative of professional workers as (1) participation in the present study was voluntary, (2) subjects were sampled from only one New Zealand region, (3) sampling was not statistically random (see section 4.3.2 Sampling).

The research sample (n=368) is reasonably evenly split between the sexes, 46.5% of the total sample of subjects were female (n=171) and 53.5% were male (n=197). This relatively even split between the sexes is due to sampling and is not necessarily representative of the actual proportion of men and women within these occupations. It was necessary to obtain balanced gender samples from a similar population in order for comparisons between the sexes to be made, as outlined in the present study's research questions. Consequently, this lack of randomisation will, of course, limit the extent to which the results of the present study can be generalised. However, as the thrust of this research is exploratory rather than experimental it is more concerned with observing whether there are predictable patterns within the data rather than making statistical inferences about larger populations.

Subjects ranged in age from early 20s to late 60s (mode = 26, mean = 36). They also varied in terms of tenure, occupational group, industrial group, level of responsibility, and organisational affiliation, as can be seen in Tables (4.1.1 to 4.1.5).

Table 4.1.1

Industries Sampled

<u>Industries</u>	(N)	(%)
Banking	146	39.8
Justice	94	25.5
Health	44	12.0
Insurance	43	11.7
Petroleum	40	11.0

Total Public Sector	138	37.5
Total Private Sector	229	62.5

Table 4.1.2

Types of Occupations Sampled

<u>Type of Occupation</u>	(N)	(%)
Business: Financial	70	19.0
Business: Management	110	29.9
Business: Sales Promotion	60	16.3
Business: Office/Clerical	55	14.9
Science	63	17.1
Law	8	2.2
Other	2	0.6

Note. See Appendix A for Classification of Occupational Career Fields. (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers & Jordaan 1985).

Table 4.1.3

Levels of Responsibility Sampled

<u>Level of Position</u>	(N)	(%)
Senior and/or Regional Manager	16	4.3
Assistant Senior or Regional Manager	7	1.9
Manager	108	29.3
Supervisor or Assistant Manager	22	6.0
Senior Consultant/Adviser	33	9.0
Consultant/Adviser/Executive	105	28.5
Executive Assistant/Support Staff	75	20.4
Other	2	0.6

Table 4.1.4

Tenure within Current Organisation

<u>Tenure</u>	(N)	(%)
Less than 3 years	93	25.2
Less than 6 years	93	25.2
Less than 9 years	65	17.7
Less than 12 years	30	8.2
Less than 15 years	16	4.3
Less than 18 years	18	4.9
Less than 21 years	17	4.6
Less than 24 years	8	2.2
Less than 27 years	7	1.9
Less than 30 years	12	3.3
Less than 33 years	5	1.4
Less than 36 years	4	1.1

It is interesting to note that 50.4% of respondents have been with their current organisation for less than six years and that 68.5% of respondents have been in their current position for two or less years. This is probably due to the present socio-economic environment which has developed within New Zealand over the past few years. For example, insecurity in the job market, "downsizing", as well as substantial restructuring in many of the organisations which took part in this study.

Table 4.1.5

Tenure within Current Position

<u>Tenure</u>	(N)	(%)
Less than 1 year	122	33.2
One to two years	130	35.3
Three to four years	72	19.5
Five to six years	25	6.7
Seven to eight years	11	3.0
Nine and over years	8	2.2

Subjects were predominantly European New Zealanders 80.2% (n=295), 4.1% (n=15) were Maori, 4.3% (n=16) Asian, and 4.9% (n=18) from the United Kingdom. This would appear to represent a fairly typical professional New Zealand workforce which is multicultural, although predominantly European in its constitution.

4.2 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The following measures were presented to the research subjects via a self-report questionnaire format. This questionnaire was self-administered and required approximately 60 minutes to complete (Some respondents may have taken more or less time to complete the questionnaire depending on the detail of their responses to some open-ended questions).

The measures used in this study were in many respects similar to those used by Ornstein and Isabella (1990), and Ornstein, et.al (1989), however, additional measures were utilised. In hindsight, the questionnaire should have been shortened or administered in two separate parts. This may have increased subject participation and decreased the time involvement for respondents. (See Appendix B for an example of the questionnaire used in the present research).

4.2.1 Demographics

Several demographic questions were included in the questionnaire (Appendix B). These questions cover core

demographic information such as age, marital status, level of education, tenure in one's present organisation, tenure in one's present job, ethnic group, and family commitments. The purpose of these questions was to identify any demographic differences that may account for different responses and possibly different levels of "fit" with the two theoretical models outlined in Part Two.

4.2.2 Organisational Commitment

Organisational Commitment is defined, for the purposes of the present research, as an attitude in which committed employees are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organisation (Cook, et.al, 1981). Thus, organisational commitment is defined as "the extent to which an individual accepts his or her role in terms of its contribution to those goals and values, apart from any personal instrumentalities which may attend his or her contribution." (DeCotiis & Summer, 1987, p.448). It is characterised by three factors: a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; a readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation (Cook, et.al, 1981).

This construct was assessed via the Porter and Smith (1970) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Porter and Smith's scale is composed of 15 items each requiring a seven-point response scale format ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to

7 = Strongly Agree. Six items are negatively phrased and reverse scored. Total scores range from 15 to 105. The higher the score the more organisationally committed an individual is assumed to be. A couple of examples of the items on this inventory are:

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.
7. I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar.
(R)

Reliability and validity evidence has been provided by Dubin, Champoux and Porter (1975), Mowday, Porter and Dubin (1974), Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976), Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974), Steers (1977), Steers and Spencer (1977) and Stone and Porter (1975) (cited in Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). Coefficient alpha is consistently high in the studies they describe, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93 with a median of 0.90. Scale means reported by Mowday, et.al (1979) range from 4.0 to 6.1 with a median of 4.5. Standard deviations range from 0.64 to 1.30 around a median of 1.06. Illustrative test-retest reliability coefficients from the Mowday, et.al.'s (1979) review were 0.72 across two months and 0.62 across three months. Mowday, et.al. (1979) also summarise longitudinal studies indicating that organisational commitment scores significantly predict leaving behaviour in a range of samples. Their conclusion is supported by additional data from Hom, Katerberg and Hulin (1979) and Kerr and Jermier (1978). This measure has

often been used for organisational research due to its well established reliability and validity (Price & Mueller, 1986). This, in addition to making the data from this study comparable to other similar studies, was the justification for using this particular measure of organisational commitment.

The coefficient alpha found for this inventory on the present study's sample was 0.89. This is comparable with the coefficient alpha's reported in the literature reviewed by Mowday, et.al. (1979).

4.2.3 Job Intentions and Preferences

Four questions were used to assess individual job intentions and preferences. One item, intention to leave one's organisation, was selected from Veiga's (1981) study. This was measured on a 5-point response scale. The other questions were based on the work of Slocum and Cron (1985). Two of these questions, willingness to relocate and desire for promotion, were assessed using 7-point response scales while the other, preferred timing of future promotions, was assessed using a 6-point response scale. These questions were also utilised in the study conducted by Ornstein and Isabella (1990).

These questions are:

Do you plan to be working for your present employer 5 years in the future?
(1 = Yes, definitely to 5 = No, definitely not)

Would you be willing to move if a position required it?
(1 = Very likely to 7 = Very unlikely)

Do you want to be promoted?
(1 = Yes, definitely to 7 = No, definitely not)

When do you want to get promoted?
(1 = Now, immediately to 6 = Never, do not want to be promoted).

4.2.4 Job Involvement

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) define Job Involvement in terms of the extent to which a person's work performance affects his or her self-esteem. In other words, job involvement can be operationalised in terms of one's psychological identification with, and dedication to, work and one's career (Blau, 1985; 1988). Therefore, "The Job-involved person is one for whom paid employment plays a central part in life and who is affected personally by his or her employment circumstances." (Cook, et.al, 1981, p.117). As such, Job involvement has a base in one's personal value system and is relatively resistant to change (Cook, et.al, 1981).

The above construct was consequently assessed using the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) scale of Job involvement. Many variations of this inventory have been used in past research (Rabinowitz, Hall and Gooddale, 1977; Hall, Gooddale, Rabinowitz and Morgan, 1978; Schmitt, Coyle, Rauschenberger and White, 1979; Schmitt, White, Coyle and Rauschenberger, 1979; White, 1978; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990). These variations have been used because of assumptions that part

of the Job Involvement scale reflects a stable value orientation, and another part reflects a more attitudinal or situationally determined orientation (Cook, et.al, 1981). However, it was decided that within the context of the present study both aspects of Job Involvement would be of interest. Therefore, the full length version of this inventory was used under the assumption that it would probably be more informative than one of the shorter versions in an exploratory context such as the present research.

This full length Job Involvement measure has 20 items on a four-point response scale (1 = Strongly Agree to 4 = Strongly Disagree). Seven of the items are negatively phrased and reverse scored. Total scores range from 20 to 80 with a high score indicating low Job Involvement. A couple of examples of the items on this inventory are:

1. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it.
7. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work.

In previous studies it was demonstrated that with three separate samples of three different occupations (Nurses, Students, and Engineers) the mean score on the Job involvement inventory ranged from 42.62 to 48.06 (s.d. 6.52 to 9.56) and that the Spearman Brown internal reliability coefficient ranged from 0.72 to 0.89 (Cook, et.al, 1981). Job Involvement was also found to correlate negatively with Role Ambiguity (8.15) (range -0.12 to -0.41, median -0.35)

and with Role Conflict (8.16) (range -0.12 to -0.28, median -0.18) (Schuler, Aldag, and Brief, 1977).

The mean score range, on this inventory, for the sample in the present research was 46.09 to 47.45 (s.d. 5.60 to 7.95). Therefore, the level of mean job involvement for the present research sample is comparable to the above samples, however, there appears to be less deviation around the mean than in the previous examples. The coefficient alpha for the present sample was 0.83.

4.2.5 Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction is the degree to which one feels fulfilled or satisfied by his or her job, or the activities within his or her job or occupation (Guralnik, 1982).

This construct was measured using the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). This instrument comprises 20 items and was designed to determine an individual's satisfaction with various aspects of his or her job. It was selected by Ornstein and Isabella (1990) based on its demonstrated psychometric properties as well as its length. It was therefore used in the present study to facilitate comparisons between the present study and that of Ornstein and Isabella (1990). A couple of examples of the items on this inventory are:

On my present job, this is how I feel about:

1. Being able to keep busy all the time.....
8. The way my job provides for steady employment.....

This measure taps a wide range of features, and the total of the 20 items (on a five-point response scale) is taken as an index of Overall Job Satisfaction. The response format ranges from 1 = Very Dissatisfied to 5 = Very Satisfied. The possible range of scores lie between 20 and 100 for Overall Job Satisfaction, the higher the score the more "satisfied" the individual is assumed to be (Weiss, et.al, 1967). General or Overall Job Satisfaction is reported by the authors to have high Hoyt internal reliability coefficients for a number of studies (Cook, et.al, 1981). The reported median for the studies is 0.90, with a range from 0.87 to 0.92. Test-retest reliability was reported as 0.89 across one week for 75 employees attending night school and 0.70 across one year for 115 varied employees.

Therefore, overall "The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire appears to yield a sound measure of Overall Job Satisfaction" (Cook, et.al, 1981, p.24) and as such was deemed to be a useful instrument for data collection in this study.

The coefficient alpha found for this instrument on the sample in the present research was 0.85.

4.2.6 Work Values

The Work Values Inventory (WVI) is an instrument used to assess the values which affect one's motivation to work (Cook, et.al, 1981). In other words, the WVI measures the sources of satisfaction that people seek from their work environment (Zunker, 1990). Work values impact on work expectations, and they most likely influence the willingness of an individual to invest cognitively in the work role (Mannheim, 1993).

This inventory covers the following 15 values:

- Altruism work which enables one to contribute to others' welfare
- Aesthetic work which permits one to make beautiful things
- Creativity ... work in which one invents new things or develops new ideas
- Intellectual.. work in which one can exercise one's judgement and learn how and why things work
- Stimulation
- Achievement .. work which gives one a feeling of accomplishment in doing a job well, with the emphasis on tangible results
- Independence.. work which permits one to undertake tasks in one's own way and at one's own pace
- Prestige work which evokes respect in other's eyes
- Management ... work which involves directing others
- Economic work which pays well
- Return
- Security work where a job is always secure
- Surroundings.. work carried out under pleasant conditions
- Supervisory .. work where the supervisor is fair and congenial
- Relations

- Associates ... work which brings one into contact with fellow workers whom one likes
- Way of life .. work which allows one to live as one wishes, to be the type of person one wishes to be
- Variety work which allows one to do different types of jobs
- (Super, 1970; Cook, et.al, 1981; Anastasi, 1988).

Each of these 15 values are tapped by a separate three-item sub-scale with the resultant 45 items being random in order of presentation. Responses are obtained on a five-point response continuum (ranging from 5 = Very Important to 1 = Unimportant) and are summed to produce sub-scale scores (Cook, et.al, 1981). Respondents are asked to indicate how important each "satisfaction" is to them. A few examples of the items in the scale are as follows:

Work in which you ...

1. ...have to keep solving new problems.
7. ...need to have artistic ability.
14. ...have authority over others.
23. ...are mentally challenged.
31. ...add to the well-being of other people.

Extensive normative information is offered in the source publication, for example test-retest correlations over two weeks using a sample of ninety nine 10th grade North American school-children ranged from 0.74 to 0.88, with a median of 0.83 (Cook, et.al, 1981; Anastasi, 1988). Furthermore, this inventory represents the culmination of twenty years of research in the area of work values and

further research with the current form should provide a better basis for evaluating its effectiveness (Anastasi, 1988).

As with many inventories "faking" or responding biased on what is perceived to be socially desirable is a potential problem, especially in selection or promotional circumstances. In the present research it was assumed that this would not be a serious problem due to the confidentiality of the survey and the fact that it was conducted independently of the organisations within which the respondents were employed at the time. However, it is an issue worthy of consideration when interpreting the results of this and other inventories.

According to Cook, et.al (1981) "The relatively simple items and good face validity of the Survey of Work Values suggest this instrument would be useful for studies concerned with work experience." (p.152). Therefore, based on this information, and the apparent utility of this instrument for the present research, this inventory was included as part of the research questionnaire (Appendix B).

The coefficient alphas for the 15 values based on the sample in the present research are:

Intellectual Stimulation	0.64	Altruism	0.83
Economic Return	0.72	Variety	0.60
Independence	0.73	Prestige	0.64
Aesthetics	0.68	Associates	0.59
Security	0.88	Way of Life	0.60
Supervisory Relations	0.73	Surroundings	0.75
Achievement	0.62	Management	0.76
Creativity	0.76		

Therefore, the coefficient alphas for the values on this inventory range from 0.60 to 0.88 for the sample within the present research. The work values with coefficient alphas in the 0.70s to late 0.80s have a reasonable level of reliability. The work values with coefficient alphas in the 0.60s are markedly less reliable. This limitation will be considered in the analysis of the results of this inventory.

4.2.7 Career Stage

Career Stage was assessed using Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers, and Jordaan's (1981) Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI). This inventory assesses an individual's awareness of and concern with the various tasks of career development. The inventory consists of a total of 60 items each of which describes a potential career concern.

The purpose of the inclusion of the ACCI in the present study was to help identify the career development tasks

which adults are concerned with and to consequently classify respondents by Super's developmental stages. There are 15 items that describe career concerns for each of Super's four stages (Exploration, Establishment, Maintenance, and Disengagement). Internal consistency reliabilities for the subscales have been reported as: Exploration, 0.95; Establishment, 0.92; Maintenance, 0.91; Disengagement, 0.91 (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990). The ACCI also incorporates the fact that individuals may face any one task at more than one stage as they recycle through their career and that they can focus on more than one task at a time. Career concerns are also envisaged as being somewhat related to age but not specifically limited to any one life stage (Super, Osborne, Walsh, Brown, & Niles, 1992).

A few examples of items on the ACCI which respondents are asked to respond to, on a five point response continuum (ranging from 1 = No Concern to 5 = Great Concern), are as follows:

8. Finding a line of work that really interests me.
19. Achieving stability in my occupation.
30. Advancing to a more responsible position.
44. Developing new skills to cope with changes in my field.

Internal consistency has been examined in one group of academic professionals (n=68) and another of corporate employees (n=251) (both men and women all higher than the semi-skilled level). Another study sampled a group of

Masters degree applicants for a nursing program in the United States of America (Halpin, Ralph, & Halpin, 1990). Alpha coefficients for these samples were all in the 0.90s for the stages of Exploration through to Disengagement (Super, et.al, 1992; Halpin, et.al, 1990).

The ACCI appears to provide a clear picture of a major aspect of career status and dynamics. Construct validity has been established, and the reliabilities of even the substage scores are in the 0.80s (Super, et.al, 1992). The ACCI is a state-of-the-art measure in the Career Development area (Super, et.al, 1992). Thus, this instrument was seen as an essential measure to include in the present study. Unfortunately, this also contributed to the seemingly excessive length of the research questionnaire (Appendix B).

The coefficient alphas found for Super's stages, with the present research sample, using the ACCI are:

Exploration	0.95	Establishment	0.94
Maintenance	0.94	Disengagement	0.92

These coefficient alphas are clearly comparable with those reported in the above discussion.

4.2.8 Life Stage

This concept was defined by the participant's chronological age group according to Levinson's theory (Section 2.3). People were simply grouped depending on their chronological age into one of the various Life Stages proposed by

Levinson. The result was the following Life Stages: Early Adulthood (22 to 27 years of age); The Age Thirty Transition (28 to 33 years of age); The Settling Down Stage (34 to 39 years of age); The Mid-Life Transition (40 to 44 years of age); Entering Middle Adulthood (45 to 49 years of age); and Middle Adulthood (50 to 60 years of age). The last stage represents a composite group of two of Levinson's stages "The Age Fifty Transition" and "The Second Middle Adulthood Life Structure". These two stages appeared to have similar functions so (due to the small numbers of respondents in each of these stages) the decision was made to combine them into one Life Stage namely "Middle Adulthood".

4.3 PROCEDURE

4.3.1 Pilot Testing

The research questionnaire was pilot tested prior to the main collection of data. The sample used in this procedure was similar to the subjects who participated in the main data collection. The subjects who participated in the pilot test were obtained from one of the public sector organisations also involved in the main data collection. Information from this pilot study was then used to further refine and improve the questionnaire. An additional measure (the WVI) was added to the questionnaire at this time. An example of the final format of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix B.

4.3.2 Sampling

Sampling of subjects was based mainly on availability and the willingness of organisations and individuals to be involved. Thus, the sample is limited to the extent that no statistical randomisation was conducted in selecting subjects for the study. This was partially due to practical constraints in organising and liaising with a number of different organisations, trying to ensure that a reasonable number of women would be sampled, and ethical constraints within particular organisations (for example, confidentiality of personnel information). However, a practical compromise was made and the researcher worked in conjunction with people within the Personnel/Human Resource departments of the participating organisations in order to achieve as representative a sample of professional workers as possible under these constraints. In addition, the researcher endeavoured to obtain a wide spread of professional workers across various organisations and across various levels of responsibility within these organisations.

4.3.3 Data Collection

Once the above sampling had been conducted potential participants were contacted through the internal mail system of each organisation. At this stage the improved version of the questionnaire (Appendix B) was administered to the seven organisations involved in the study. Questionnaire packs (questionnaire, consent form, return addressed envelope, information sheet, and covering letter) were sent through

the internal mail to participants selected via the above sampling procedure. Participation after this stage was voluntary.

Questionnaires were returned via each organisation's internal mail system, sealed and addressed to the researcher, or directly to the researcher via Massey University. A memorandum (Appendix C) was sent as a follow up reminder to participants within organisations with low response rates. The follow up memorandum stated that participation in the research was voluntary but would be greatly appreciated by the researcher. If the individual contacted was still willing to be involved in this research then they should complete the questionnaire and return it via their internal mail or directly to the researcher. A deadline was also specified. Approximately 53% of possible participants responded, of these 368 completed questionnaires were useable (2 questionnaires were returned half completed and 8 questionnaires had missing data fundamental to the results of the present research) reducing returned questionnaires to approximately 52% of possible participants. This would seem to be a reasonable response rate for such a voluntary postal questionnaire by previous standards.

Note. On a micro level some organisations had a better response rate than other organisations, however, this does not appear to be consistent across the types of industries sampled.

4.3.4 Data Analysis

Initially all of the research variables were analysed using descriptive statistics. For most demographic and qualitative variables no further analyses were required for the purposes of the present research questions. Age, in the form of Levinson's Life stages, was then correlated with Super's Career Stage to determine any significant relationship between the two variables.

Following these preliminary analyses two MANOVAs were conducted. One MANOVA had Sex and Life Stage as the independent variables (IVs) and organisational commitment, job involvement, job intentions and preferences, and job satisfaction as the dependent variables (DVs). The other MANOVA had Sex and Career Stage as the IVs and organisational commitment, job involvement, job intentions and preferences, and job satisfaction as the DVs. Two supplementary MANOVAs were conducted following these analyses. The first with Life stage as the IV and organisational commitment, job involvement, job intentions and preferences, and job satisfaction as the DVs. The second with Career stage as the IV and organisational commitment, job involvement, job intentions and preferences, and job satisfaction as the DVs. Separate two-factor ANOVAs were then conducted for each DV to determine the significance of the relationship between that particular DV and each of the remaining IVs. Following these analyses descriptive statistics were used to derive the most

important work values for the research sample from the Work Values Inventory (WVI).

The results of the above analyses are presented in the following chapter and will be discussed within the context of the current research literature in chapter six. These results were also communicated to the participants of the present research (see Appendix D).

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

The sample used in the present research was discussed in some detail in the Methodology section titled 4.1 Subjects. The sample size of professionals was $n=368$. This sample was obtained from seven organisations within the Wellington Region of New Zealand. The sample covered a range of industries, occupations, and levels of organisational responsibility (see Tables 4.1.1 to 4.1.5). Just under half, 46.5% ($n=171$) of the total sample were female professionals and 53.5% ($n=197$) were male professionals. The age of the subjects in the present research ranged from early 20s to late 60s with a mode of 26 years of age and a mean of 36 years.

Variables used in the following analyses were screened for normality, linearity, homoscedasity, and outliers via frequency tables, distribution graphs, descriptive statistics, and more sensitive statistical tests such as Boxs-M (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989; McCall, 1970). These screening tests indicated reasonable normality, skewedness, and kurtosis considering the sample size. In other words, the assumptions of normality were met for this data set.

Due to the limited number of respondents between the ages of 50 to 55 years ($n = 22$) and 55 to 60 years ($n = 14$), and because of their theoretical similarity (according to Levinson's theory of Life stages), these two age groups were

combined into one for the purposes of the following results. Thus, the "Age Fifty Transition" and the "Second Middle Adulthood Life Structure" have been combined into one stage "Middle Adulthood" for the purposes of the present research. Theoretically both the "Age Fifty Transition" and the "Second Middle Adulthood Life Structure" involve similar developmental tasks, for example, the tasks of completing middle adulthood and preparing oneself for the onset of late adulthood. Therefore, this statistical manipulation is justifiable according to elements of Levinson's theory.

To determine the relationship between Life Stage (Levinson's Age stages) and Career Stage (Super's Psychological stages) a Pearson product-moment correlation was computed ($r = 0.26$, $p < .001$) [the common variance (r^2) was thus only 6.76%]. This is a relatively small correlation suggesting that the two theories are indeed different and, therefore, worthy of being compared.

5.1 CAREER ATTITUDE RESULTS ¹

5.1.1 Preliminary Analyses

To determine if there were any differences between respondents' career attitudes across Super's Career stages and respondents' sex, and across Levinson's Life stages and

1 All analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Norusis, 1988). For all of the following analysis the minimum acceptable level of statistical significance was arbitrarily set at $p < .05$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989; McCall, 1970).

respondents' sex, two MANOVAs were conducted. Both of these MANOVAs included the dependent variables (DVs) intention to leave, desire for promotion, preferred timing for promotion, willingness to relocate, organisational commitment, work satisfaction, and job involvement. Each MANOVA was designed to control for any covariance between Levinson's Life stages and Super's Career stages. Both MANOVAs displayed non-significant Wilk's Lambda criterion for effects containing the independent variable (IV) sex [Wilks Lambda of .905, $F(35, 1441.09) = .986$, not significant, and Wilks Lambda of .943, $F(21, 994.08) = .971$, not significant]. Therefore, supplementary analyses were conducted in the form of two further MANOVAs removing sex as an independent variable. Each of these supplementary analyses were significant.

For the first research question involving Levinson's Life stages, Life stage as a single IV (without respondents' sex as the second IV) appears to account for differences between respondents' career attitudes. The MANOVA including the IV Life Stage was significant with a Wilk's Lambda of .790, $F(35, 1466.33) = 2.7228$, $p < .001$.

As mentioned above sex was also non-significant in accounting for differences according to Super's Career stages across the career attitude variables (DVs). However, as with Levinson's stages, the MANOVA including Super's Career stages alone as the sole IV was significant with a Wilk's Lambda of .853, $F(21, 1005.56) = 2.723$, $p < .001$. Therefore, these preliminary

analyses do not support the proposition that there would be differences across Career and Life stage categories according to sex, for this sample of professional workers, relative to the attitude variables involved in the analyses.

Following these preliminary MANOVAs further exploration into the patterns of differences, using ANOVAs, for each DV across Life and Career stages was warranted. The ANOVAs conducted in these further analyses also controlled for any covariance between Life stages and Career stages.

5.1.2 Levinson's Life Stages

The ANOVAs for the IV Life stage revealed three main effects for Life stage. Specifically, the significance of these three main effects were: intention to leave $F(5, 354) = 2.762$, $p < .05$; desire for promotion $F(5, 354) = 3.430$, $p < .01$; and willingness to relocate $F(5, 354) = 4.560$, $p < .001$ (Appendix E, Tables E.1, E.2, E.3).

TABLE 5.1.2.1
Means and Standard Deviations for Career Attitude Variables according to Levinson's Stages

Dependent Variables	Levinson's Life Stages					
	Age 22-27 (n =88)	Age 28-32 (n =66)	Age 33-39 (n =92)	Age 40-44 (n =49)	Age 45-49 (n =35)	Age 50-60 (n =36)
Intention to leave*						
Mean	3.03	2.65	2.46	2.59	2.20	2.47
SD	1.11	1.17	0.92	1.14	1.26	1.44
Promotion aspiration**						
Mean	1.63	1.65	2.12	2.14	2.00	2.69
SD	1.14	1.13	1.54	1.55	1.35	2.01
Promotion timing						
Mean	2.07	2.38	2.67	2.45	2.66	2.39
SD	0.91	0.92	1.26	1.31	1.37	1.79
Relocation***						
Mean	2.36	2.33	2.54	3.43	2.63	3.58
SD	1.46	1.61	1.81	1.94	1.44	2.26
Organisational commitment						
Mean	64.50	66.00	69.26	65.47	68.34	68.06
SD	14.66	13.87	15.41	16.23	17.72	17.30
Work satisfaction						
Mean	72.00	73.95	73.40	75.69	73.29	71.64
SD	9.66	9.15	9.47	8.57	10.34	10.60
Job involvement						
Mean	46.09	46.42	45.77	44.57	46.71	45.06
SD	7.95	7.92	5.60	7.81	5.62	7.29

Note. The following are the possible mean score ranges for the above variables: intention to leave (1-5), promotion timing (1-6), relocation and promotional aspiration (1-7), organisational commitment (15-105), work satisfaction (20-100), job involvement (20-80).

*p <0.05

**p <0.01

***p <0.001

As can be seen in Table 5.1.2.1, intention to leave appears to decline somewhat after Age 22 to 27, "Early Adulthood", for the present sample. In "Middle Adulthood", Age 50 to 60, there is also some increase in one's intention to leave the organisation. Respondents "Entering Middle Adulthood" (Age 45 to 49) on average, appear to be less likely to intend to leave their organisation than respondents in any of the other Life stages for the present sample of professional workers (Figure 5.1.2.1).

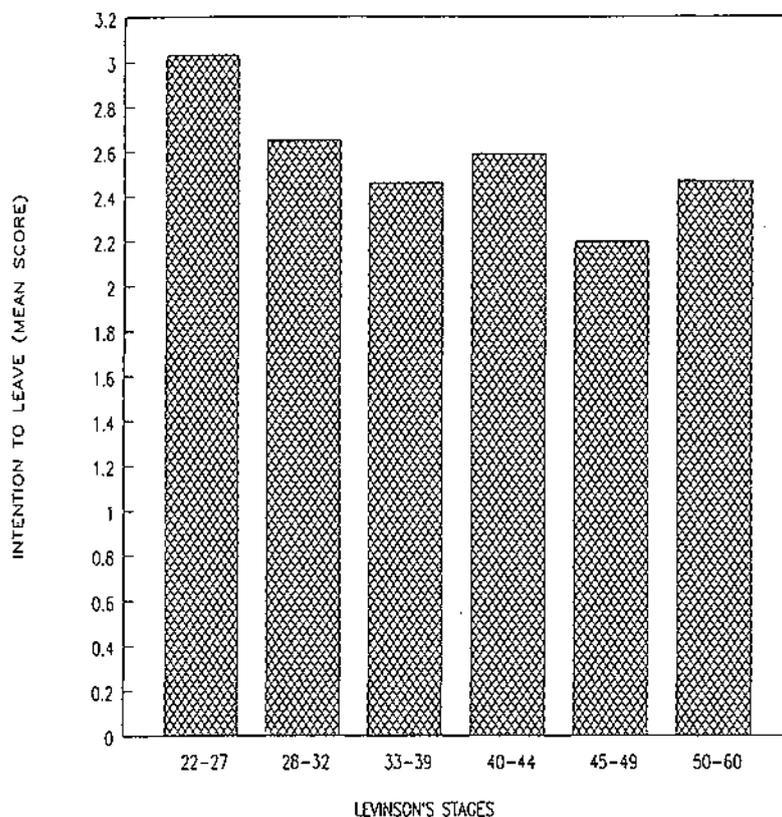


FIG 5.1.2.1 INTENTION TO LEAVE BY LEVINSON'S LIFE STAGES

There is a small but definite trend within the present sample of professional workers for one's desire for promotion to decrease as one ages (Figure 5.1.2.2). However, across all stages the desire for promotion is relatively high with all stage averages equalling an affirmative response to the question "Do you want to be promoted?".

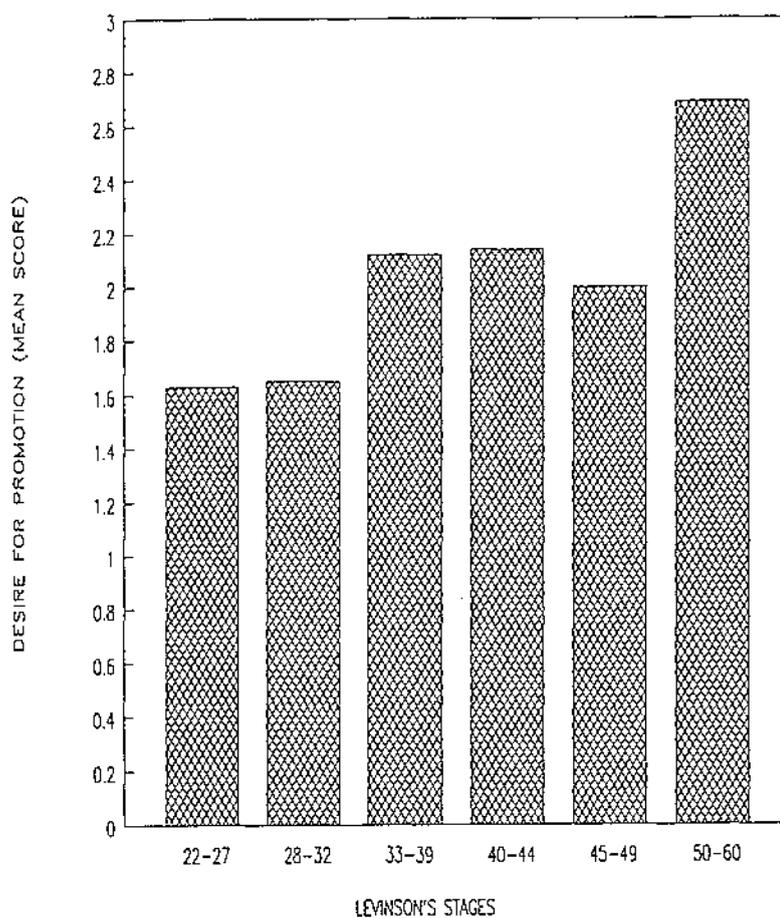


FIG 5.1.2.2 DESIRE FOR PROMOTION BY LEVINSON'S LIFE STAGES

The respondents within the present sample tend to show less of a willingness to relocate if a position required it in the "Mid-Life Transition" stage (Age 40 to 44) and in "Middle Adulthood" (Figure 5.1.2.3). In general, however, the present sample seems to be surprisingly flexible to relocation if it is deemed to be necessary.

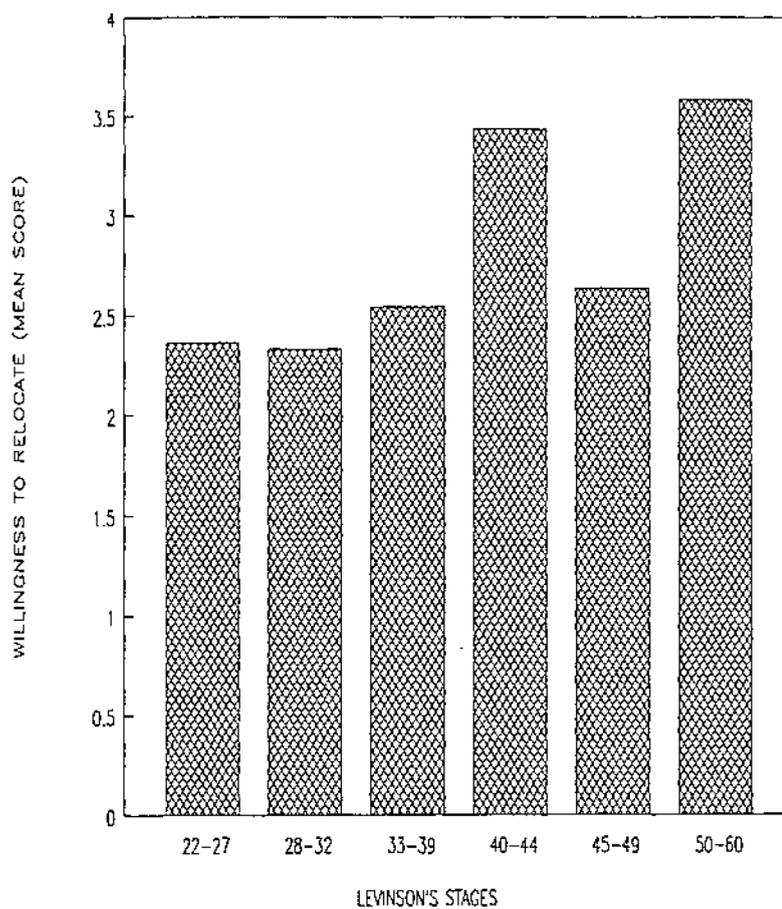


FIG 5.1.2.3 WILLINGNESS TO RELOCATE BY LEVINSON'S LIFE STAGES

5.1.3 Super's Career Stages

There were five significant main effects found in the ANOVAs which included Career stage as the IV. These were: intention to leave $F(3, 356) = 11.622, p < .001$; desire for promotion $F(3, 356) = 4.735, p < .005$; preferred timing for promotion $F(3, 356) = 2.813, p < .05$; organisational commitment $F(3, 356) = 4.215, p < .01$; and job involvement $F(3, 356) = 2.764, p < .05$ (Appendix E, Tables E.4 to E.8).

TABLE 5.1.3.1
Means and Standard Deviations for Career Attitude Variables according to Super's Stages

Dependent Variables	Super's Career Stages			
	Exploration (n = 86)	Establishment (n = 117)	Maintenance (n = 103)	Disengagement (n = 55)
Intention to leave****				
Mean	3.20	2.50	2.27	2.71
SD	1.20	1.06	1.00	1.26
Promotion aspiration***				
Mean	2.15	1.62	1.86	2.58
SD	1.55	1.14	1.21	2.03
Promotion timing*				
Mean	2.13	2.32	2.52	2.78
SD	1.22	1.02	1.12	1.67
Relocation				
Mean	2.59	2.66	2.59	3.15
SD	1.74	1.80	1.68	2.00
Organisational commitment**				
Mean	61.77	66.68	69.68	68.93
SD	14.80	15.75	14.27	16.99
Work satisfaction				
Mean	71.23	72.97	74.22	74.96
SD	10.23	10.16	8.02	9.48
Job involvement*				
Mean	47.45	45.65	44.48	46.18
SD	7.89	6.38	6.83	7.65

Note. The following are the possible mean score ranges for the above variables: intention to leave (1-5), promotion timing (1-6), relocation and promotional aspiration (1-7), organisational commitment (15-105), work satisfaction (20-100), job involvement (20-80).

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.005$

**** $p < 0.001$

As can be seen in Table 5.1.3.1, it appears that people are more likely to plan to leave their employer in the Exploration and Disengagement stages (Figure 5.1.3.1).

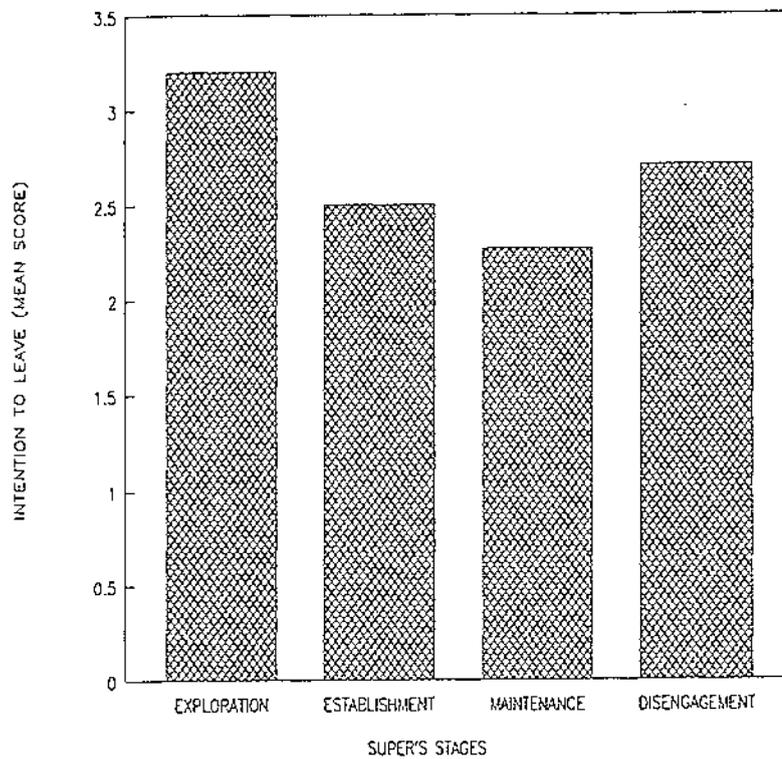


FIG 5.1.3.1 INTENTION TO LEAVE BY SUPER'S CAREER STAGES

Across all stages there is a high desire for promotion (Figure 5.1.3.2). This desire for promotion appears to be stronger in the Establishment and Maintenance stages and appears to decline in the Disengagement stage. There is, however, a greater amount of within group variance within the Disengagement stage on this variable as indicated by the larger standard deviation around the mean.

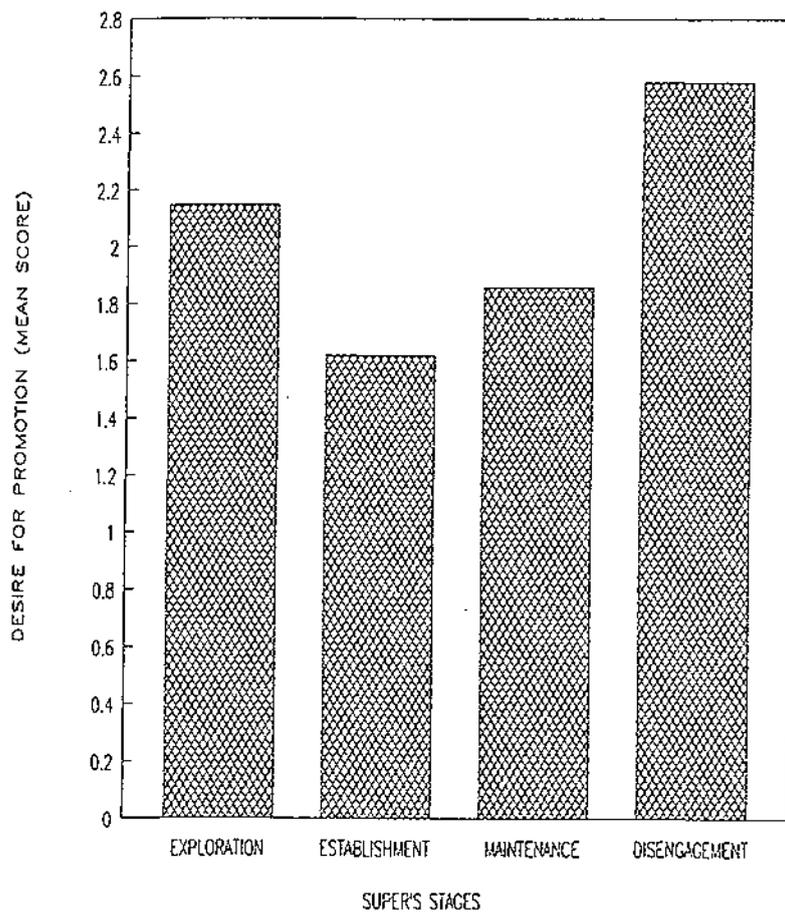


FIG 5.1.3.2 DESIRE FOR PROMOTION BY SUPER'S CAREER STAGES

Preferred timing for promotion increases slightly for the present sample across the Career stages, with those in the later stages preferring a greater amount of time before receiving a promotion (Figure 5.1.3.3). However, respondents in all stages, on average, reported that they would like to be promoted within the next two years.

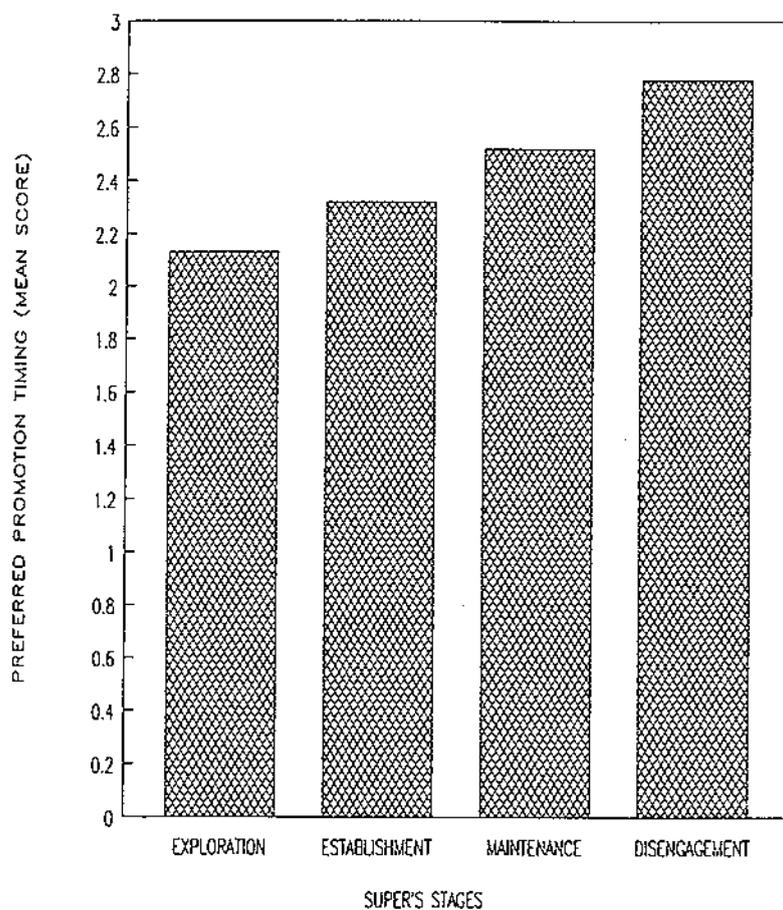


FIG 5.1.3.3 PREFERRED PROMOTION TIMING BY SUPER'S STAGES

There is also a definite increase in organisational commitment across Super's Career stages with a slight drop at the Disengagement stage (Figure 5.1.3.4). For the respondents in this sample it can be seen that organisational commitment is highest in the maintenance stage and lowest in the Exploration stage.

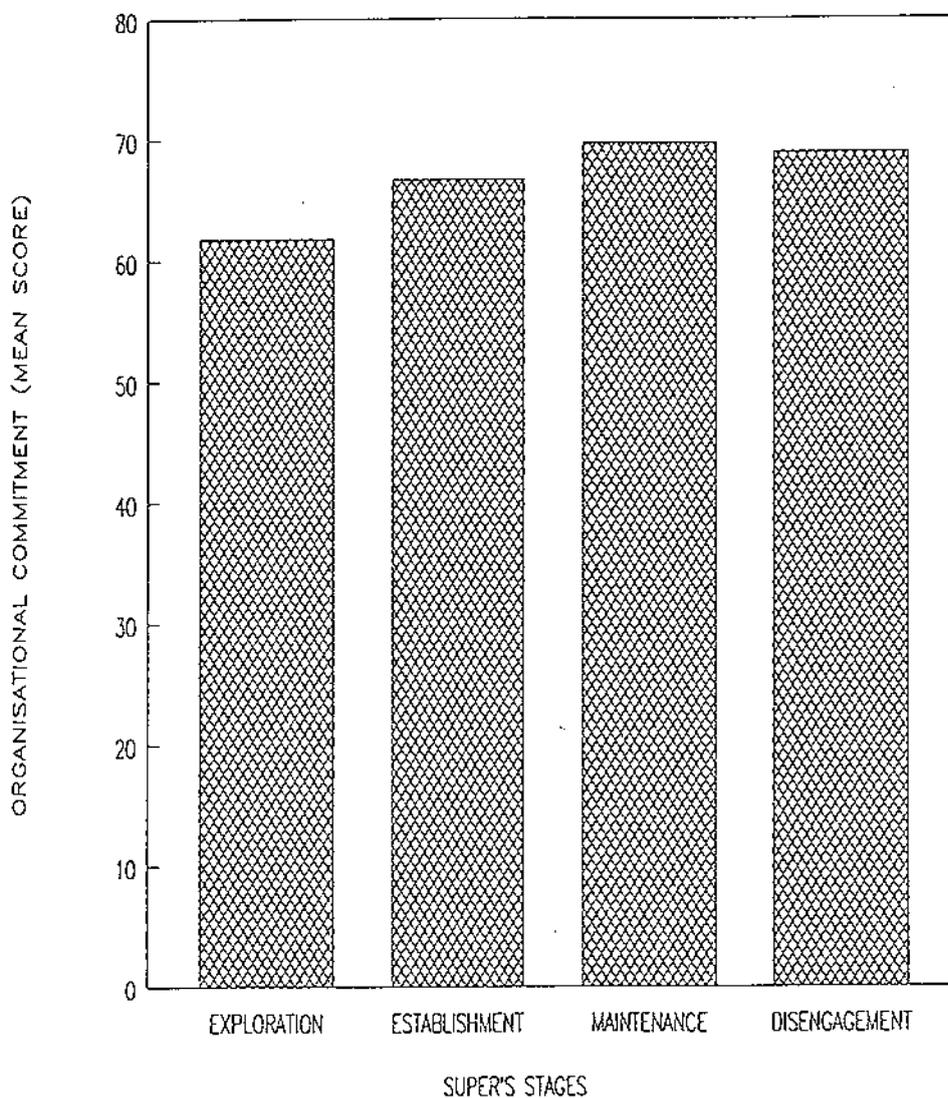


FIG 5.1.3.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY SUPER'S CAREER STAGES

For Job Involvement (Figure 5.1.3.5), respondents in the Exploration stage showed the highest mean score (indicating lower job involvement) followed by respondents in the Disengagement stage. However, these stages also have higher standard deviations around the mean indicating a greater amount of within group variance than is apparent in the Establishment and Maintenance stages. Respondents in the Maintenance stage appeared to be the most "job involved" within this sample with a lower score on Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) Job Involvement Inventory. It is important to note that, although significant, the differences between each of Super's Career Stages with regard to Job Involvement are quite small.

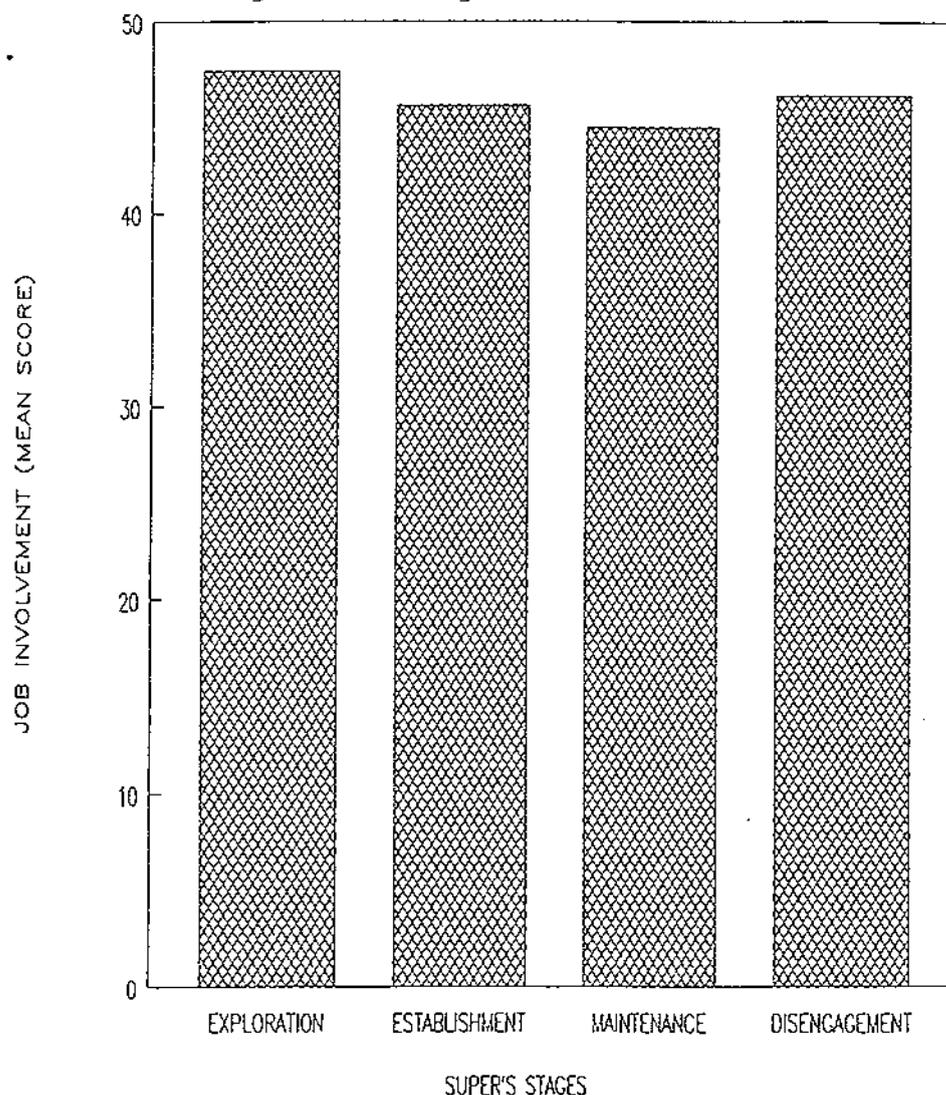


FIG 5.1.3.5 JOB INVOLVEMENT BY SUPER'S CAREER STAGES

5.2 WORK VALUES

Bivariate analysis in the form of cross tabulation was used to produce the following information about the Work Value variables utilized in the present research. This was necessary due to the inventory used and the nature of the subject matter being analysed. The following results are descriptive only and therefore do not provide inferential information.

5.2.1 Levinson's Life Stages

Some values appear to be important to both sexes consistently across all stages for the present sample. These values are: "Intellectual Stimulation", "Achievement", "Way of Life", and "Supervisory Relations".

However, there are some differences between stages and between genders at particular stages (Tables 5.2.1.1 to 5.2.1.6). In some instances the order of importance in which particular values appear varies according to gender and Life stage.

In Early Adulthood (Age 22 to 27), men and women both rank "Achievement" first, however, they vary with regard to their second to fourth rankings of work values.

Table 5.2.1.1

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
"Early Adulthood" (Age 22 to 27)

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=36)	(100%) Intellectual Stimulation	(97.2%) Variety	(94.4%) Economic Return	(83.3%) Creativity
	Supervisory Relations		Independence	
	Achievement		Way of Life	
FEMALE (n=52)	(98.1%) Achievement	(96.2%) Way of Life	(94.2%) Intellectual Stimulation	(86.5%) Economic Return
			Supervisory Relations	

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

In the Age Thirty Transition (Age 28 to 32), men and women both ranked "Way of Life" first and "Variety" third. There is also a similar percentage of men and women who see "Achievement" as important (ranked second for men and first for women).

Table 5.2.1.2

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
The "Age Thirty Transition" (Age 28 to 33)

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=38)	(100%) Way of Life	(97.4%) Achievement	(94.7%) Intellectual Stimulation	(92.1%) Independence
		Variety		
		Supervisory Relations		
FEMALE (n=28)	(96.4%) Way of Life	(92.9%) Intellectual Stimulation	(89.3%) Variety	(82.1%) Altruism
	Supervisory Relations		Independence	Creativity
	Achievement			

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

In the Settling Down stage (Age 33 to 39), men and women both ranked "Intellectual Stimulation" first and "Creativity" third. Work Values deemed to be important then varied for the remaining rankings.

Table 5.2.1.3

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
The "Settling Down" Stage (Age 34 to 39)

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=51)	(98%) Intellectual Stimulation	(92.2%) Variety	(90.2%) Achievement Creativity	(82.2%) Way of Life Supervisory Relations
FEMALE (n=41)	(100%) Intellectual Stimulation Supervisory Relations	(97.6%) Way of Life Achievement	(87.8%) Independence Creativity	(85.4%) Altruism

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

For the Mid-Life Transition stage (Age 40 to 44), the similarities were with "Intellectual Stimulation" and "Achievement" both being ranked first for both sexes.

Table 5.2.1.4

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
The "Mid-Life Transition" (Age 40 to 44)

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=28)	(100%) Intellectual Stimulation	(96.4%) Creativity	(92.9%) Way of Life	(89.9%) Independence
	Supervisory Relations			
	Achievement			
FEMALE (n=21)	(100%) Intellectual Stimulation	(95.2%) Supervisory Relations	(90.5%) Independence	(85.7%) Altruism Variety
	Way of Life			
	Achievement			

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

There is some variation as to the rankings of each work value by each gender in the above stage, however, the following values are ranked as important by both sexes in the "Entering Middle Adulthood" stage: "Intellectual Stimulation", "Achievement", "Supervisory Relations", "Way of Life", "Altruism", "Creativity", and "Economic Return".

Table 5.2.1.5

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
"Entering Middle Adulthood" (Age 45 to 49)

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=22)	(95.5%) Intellectual Stimulation	(90.9%) Supervisory Relations Achievement	(86.4%) Altruism Way of Life	(72.7%) Economic Return Creativity
FEMALE (n=13)	(100%) Variety Achievement	(92.3%) Intellectual Stimulation Altruism Independence Way of Life	(84.6%) Supervisory Relations Creativity	(61.5%) Economic Return Prestige

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

Male and female respondents both ranked "Creativity" fourth in "Late Middle Adulthood" (Age 50 to 60). "Altruism" also has a similar percentage of men and women perceiving this value to be important in the above Life Stage.

Table 5.2.1.6

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
"Middle Adulthood" (Age 50 to 60)

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=21)	(100%) Intellectual Stimulation	(95.2%) Way of Life Achievement	(90.5%) Altruism Supervisory Relations	(85.7%) Creativity
FEMALE (n=13)	(100%) Supervisory Relations Achievement	(93.3%) Intellectual Stimulation Altruism Independence	(86.7%) Security Way of Life	(80%) Variety Creativity

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

One could conclude that "Intellectual Stimulation", "Way of Life", "Supervisory Relations", and "Achievement" are consistently important to professional workers within the present sample across Levinson's Life Stages. Furthermore, work values such as "Altruism", "Variety", "Independence", "Creativity", "Prestige", "Economic Return", and "Security" are deemed to be quite important to the present sample, depending on their gender and/or Life stage.

It is unfortunately difficult to state, however, whether these apparent value shifts are due to increasing age or whether they are due to cohort effects. To resolve this question a longitudinal research design would be needed. Therefore, it may be more appropriate, for the present research, to note the work values which are deemed to be important overall (listed above).

It is also interesting to note that respondents of both genders, across all Life stages, consistently ranked "Aesthetics" as the work value lowest in importance. Consequently, one could conclude that "Aesthetics" is not an important work value for the majority of professionals within the present sample. This value may be fulfilled in aspects of one's non-work life rather than aspects of one's work life.

5.2.2 Super's Career Stages

As with Levinson's Life stages, some values consistently appear to be important to both sexes across all of Super's Career stages. These are: "Intellectual Stimulation", "Way of Life", "Supervisory Relations", and "Achievement". These work values are notably the same as those listed above as consistently important according to Levinson's Life stages.

Table 5.2.2.1

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
Super's Exploration Stage

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=40)	(100%) Intellectual Stimulation Achievement	(95%) Supervisory Relations Variety Way of Life	(92.5%) Independence	(90%) Creativity
FEMALE (n=46)	(97.8%) Achievement	(95.7%) Way of Life Supervisory Relations	(91.3%) Variety Intellectual Stimulation	(78.3%) Independence

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

In the Exploration stage, men and women both rank "Achievement" first, and "Way of Life" and "Supervisory Relations" second. They also both rank "Variety" and "Independence" as very important.

In the Establishment stage, professional men ranked "Intellectual Stimulation" first, "Achievement" second, "Supervisory Relations" third, and "Way of Life" fourth. Professional women at this stage tended to rank these values more closely with "Achievement" first, and "Intellectual Stimulation", "Way of Life", and "Supervisory Relations" second.

Table 5.2.2.2

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
Super's Establishment Stage

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=68)	(98.5%) Intellectual Stimulation	(95.6%) Achievement	(94.1%) Supervisory Relations	(91.2%) Way of Life
FEMALE (n=49)	(100%) Achievement	(95.9%) Intellectual Stimulation Way of Life Supervisory Relations	(87.8%) Independence	(81.6%) Altruism

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

In the Maintenance stage, both sexes ranked "Intellectual Stimulation" first. Women tended to rank "Achievement", "Supervisory Relations", and "Way of Life" more highly than men.

Table 5.2.2.3

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
Super's Maintenance Stage

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=53)	(98.1%) Intellectual Stimulation	(94.3%) Achievement	(90.6%) Supervisory Relations	(88.7%) Way of Life
FEMALE (n=50)	(98%) Intellectual Stimulation	(96%) Supervisory Relations	(92%) Altruism	(90%) Variety
	Achievement	Way of Life		

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

Table 5.2.2.4

Rankings of Importance of Work Values in
Super's Disengagement Stage

GENDER	RANK			
	1ST	2ND	3RD	4TH
MALE (n=31)	(100%) Way of Life	(96.4%) Intellectual Stimulation Independence Supervisory Relations	(92.9%) Economic Return Achievement	(89.9%) Altruism
FEMALE (n=24)	(95.8%) Intellectual Stimulation Altruism Way of Life Supervisory Relations Achievement	(83.3%) Variety Surroundings Creativity	(79.2%) Independence	(70.8%) Associates Security

(Rankings were based on the percentage of respondents rating each value as important to very important on the WVI)

Both sexes ranked "Way of Life" first in the Disengagement stage. It is also interesting to note that in the Disengagement stage both sexes had a similar percentage of respondents stating that "Intellectual Stimulation" and "Supervisory Relations" are important to them.

One could conclude that "Intellectual Stimulation", "Way of Life", "Supervisory Relations", and "Achievement" are consistently important to professional employees, in the present sample, across Super's Career Stages. Furthermore, work values such as "Altruism", "Variety", "Independence", "Creativity", "Prestige", "Economic Return", and "Surroundings" are deemed to be quite important to the present sample depending on their sex and/or Career stage.

"Aesthetics" again appears to be the least important work value across both sexes and all of Super's Career stages. Once again, one could conclude that this value is not an important work value for the present sample of professionals. It is probable that this value is fulfilled in their non-work life rather than their work life.

5.3 SUMMARY OF RESULTS AS THEY PERTAIN TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1 (a) Are there differences in work attitudes according to the gender of respondents?

No significant differences, in the work attitudes measured, were found according to gender within the present sample of professional employees.

1 (b) Are there any differences in work attitudes according to respondents' Life Stage (Levinson)?

Yes, the work attitudes intention to leave, desire for promotion, and willingness to relocate differed significantly according to the respondents' Life Stages. Table 5.1.2 indicates the probable direction of differences in responding for these attitudes according to the Life Stage of professional employees in the present sample.

In particular, Professionals were more likely to intend to leave their organisation in the "Early Adulthood" stage (Age 22 to 27) and least likely to intend to leave their organisation in the "Entering Middle Adulthood" stage (Age 45 to 49). Desire for promotion was high across all stages with a decreasing trend in respondents' desire to be promoted as age increased. There was also less willingness of professional employees to relocate in the "Mid-Life Transition" stage (Age 40 to 44) and in the "Middle Adulthood" stage (Age 50 to 60).

1 (c) Are there any differences in work attitudes according to respondents' Career Stage (Super)?

Yes, the following work attitudes were found to differ significantly according to the respondents' Career Stage: intention to leave, desire for promotion, preferred timing for promotion, organisational commitment, and job involvement. Table 5.1.3 indicates the probable direction of differences in

responding for these attitudes according to the Career Stages of professional employees within the present sample.

For example, desire for promotion was strongest in the Establishment and Maintenance stages. Preferred timing for promotion increases slightly across Career Stages with those in the later stages (Maintenance and Disengagement) tending to prefer a greater amount of time before receiving a promotion. Organisational commitment was highest in the Maintenance stage and lowest in the Exploration stage. Job involvement was lowest in the Exploration stage followed by those in the Disengagement stage. Respondents in the Maintenance stage appeared to be the most "job involved" employees.

2 (a) What are the most important work values for the present sample of professional employees?

The most important work values for the present sample of professional employees (regardless of gender, Life, or Career stage) are: "Intellectual Stimulation", "Way of Life", "Supervisory Relations", and "Achievement". The least important work value is "Aesthetics".

2 (b) Do important work values vary according to gender?

Yes, there is some variation in the relative importance of work values expressed by each sex (Tables 5.2.1.1 to 5.2.2.4). However, several work values are ranked as important

consistently by each gender across each Life and Career stage, these are "Intellectual Stimulation", "Way of Life", "Supervisory Relations", and "Achievement" as mentioned above.

2 (c) Do important work values vary according to the present research respondents' Life stage (Levinson)?

Yes. There are similarities as outlined above [research question 2 (a)], however, some work values (Altruism, Variety, Independence, Creativity, Prestige, Economic Return, and Security) vary in their perceived relative importance across Life stages for the present sample.

2 (d) Do important work values vary according to the present research respondents' Career Stage (Super)?

Yes. There are similarities as mentioned in 2 (a), however, some work values (Altruism, Variety, Independence, Creativity, Prestige, Economic Return, and Surroundings) vary in their perceived relative importance across Career Stages for the present sample.

3. Can either Super's Career Stages or Levinson's Life Stages be utilised with regard to career planning and career development for the present research sample.

It would appear that both these theories have some utility with regard to the work attitudes and values presented above. The utility of these two theories appears to be more likely

with regard to the work attitudes used in the present study rather than the work values.

Using respondents' work attitudes as potential indicators of future behaviour, human resource practitioners could utilise research (such as the present study) to target certain Career and Life stages which have some relationship with particular employee attitudes so that these can be incorporated into organisational career planning. This would benefit the organisation and the individuals involved through self-knowledge and attention to the needs and values of employees at specific stages of development. This is essential as, for most organisations, employees are the most important asset. This shall be discussed further, in more detail, in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to explore and examine the work attitudes and values of New Zealand "professionals" according to their Life and Career Stages as defined respectively by Levinson's and Super's theories of career development. In the past a number of studies have suggested that relationships between job attitudes (such as work involvement, satisfaction, willingness to accept mobility opportunities, and organisational commitment) and work behaviours (such as performance) are moderated by one's career or life stage (Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Noe, et.al, 1990; Cron, Dubinsky, & Micheals, 1988; Mount, 1984; Gould & Hawkins, 1978; Slocum & Cron, 1985; Hall & Mansfield, 1975; Noe, et.al, 1988; Cohen, 1991; Pond & Geyer, 1987). The present study's results tend to support this contention.

Initially preliminary analysis in the form of correlations between Super's and Levinson's models showed that their respective stage formulations defined according to theory were correlated to a small degree ($r = 0.26$) accounting for only 6.76% of common variance. This small correlation appears to indicate that the two theoretical formulations of Life and Career Stages are generally separate from each other and are, therefore, worth comparing. In this respect, efforts were made in the present study to present, objectively assess, and compare the two theories involved as

fairly as possible as suggested by Cooper and Richardson (1986). Due to the small correlation between the two theories, any relationship between job attitudes and work behaviours are more likely to be moderated by either one's career stage or life stage, not both. The exceptions to this rule appear to be the work attitudes "intention to leave one's organisation" and "desire for promotion" which appear to be determined by both respondent's age (Life Stage) and Career Stage.

6.1 GENDER DIFFERENCES

With regard to gender differences, the present research found no significant differences between men and women on any of the work attitudes measured. These findings are similar to those of Chusmir (1982) and Graddick & Farr (1983) but dissimilar to those of Aranya, et.al (1986) who found that women within their sample tended to have lower levels of organisational commitment than men. However, Aranya, et.al's findings may have been biased due to the characteristics of their sample (their sample was based on North American accountants, an occupation in which females are renowned for being predominantly in the lower organisational levels). Consequently, one of the most interesting findings of the present research was the lack of statistically significant differences on the work attitudes of professional employees according to gender.

With regard to Levinson's Life stages the results of the present study are similar to those of Ornstein and Isabella (1990) who found no distinctive pattern of differences, with regard to gender, across age groups. They differ, however, with regard to Super's Psychological Career stages in that Ornstein and Isabella's (1990) study found no significant effects for Super's Career Stages with regard to the career attitudes of their sample.

The similarity between the two sexes, in the findings of the present study, may be due to the fact that women employed in higher-level occupations have similar needs to men employed in the same occupation (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Gutek, Larwood, & Stromberg, 1986). Moreover, in terms of personality, highly career-orientated women may be more similar to career-orientated men than to women in general. Alternatively, highly career-motivated young women may be more androgynous, possessing relatively high levels of both instrumentality (masculine) and expressiveness (feminine) traits (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Moreover, Terborg (1977) concluded that women who pursue non-traditional careers reject sex role stereotypes and have needs, motives, and values that are similar to men holding similar positions (cited, Aranya, et.al, 1986). Indeed this appears to be the case in the present study for all of the work attitudes measured (organisational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction, job intentions and preferences).

In other words, professional women may be more like professional men in their work attitudes than non-professional women, and vice versa, professional men may be more like professional women than non-professional men. Professional people as a group, therefore, appear to be similar in their attitudes towards work. It is important to note that these results are possibly due to the efforts taken to obtain men and women within similar occupations, levels of responsibility, and organisations. This research strategy allows valid comparisons to be made between men and women within those occupational strata.

Statistically random sampling was not utilised in the present research partly due to the practical and ethical constraints encountered in some of the organisations sampled (such as confidentiality of personnel records and issues involved in obtaining volunteers) there was also the need to obtain balanced male/female samples so that sex comparisons could be made (The British Psychological Society, 1993; Anastasi, 1988; Stone, 1986; Rosental, 1970). This is a limitation of the present research and as such it is not possible to make inferential generalisations about these results. This could possibly be improved in future research.

However, it does seem reasonable to expect that all people, regardless of gender, would share the same basic human need for self-fulfilment through meaningful work as indicated by

the results of the present, and past, research (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Within this framework the findings of the present research seem to indicate that separate career development theories are not warranted at this time. Further work does, however, need to be conducted which integrates theories espoused by vocational guidance researchers and organisational theorists (Betz, 1991; Russell, 1991). It is also important to identify the conditions, or situations, which enhance or diminish the perception of women as contributors in organisations and that in turn affect their career development either positively or negatively (Solomon, et.al, 1986; Burke & McKeen, 1993; Gutek, et.al, 1986; McKeen & Burke, 1992; Cook, 1993; Simpson, McCarrey, & Edwards, 1987; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994). In response to such information it is necessary to recognise and remove the barriers and stereotypes which may still hamper the progress of women within organisations despite their personal attitudes to work (Cassell & Walsh, 1993; O'Leary, 1974; Moses-Zirkes, 1993; Gutek, et.al, 1986; McKeen & Burke, 1992; McGregor, et.al, 1993; Simpson, et.al, 1987; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994).

Furthermore, as the results of the present study are dissimilar to those of Ornstein and Isabella (1990), even though similar methodological and procedural steps were taken, one can no longer simply conclude (as Ornstein and Isabella did) that women's work-related experiences are more closely aligned with how old they are than with what stage

of their career they are in. Indeed it appears that both male and female work attitudes are more closely aligned with where they are in their career than with how old they are (due to the greater statistical significance of Super's stages for most of the work attitudes in the present study).

6.2 AGE AS A DETERMINANT OF WORK RELATED ATTITUDES

Age may no longer be a good indicator of one's "Developmental Stage" with regard to Careers as increasing numbers of people are making more frequent career changes throughout their life than was once assumed. As a result, careers, in New Zealand at least, appear to be much more flexible and open to change and redirection now than would have been presumed by age based career theories. This is illustrated in the present study's demographic figures which show that the majority of the present sample 50.4% had been with their current organisation for less than six years, in addition, 68.5% of respondents had been in their current job/position for two years or less (see chapter four, Tables 4.8.4 and 4.8.5).

Therefore, due to the greater career mobility inherent in today's professional workforce, it is not surprising that a theory based on Psychological Career Stages, which has been continually refined and adapted over the years (such as Super's theory), appears to have more utility than Levinson's age based Life Stages. Indeed, it would appear that age based conceptualisations of Career Development are

relatively outdated and simplistic with regard to the work attitudes and developmental needs of New Zealand professionals. However, as the present study was only exploratory further research focusing on careers should be conducted within New Zealand.

It is interesting to note that the results of the present study tend to indicate that the only attitude about events external to the work itself that Levinson's model accounts for, and Super's does not, is willingness to relocate. It is logical that there should be some relationship between "willingness to relocate" and one's Life stage as, theoretically, one's willingness to relocate would demand the consideration of economic, social, and family circumstances which generally vary according to one's age or life stage. It is also interesting to note that within the present sample, subjects were less willing to relocate in the "Mid-Life Transition" stage (Age 40 to 44) and the "Middle Adulthood" stage (Age 50 to 60). Although this could be due to cohort effects (a confounding problem particularly associated with Levinson's model) it is possible that the transitional stage of "Mid-Life" requires access to established support networks. Further, respondents within this stage may desire the security of holding onto at least one aspect of their "Early Adulthood" lives. One's reluctance to relocate in Levinson's "Middle Adulthood" stage may be interpreted as a logical preparation for life in "Late Adulthood" (Age 65+). People often wish

to retire in their own homes surrounded by friends, relatives and many of the social contacts and activities they enjoyed while still in paid employment.

The present research did not reveal any significant relationships between age (conceptualised via Levinson's Life stages) and commitment (in the form of organisational commitment or job involvement) or job satisfaction. These results differ from those of Morrow and McElroy (1987) and Adler and Aranya (1984). This could be due to the socio-economic context (from which the present sample was obtained), different measurement devices, or the different populations and cohorts sampled.

Within the socio-economic context of the present study, many participating organisations had undergone some restructuring after the sharemarket crash of 1987 and the following recession of the late 1980s and early 1990s. This may have affected the favourableness of work attitudes reported by respondents from organisations which had experienced the "top down" change inherent in organisational restructuring (Hall, et.al, 1978; Latack, 1989). It is also probable that the effects of "downsizing" on work attitudes may have been more salient for older workers as there may have been a perception that they were more at risk of being made redundant or being offered an "early retirement".

Furthermore, The relationship between Life stage, Career stage, and affective worker reactions will depend upon the way in which affective reactions and stages are operationalised (Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Slocum & Cron, 1985). The need for standardised measurement instruments is also mentioned by Gould and Hawkins (1978). They maintain that this is necessary for the comparison of research findings. Mount (1984) also highlights that the most difficult problem in studying career stages is determining how to measure them. This is a continuing problem within the Career Development area which needs to be addressed. In addition, the Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI) which was used as a measurement instrument in the present study can be difficult to interpret and it may, in some circumstances, be more appropriate to use the Career Adjustment and Development Inventory (CADI) or the ACCI and the CADI in tandem (Savickas, et.al, 1988; Halpin, et.al, 1990).

The confounding effects of cohort, inherent in research utilising Levinson's formulation of Life stages, could be addressed in future research through the use of a longitudinal rather than cross-sectional research design. This would help to determine whether one's work attitudes are due to the progression through Life/Age stages or due to the socialisation that groups of people born within particular historical eras receive.

6.3 SUPER'S CAREER STAGES AND WORK RELATED ATTITUDES

It is apparent that, for the present sample, not only do Super's Career stages account for variance in such attitudes as intention to leave, desire for promotion, and preferred timing for promotion, it does so at higher levels of statistical significance than Levinson's Life stages. From this information it appears that Super's model may account for more of a professional employee's attitudes about events external to the work itself than Levinson's model does.

In accordance with the results of Ornstein et.al's (1989) study, Super's model of Psychological Career Stages also appears to account for some of the variation in particular attitudes relative to the work itself. Such attitudes found to be statistically significant in the present study were organisational commitment and job involvement. The research respondents classified within the Exploration stage were least committed to their current organisation followed by employees in the Establishment stage. Employees in the Exploration stage were also less "job involved" than respondents in any other stage. These patterns of attitudes in the Exploration and Establishment stages are generally supported in several other studies (Cron, et.al, 1988; Cron & Slocum, 1986; Slocum & Cron, 1985). Overall, these results support Super's contention that people within the Exploration stage make only provisional commitments to their present career, job, or organisation as they explore other available options.

The next least "job involved" respondents were in the Disengagement stage. This is logical considering that this stage denotes the employee's psychological separation from their work or work life (similar findings to the present study's results have also been found by Cron, et.al, 1988). People within Super's Disengagement stage are in the process of disengaging from work, either psychologically or physically, and are usually looking for alternative ways of achieving personal self-fulfilment. Normally people within this stage are preparing for retirement. However, a significant proportion of employees classified within this stage may be disillusioned, alienated, or platued workers nowhere near retirement age (Cron & Slocum, 1986). These people cope with their dissatisfaction at work by psychologically and emotionally distancing themselves from their work-place and fulfilling self-esteem requirements through alternative means (for example leisure and family activities).

The most "job involved" professionals were within Super's Maintenance career stage. Professionals within this stage were also more committed to the organisation than individuals at any other Psychological Career Stage. This finding is supported by Cron & Slocum (1986) and Cron, et.al. (1988). However, this conflicts somewhat with Super's notion of employees within this stage as "holders on" and does not support the findings of Slocum and Cron (1985) that this stage represents a time for levelling off

in terms of career aspirations and achievement. It is possible that the current economic and employment conditions within New Zealand foster the need for employees to continually "up-skill" and maintain marketable skills if they are to retain, or better, their current positions within very competitive job markets. Hence, it is possible that the particular sample of professionals involved in the present research were atypical in this respect.

On a practical level the importance of studying the contributors or moderators of employee work attitudes is that work-related attitudes may be related to a person's job performance (Cron & Slocum, 1986). Thus, an understanding of how adults change over the various stages of their careers, and the aspects of work important to them at each stage, may be important for increasing productivity and performance (Cron, 1984; Slocum & Cron, 1985; Hall & Lawler, 1970; Bedeian, et.al, 1992; Reilly & Orsak, 1991; Meyer, et.al, 1989; Bailyn, 1989; Isabella, 1988).

One's stage of career may then serve as an important moderator which may explain differences in professional employees willingness to attend work, to remain on the job, and to accomplish organisational goals at selected points in their careers (Mount, 1984; Cron & Slocum, 1986). This information may suggest that jobs need to be redesigned, work restructured, or different kinds of rewards and motivational strategies utilised to better meet the needs of

employees at different career stages (Mount, 1984; Adler & Aranya, 1984). The implication is that meeting these unique work-related needs at various career stages will have a spin-off effect on employee productivity and performance. Career development can therefore offer a useful way to realise more of an employee's potential at work and to increase the congruence between employee's needs and the organisation's goals (Russell, 1991). Consequently, in practice it is possible that some human resource interventions would be more efficient if targeted towards the group, or groups, of employees most likely to benefit from them.

With regard to utilising career stage research in Human Resource practice the following recommendations have been made:

- * Provide for employees' different needs in different career stages. This may include such activities as job redesign; goal setting; performance appraisal and feedback; addressing issues of work-place equity; or adapting reward and incentive systems according to the competencies, needs, work values, and attitudes of employees at particular career stages. Further research on applying theory to practice may need to be conducted to help human resource practitioners to do this.
- * Conduct orientation programs for new employees, such as those in the Exploration and Establishment stages.
- * Ensure that realistic information about career opportunities within the organisation is provided to

all employees. Try to focus on objectives rather than advancement up the organisational hierarchy.

- * Train immediate supervisors with regard to sensitivity, coaching, and mentoring skills to empower them to deal with the needs and concerns of individuals at different career stages.

- * Help employees' of all stages of career development to understand their strengths and weaknesses, needs and interests, and how these "fit" with the present and potential opportunities within the organisation. In other words, more mutual career planning between the organisation and the employee needs to take place.

- * Assignments should be managed so that employees learn increasingly appropriate and complex work knowledge and skills. This will help employees prepare for their next career stage and their place within their organisation at this stage. For example, assignment to task forces for employees in the Exploration stage.

- * The following criteria should be considered when evaluating career programs: providing periodic skill assessments and realistic feedback to employees on their career progress; ensuring that employees have autonomy and control over their career goals; utilising a variety of interventions; and integrating career programs with other human resource systems.

(Hall & Lerner, 1986; Hackett, et.al., 1991; Rusbult & Farrel, 1983; Super & Knasel, 1981; Russell, 1991; Hall, 1986; Morrison & Hock, 1986; Arnold, et.al, 1991; Raelin, 1985; Slocum & Cron, 1985; Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1984; Fitzgerald & Cherpas, 1985; Allen & Meyer, 1993; Arthur & Kram, 1989; Latack, 1989; Isabella, 1988).

One example of the possible outcomes from these actions is that organisations may benefit by increasing commitment across all career stages. For example, increasing commitment in the Establishment stage has been shown to be important for decreasing turnover and in the mid- and late-career stages for decreasing absenteeism and increasing performance (Cohen, 1991). In particular, organisational opportunity for development has been shown to positively affect organisational commitment and this in turn appears to affect career commitment and skill development (Aryee & Tan, 1992).

6.4 WORK VALUES

Work values, according to Super (1957), are noteworthy because they involve the relationship between internal needs and the resulting motivation to act upon the environment for need satisfaction. The most important work values common across gender, Life, and Career Stages in the present study were: intellectual stimulation, achievement, good supervisory relations, and way of life (the opportunity to live the way one wishes to).

Work values are basic attitudes, some of which have been found to be related to work attitudes such as job involvement and satisfaction (Mannheim, 1993). Work Values impact on work expectations and they are likely to influence an employees willingness to invest cognitively in their work

role (Mannheim, 1993). Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) maintained that the major work needs are similar for both sexes in that they both value the opportunity to gain feelings of accomplishment, job security, income potential, and respect from others for their work. Although not specifically related to the values mentioned by Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) there is some support in the present findings for the contention that men and women have similar needs and values.

Due to the descriptive nature of the results in the present study it is difficult to determine whether Super's or Levinson's model provides a better account of the variation between stages for the work values of the research sample. It is, however, likely that work values are more stable and less subject to change due to external influences such as Life Stage, Career Stage, gender, or organisational context. It is interesting to note that, as with work attitudes, there appears to be more similarities than differences in the rankings of each sex's important work values at the various Life and Career stages. This implies that professionals tend to value similar aspects of work regardless of their age, career stage, or gender. Improving, or maintaining, the quality of professional employees' working lives may therefore require organisations to keep these values in mind when designing or redesigning jobs, work environments, and hours of work.

It is more likely that organisations will be able to provide a "match" between employees' work values and their work environment by changing the work environment, if necessary, then by attempting to change employees' values. This is due to the fact that values appear to be quite resistant to external influences. "Anticipation that both matches and mismatches can occur could encourage managers to design flexibility into their human resource management plans. Employee and employer might then negotiate a mutually acceptable outcome." (Grandrose & Portwood, 1987, p.717). Furthermore, if organisations address employees' expectations before an employee becomes fully invested in a particular career path, the employee may modify his or her expectations and more fully explore possible organisational alternatives (Grandrose & Portwood, 1987). If potential differences are ignored, employees and employers may develop mutually incompatible plans, and undesirable departures may result (Granrose & Portwood, 1987).

As a result, human resource practices (such as recruitment, selection, training, job assignment, performance appraisal, and promotion) could be better viewed as a process of matching the needs of the organisation with the abilities, values, attitudes, and expectations of employees (Adams, 1991; Ford & Bhagat, 1991; Dewhirst, 1991; Arthur & Kram, 1989; Isabella, 1988). Moreover, if particular work experiences are more closely linked to work attitudes in some career stages than in others, it would be possible to

manage work experiences to optimise these attitudes (Allen & Meyer, 1993). The developmental needs of both organisations and employees will therefore need to be considered if organisations are to function at their optimum level.

6.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the present research was to compare the work attitudes and values of professional men and women with regard to two theoretical models. One of these theoretical models was based on the notion of chronological Life Stages (Levinson's theory) and the other was based on the idea of psychological Career Stages which people pass through at particular points in their lives and their careers (Super's theory). This study was presumed to be important due to the fact that very little research in the area of work attitudes and career development has been conducted within New Zealand. Furthermore, very little research conducted within New Zealand has examined the utility of current theories of career development with regard to practical applications for New Zealand professionals. The present study was therefore exploratory with the intention that it may help to stimulate further research within this area in New Zealand.

The results of the present study tend to indicate that New Zealand professional men and women (at least within this research sample) do not differ significantly with regard to their level of commitment to their organisation, their job involvement, or how satisfied they were with their current

work. Both males and females stated that they were equally willing to relocate if a position demanded this of them. Furthermore, both professional men and women did not differ in their intentions to leave their organisations or in their desire for promotion. This would appear to contradict the often endorsed view that women are less committed to their careers and less willing to relocate, if necessary. On the basis of these results one could conclude that professional people as a group appear to be similar in their attitudes towards work. In short, professional women may be more like professional men in their work attitudes than like non-professional women, and vice versa, professional men may be more like professional women than non-professional men.

Of the two theoretical models utilised in this research (Levinson's theory of Life Stages and Super's theory of Career Stages), Levinson's Life Stages seemed to be an important determinant with regard to respondents' willingness to relocate, intention to leave the organisation, and desire for promotion. Whereas Super's Career Stages seemed to be an important determinant in respondents' intention to leave the organisation, desire for promotion, preferred timing of promotion, commitment to the organisation, and job involvement. It is interesting to note that intention to leave one's organisation and desire for promotion appear to be determined by both respondents' age and career stage. It would also appear that the results of the present research tend to indicate that Super's Career

Stages may have more utility for gaining an understanding of professional employees' careers and work attitudes than Levinson's Life Stages.

Once again, although there were some differences between professional men and women with regard to the importance they placed on certain work values, there nevertheless appeared to be more similarities than differences. Across both genders, Life, and Career stages, the following work values appeared to be most important to the participants in the present research: intellectual stimulation, achievement, good supervisory relations, and way of life (the opportunity to live the way one wishes to).

Indeed it appears that New Zealand professionals tend to value similar aspects of work regardless of their age, career stage, or gender. As work values were not particularly determined by either gender, Life, or Career stages it is likely that they may represent less situationally determined attitudes which tend to be more stable than other work attitudes. Thus, work values are likely to be more resistant to change than work attitudes. Consequently, adapting the work environment (if necessary) would appear to be more constructive than attempting to change employees' work values. Therefore, improving, or maintaining, the quality of professional employees' working lives may require organisations to keep these values in mind

when designing or redesigning jobs, work environments, and hours of work.

On the basis of the findings of the present study, it would seem to be advisable for human resource practitioners to consider marketing various human resource interventions to the particular groups of people most likely to benefit from them. It would also be prudent to begin to focus on the idea of "matching" the values and expectations of professional employees with those of the organisation. This would aid in increasing the level of understanding of both parties' needs, and lead to benefits in the form of efficient and effective performance, as well as employee satisfaction. In this regard, both Super and Levinson's theories could be applied to a variety of human resource management practices. Super's theory of psychological Career Stages would probably prove to be the more useful and effective of these two theories.

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A P P E N D I X A

C L A S S I F I C A T I O N O F O C C U P A T I O N A L
C A R E E R F I E L D S

OCCUPATIONAL CAREER FIELDS

BUSINESS: FINANCIAL

Auditor
 Computer Analyst
 Cost Accountant
 Credit Analyst

BUSINESS: MANAGEMENT

Bank Manager
 Hotel Manager
 Personnel Manager
 Store Owner/Manager

BUSINESS: SALES/PROMOTION

Advertising Manager
 Broker/Account Executive
 Buyer
 Public Relations Manager
 Sales Manager

BUSINESS: OFFICE/CLERICAL

Bank Teller
 Bookkeeper
 Clerk/Typist
 Postal Clerk
 Stenographer

SCIENCE

Engineer
 Industrial Engineer
 Systems Analyst
 Chemist
 Geologist
 Mathematician
 Physicist
 Statistician
 Economist
 Market Research Analyst
 Psychologist
 Sociologist

WRITING AND LAW

Editor
 Lawyer
 Librarian
 Reporter
 Script Writer

A P P E N D I X B

T H E R E S E A R C H Q U E S T I O N N A I R E

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**FACULTY OF
SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**DEPARTMENT OF
PSYCHOLOGY**

RESEARCH ON THE CAREER ATTITUDES OF PROFESSIONAL MEN AND WOMEN.

I am a Graduate Student from Massey University who is presently conducting research in the above area of Career Development. My main interest within this study is to investigate the concerns, attitudes, and values of professional's with regard to their career, or work, experiences at different life stages.

This study, although it has the permission of this organisation to proceed, is being conducted independently and participation in it is purely on a voluntary basis. Your participation would however be much appreciated.

I can assure you that all information gathered during the course of this study will be completely confidential and no individual names will be identified in any reports resulting from this study.

Your rights as a participant:

- * You have the right to contact me at any time during the research to discuss any aspects of the study.
- * You have the right to refuse to answer any question, or withdraw from the study at any time.
- * You have the right to expect that information provided during this study is completely confidential and to be used only for the purposes of this research. You also have the right to expect that it will not be possible to identify individuals in any reports of the results of this research.
- * You have the right to receive information about the results of this study on its completion if you so wish.

It is requested that participants record their first responses to the questions, and do not spend much time on each question.

FIONA MARTIN

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RESEARCH ON THE CAREER ATTITUDES OF PROFESSIONAL
MEN AND WOMEN

CONSENT FORM

If you are willing to participate in the study please complete this consent form.

I have read the information sheet about this study and I understand the details of the study. I understand that I may ask questions at any time and decline to answer any particular questions in the study. I also understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time. I agree to provide the researcher with information on the understanding that it is completely confidential, and I will not be identified in any reports from the study.

Signed: _____

Name: _____

Date: _____

I would / would not (cross out that which does not apply) like to be informed of the results of this study.

--	--	--	--	--

For the following demographic questions please **circle** those which apply to you.

Sex: Male \ Female

Age: _____

Marital status: Single Widowed
Married Separated
Defacto Divorced

Ethnicity: New Zealander (European descent)
New Zealander (Maori descent)
Polynesian
Asian
Other, please specify _____

What is your current position?

Briefly what duties does this involve?

How long have you been employed in your current position?

How long have you been employed in this organisation?

What is your Highest level of education.

1. School Certificate
 2. Sixth Form Certificate
 3. Seventh Form or Some University
 4. Polytechnic, technical or trade Certificate
 5. University Degree
 6. Post Graduate University Degree
 7. Other, please specify _____
-

What is your employment status?

1. Employed Full-time
 2. Employed Part-time
(Hours of work per week = _____)
 3. Other, please specify _____
-

Have you ever taken time out from employment for any reason?

Yes No

What was the reason(s) for time out from employment?

1. Parental Leave
 2. Redundancy
 3. Unemployment
 4. Overseas Experience
 5. Training/Study
 6. Other, please specify _____
-

What total length of time was involved?

1. Less than 6 months
 2. 6 months to a year
 3. One to two years
 4. Two to five years
 6. More than five years, please specify _____
-

Do you have any children Living with you? (circle)

Yes No

How many children do you have living with you and what are their ages?

Number of Children

None 1-2 3-4 5-6 more than 6

Age of youngest Child

Under 5 Under 10 Under 15 Under 20 Over 20

Who is primarily responsible for their care?

-
- 1 Very Satisfied
 - 2 Satisfied
 - 3 Somewhat Satisfied
 - 4 Dissatisfied

Using the above scale please indicate how you feel about the following (mark responses in the opposing boxes)

1. Your present employment?

2. Your overall career progress to date?

3. Your future career prospects?

Comments: _____

--	--	--	--

Do you plan to be working for your present employer 5 years in the future?

- 1 yes, definitely
- 2 probably
- 3 not certain
- 4 probably not
- 5 no, definitely not

Do you want to be promoted?

- 1 yes, definitely
- 2 yes, very much
- 3 probably
- 4 not certain
- 5 probably not
- 6 no, not really
- 7 no, definitely not

When do you want to get promoted?

- 1 now, immediately
- 2 within the next year
- 3 within the next two years
- 4 within the next 5 years
- 5 whenever the company asks me
- 6 never, do not want to be promoted

Would you be willing to move if a position required it?

- 1 very likely
- 2 likely
- 3 probably
- 4 not certain
- 5 probably not
- 6 unlikely
- 7 very unlikely

What particular aspects of your work do you value?

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The statements below represent values which people consider important in their work. These are satisfactions which people often seek in their jobs or as a result of their jobs. They are not all considered equally important; some are very important to some people but of little importance to others. Read each statement carefully and indicate how important it is for you by writing the corresponding number in the box.

- 5 = Very Important
- 4 = Important
- 3 = Moderately Important
- 2 = Of Little Importance
- 1 = Unimportant

Work in which you ...

- 1.... have to keep solving new problems.
- 2.... help others.
- 3.... can get a raise.
- 4.... look forward to changes in your job.
- 5.... have freedom in your own area.
- 6.... gain prestige in your field.
- 7.... need to have artistic ability.
- 8.... are one of the gang.
- 9.... know your job will last.
- 10... can be the kind of person you would like to be.
- 11... have a boss who gives you a square deal.
- 12... like the setting in which your job is done.
- 13... get the feeling of having done a good day's work.
- 14... have authority over others.
- 15... try out new ideas and suggestions.

- 5 = Very Important
- 4 = Important
- 3 = Moderately Important
- 2 = Of Little Importance
- 1 = Unimportant

Work in which you ...

- 16... create something new. ⁵⁶
- 17... know by the results when you've done a good job.
- 18... have a boss who is reasonable.
- 19... are sure of always having a job.
- 20... add beauty to the world.
- 21... make your own decisions.
- 22... have pay increases that keep up with the cost of living.
- 23... are mentally challenged.
- 24... use leadership abilities.
- 25... have adequate lounge, toilet and other facilities. ⁶⁵
- 26... have a way of life, while not on the job, that you like.
- 27... form friendships with your fellow employees.
- 28... know that others consider your work important.
- 29... do not do the same thing all the time.
- 30... feel you have helped another person.
- 31... add to the well-being of other people.
- 32... do many different things.

- 5 = Very Important
- 4 = Important
- 3 = Moderately Important
- 2 = Of Little Importance
- 1 = Unimportant

Work in which you ...

- 33... are looked up to by others ⁷³
- 34... have good contacts with fellow workers.
- 35... lead the kind of life you most enjoy.
- 36... have a good place in which to work (good lighting, quiet, clean, enough space, etc.)
- 37... plan and organize the work of others.
- 38... need to be mentally alert.
- 39... are paid enough to live right.
- 40... are your own boss.
- 41... make attractive products. ^{2/6}
- 42... are sure of another job in the company if your present job ends.
- 43... have a supervisor who is considerate.
- 44... see the results of your efforts.
- 45... contribute new ideas.

What do you think is most important about the work you do?

- 1 Strongly disagree
- 2 Moderately disagree
- 3 Slightly disagree
- 4 Neither disagree nor agree
- 5 Slightly agree
- 6 Moderately agree
- 7 Strongly agree

Please indicate using the above scale which is the best answer for you to each of the following statements, record your answers by writing the appropriate number into the opposing boxes.

- 1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
- 2. I talk about this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
- 3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.
- 4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
- 5. I find that my values and the organization's are very similar.
- 6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
- 7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.
- 8. This organization really inspires the very best in people in the way of job performance.
- 9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.
- 10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.

11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.
13. I really care about the fate of this organisation.
14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.

For the following statements please use the scale below to indicate how you feel about these aspects of your current job. Record your answers in the opposing boxes.

- 1 = Very dissatisfied
- 2 = Dissatisfied
- 3 = I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not
- 4 = Satisfied
- 5 = Very satisfied

On my present job, this is how I feel about:

1. Being able to keep busy all the time
2. The chance to work alone on the job
3. The chance to do different things from time to time
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community
5. The way my boss handles his/her people
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience
8. The way my job provides for steady employment

- 1 = Very dissatisfied
- 2 = Dissatisfied
- 3 = I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not
- 4 = Satisfied
- 5 = Very satisfied

- 9. The chance to do things for other people
- 10. The chance to tell people what to do
- 11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities
- 12. The way company policies are put into practice
- 13. My pay and the amount of work I do
- 14. The chances for advancement on this job
- 15. The freedom to use my own judgment
- 16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job
- 17. The working conditions
- 18. The way my co-workers get along with each other
- 19. The praise I get for doing a good job
- 20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job

What activities do you spent time in outside of work?
 (e.g Study, leisure, home and family, community service)
 List them below with the approximate number of hours spent in each per week.

--	--	--	--

How important to you are these "out of work" roles?

- (1. More important than "work"; 2. As important as "work";
3. Less important than "work").

ACTIVITY	RATING
	<input type="checkbox"/>

For the following statements please use the scale below and record your responses in the boxes provided.

- 1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree
3 = Disagree
4 = Strongly disagree

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| 1. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job s/he does. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. For me, mornings at work really fly by. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. The most important things that happen to me involve my work. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. I'm really a perfectionist about my work. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- 1 = Strongly agree
- 2 = Agree
- 3 = Disagree
- 4 = Strongly disagree

- 10. I have other activities more important than my work.
- 11. I live, eat and breathe my job.
- 12. I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money.
- 13. Quite often I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in.
- 14. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.
- 15. I am very much involved personally in my work.
- 16. I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work.
- 17. I used to be more ambitious about my work than I am now.
- 18. Most things in life are more important than work.
- 19. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.
- 20. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work.

How strong are these concerns at this point in your career?
Rate each statement according to the following scale. Record
your answers by writing the appropriate number into the
opposing boxes. Please answer every item including number 61
which asks about your career change plans.

- 1 = No Concern
- 2 = Little Concern
- 3 = Some Concern
- 4 = Considerable Concern
- 5 = Great Concern

1. Clarifying my ideas about the type of work I would really enjoy. ¹³
2. Deciding what I want to do for a living.
3. Finding the line of work I am best suited for.
4. Learning about beginning jobs that might be open to me.
5. Identifying the skills required for jobs that interest me.
6. Choosing the best among the occupations I am considering.
7. Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me.
8. Finding a line of work that really interests me. ²⁰
9. Making sure of my occupational choice.
10. Choosing a job that will really satisfy me.
11. Getting started in my chosen occupational field.
12. Deciding how to qualify for the work I want to do.
13. Meeting people who can help me get started in my chosen field.

- 1 = No concern
- 2 = Little concern
- 3 = Some concern
- 4 = Considerable concern
- 5 = Great concern

- 14. Finding opportunities to do work that I really like.
- 15. Making specific plans to achieve my current career goals.
- 16. Settling down in a job I can stay with.
- 17. Making a place for myself where I work.
- 18. Doing things to help me stay in the field in which I have started.
- 19. Achieving stability in my occupation.
- 20. Getting established in my work.
- 21. Consolidating my current position.
- 22. Developing a reputation in my line of work.
- 23. Becoming a dependable producer.
- 24. Becoming especially knowledgeable or skilful in my work.
- 25. Winning the support of my employer, colleagues, or clients.
- 26. Planning how to get ahead in my established field of work.
- 27. Improving my chances of advancement in my current occupation.
- 28. Doing the things that make people want me in my work.
- 29. Finding ways of making my competence known.

- 1 = No concern
- 2 = Little concern
- 3 = Some concern
- 4 = Considerable concern
- 5 = Great concern

- 30. Advancing to a more responsible position. ⁴²
- 31. Maintaining the occupational position I have achieved.
- 32. Holding my own against the competition of new people entering the field.
- 33. Adapting to changes introduced since I got established in my occupation.
- 34. Keeping in tune with the people I work with.
- 35. Keeping the respect of the people in my field.
- 36. Keeping up with new knowledge, equipment, and methods in my field.
- 37. Attending meetings and seminars on new methods.
- 38. Visiting places where I can see new developments.
- 39. Getting to know important people in my field.
- 40. Getting refresher training to keep up. ³²
- 41. Identifying new problems to work on.
- 42. Finding out about new opportunities as my field changes.
- 43. Deciding what new fields to open up or develop.
- 44. Developing new skills to cope with changes in my field.
- 45. Developing new knowledge or skills to help me improve in my work.

- 1 = No concern
- 2 = Little concern
- 3 = Some concern
- 4 = Considerable concern
- 5 = Great concern

- 46. Developing easier ways of doing my work. ⁵⁶
- 47. Concentrating on things I can do as I get older.
- 48. Cutting down on my working hours.
- 49. Avoiding occupational pressures I formerly handled more easily.
- 50. Developing more hobbies to supplement work interests.
- 51. Finding activities I would like in retirement.
- 52. Planning well for retirement.
- 53. Making sure I can have a good life when I retire.
- 54. Talking to retired friends about retirement and adjustments.
- 55. Setting aside enough assets for retirement.
- 56. Having a good place to live in retirement.
- 57. Having a good life in retirement.
- 58. Having friends I can enjoy in retirement. ⁷⁰
- 59. Making good use of free time that comes with retirement.
- 60. Doing things I have always wanted to do but never had time for.

61. After working in a field for a while, many people shift to another job for any of a variety of reasons: pay, satisfaction, opportunity for growth, shut-down, etc. When the shift is a change in field, not just working for another employer in the same field, it is commonly called a "career change". Following are five statements which represent various stages in career change. Choose the one statement that best describes your current status, and mark the number in the box.

1. I am not considering making a career change.
2. I am considering whether to make a career change.
3. I plan to make a career change and am choosing a field to change to.
4. I have selected a new field and am trying to get started in it.
5. I have recently made a change and am settling down in the new field.

Any further comments you would like to add?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION !

A P P E N D I X C

M E M O R A N D U M T O P A R T I C I P A N T S

TO: [Name of Participant]

FROM: Fiona Martin
Researcher
Massey University

DATE: [Date Memorandum was sent]

SUBJECT: Research on the Career Attitudes of Professional
Men and Women

If you are still willing to participate in this research and have not completed and returned the questionnaire sent to you, please do so by no later than the [Date Due] 1994.

Questionnaires may be returned through the internal mail via [Name of Organisation] or directly to the researcher via Massey University at the above address.

I would be very grateful if you could spare the time to complete this questionnaire as the information collected through this survey is essential for my current research.

THANK YOU.

A P P E N D I X D

F E E D B A C K T O P A R T I C I P A N T S



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**FACULTY OF
SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**DEPARTMENT OF
PSYCHOLOGY**

Dear Participant

RE: RESEARCH ON THE CAREER ATTITUDES OF PROFESSIONAL
MEN AND WOMEN

The research on the career attitudes of professional men and women in which you were involved in earlier this year has recently been completed. This research compared the work attitudes and values of professional men and women with regard to two theoretical models of life stage (defined by one's age group) and career stage (defined by one's "career concerns").

This study was important as very little research has been conducted examining the utility of current theories of career development with regard to practical applications for New Zealand men and women. Therefore, this research was exploratory in nature.

The data collected from the questionnaire survey was analysed using various statistical techniques. The results of these analyses indicated that the men and women in the sample did not differ significantly in their level of commitment to the organisation, their job involvement, or how satisfied they felt with their work. In addition, males and females said that they were equally willing to relocate, and they did not differ in their intentions to leave the organisation or their desire for promotion. This seems to contradict the often endorsed view that women are less committed to their career and less willing to move if necessary. Professional people as a group, therefore, are similar in their attitudes towards work. In other words, professional women may be more like professional men in their work attitudes than like non-professional women, and vice versa, professional men may be more like professional women than non-professional men.

Of the two theoretical models utilised in this research (age versus career stages), the age of respondents seemed to be an important determinant with regard to respondent's willingness to relocate, intention to leave the organisation, and desire for promotion. For example, professionals are more likely to intend to leave their organisation in "Early Adulthood" (Age 22 to 27) and "Middle Adulthood" (Age 50 to 60). Furthermore, professionals "Entering Middle Adulthood" (Age 45 to 49) are,

on average, less likely to intend to leave their organisation than professionals at any other life stage.

These age related trends appear logical as a person's age is likely to give some indication of various work, family, and social commitments which an individual has made. There may also be particular financial considerations related to a person's age, such as whether one has a mortgage, children, or aging parents to support.

Respondent's career stage seemed to be an important determinant in their intention to leave the organisation, desire for promotion, preferred timing of promotion, commitment to the organisation, and job involvement. This means that professionals within particular stages of their careers (regardless of age) are likely to differ in their attitudes towards work in comparison with professionals at other career stages. For example, professionals within the Exploration stage (i.e early entry to a particular job or career) and Disengagement stage (i.e preparing to leave a particular job or career) are more likely to plan to leave their organisation. They also show a lower level of job involvement than professionals in the Establishment stage (i.e process of getting established in one's job or career) and Maintenance stage (i.e those who are well established in their career and holding on to their position within the organisation). Another example is that commitment to the organisation is higher in professionals within the Maintenance stage. Furthermore, desire for promotion appears to be strongest in the Establishment and Maintenance stages.

It is interesting to note that intention to leave one's organisation and desire for promotion appear to be determined by both respondents' age and career stage as discussed above.

There were some differences between men and women on the importance placed on certain work values. However, there appeared to be more similarities than differences between the sexes. Across both sexes, and age and career stages, the following work values appeared to be most important to the participants in this research. These were: intellectual stimulation, achievement, good supervisory relations, and way of life (the opportunity to live the way one wishes to). This implies that professionals tend to value similar aspects of work regardless of their age, career stage, or gender. This may also imply that improving, or maintaining, the quality of professional employee's working lives may require organisations to keep these values in mind when designing or redesigning jobs, work environments, and hours of work.

The conclusion is that the theories examined in the above research can be applied, with some caution (due to the exploratory nature of the study), to a variety of Human Resource Management practices. This is due to the possibility that some of these Human Resource functions would be more efficient if targeted towards the group, or groups, of

employees most likely to benefit from such interventions.

I hope that participation in this research has been of interest to you and once again thank you for taking the time and effort to help me with my research.

FIONA MARTIN
MASSEY UNIVERSITY RESEARCHER

A P P E N D I X EA N O V A T A B L E S

TABLE E.1
ANOVA Table for Intention to Leave by Life Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Career Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	16.51	1	16.513	13.055	.000
Life Stage	17.47	5	3.493	2.762	.018
Error	447.76	354	1.265		
Total	481.73	360	1.338		

TABLE E.2
ANOVA Table for Desire for Promotion by Life Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Career Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	4.83	1	4.825	2.348	.126
Life Stage	35.24	5	7.048	3.430	.005
Error	727.39	354	2.055		
Total	767.46	360	2.132		

TABLE E.3
ANOVA Table for Willingness to Relocate by Life Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Career Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	6.15	1	6.153	2.027	.155
Life Stage	69.22	5	13.844	4.560	.000
Error	1074.72	354	3.036		
Total	1150.09	360	3.195		

TABLE E.4
ANOVA Table for Intention to Leave by Career Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Life Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	16.13	1	16.127	13.538	.000
Career Stage	41.53	3	13.844	11.622	.000
Error	424.08	356	1.191		
Total	481.73	360	1.338		

TABLE E.5
ANOVA Table for Desire for Promotion by Career Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Life Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	30.60	1	30.597	15.372	.000
Career Stage	28.27	3	9.422	4.734	.003
Error	708.59	356	1.990		
Total	767.46	360	2.132		

TABLE E.6
ANOVA Table for Preferred Timing for Promotion by Career Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Life Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	6.55	1	6.548	4.449	.036
Career Stage	12.42	3	4.141	2.813	.039
Error	523.98	356	1.472		
Total	542.95	360	1.508		

TABLE E.7
ANOVA Table for Organisational Commitment by Career Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Life Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	459.06	1	459.055	1.955	.163
Career Stage	2968.87	3	989.623	4.215	.006
Error	83584.54	356	234.788		
Total	87012.46	360	241.701		

TABLE E.8
ANOVA Table for Job Involvement by Career Stage
 (controlling for any covariance with Life Stage)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Sig. of F
Covariate	35.36	1	35.358	.703	.402
Career Stage	417.22	3	139.074	2.764	.042
Error	17911.43	356	50.313		
Total	18364.01	360	51.011		