ADOLESCENTS' CAREER IDENTITY:

THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY STRUCTURE

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ABSTRACT

ADOLESCENTS' CAREER IDENTITY: THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY STRUCTURE

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This study examined the relation between family structure (biological parents, single-parents, and stepparents) and career identity. Previous research has found that adult children of divorce have less education and lower incomes than adults from intact families. It was hypothesized that a significant contributor to this effect is a less well established career identity. Measures of career maturity and intrinsic work values were used as indicators of career identity. Since adolescence is a particularly important time for developing a career identity, this developmental stage was studied.

Students (n = 58) in the 11th grade from two midwestern high schools completed the Career Planning Questionnaire, measuring career maturity, and the Work Values Inventory, measuring intrinsic work values. No significant differences were found between subjects living with biological parents, single-parents, or stepparents, on measures of career maturity or work values. Considering that the majority of the subjects came from upper levels of socioeconomic status, these findings lend support to theories which suggest that poverty has a more...
detrimental effect on children of divorce than family structure. Other characteristics of the sample which may have contributed to the outcomes are discussed.
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INTRODUCTION

Divorce and remarriage have been occurring in increasing numbers in the United States. Researchers seek to understand both its short-term and long-term effects on children. One outcome associated with adult children of divorce has been lower educational attainment, income, and occupational prestige (McLanahan, 1988; McLanahan & Booth, 1989; Zill, Morrison, & Coiro, 1993). To develop effective interventions, efforts must be made to explain these outcomes. The developmental stage of adolescence needs to be considered when investigating these issues, because a major task of this stage is developing a career identity and making career decisions and plans (Steinberg, 1989). Career maturity and work values are indicators of career identity and development. This research considers career maturity and work values during adolescence and their relation to family structure.

Every year more than 1 million children in the United States experience the divorce of their parents (Amato & Keith, 1991b). In 1970, 12% of American families with children under age 18 were headed by single parents. By 1990, almost 25% of American families and nearly 55% of African American families were headed by single parents (Schmittroth, 1994). Studies predicting future living arrangements for children under the age of 18 suggest that 60% to 70% of Caucasian children and as many as 94% of African American children will at some time live with one parent (Demo & Acock, 1988).
Many adults who divorce will remarry. It is predicted that by the year 2000, the stepfamily will outnumber all others types in the United States (Darden & Zimmerman, 1992). Estimates indicate that 35% of children born in the early 1980s can expect to live with a stepparent before age 18 (Fine, Kurdek, & Hennigen, 1992). Furthermore, it is estimated that 1 out of every 10 children will experience two divorces of a custodial parent before he or she turns 16 (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992).

Given these statistics for divorce and remarriage, the structure of the family is changing. The heads of households may be among the following: two biological parents, mother single-parent, father single-parent, mother with stepfather, and father with stepmother. In remarriages children may live with same-sex or opposite-sex parents and may live with same-sex or opposite-sex stepparents. Within these stepfamilies, children will be stepchildren and may or may not have stepsiblings or half-siblings. And as if the picture isn't complex enough, there is the role of the stepgrandparents. Clearly, the complexity of these changes in the family and the relationships which develop will impact children.

Research has suggested that children who experience the divorce and/or remarriage of their parents are at a greater risk for emotional and behavioral problems, health problems, and academic problems (Amato, 1994; Kurdek & Fine, 1993; Popenoe, 1994). In addition, when remarriage of a parent occurs during adolescence, the family appears to have more sustained problems in family relationships. Also, adolescence may be a
time when problems reemerge for some children who appear to have adapted well to remarriage (Bray & Hetherington, 1993). Other research suggests that the more parenting transitions (divorces and remarriages) a child experiences the greater the risk for adjustment problems (Kurdek & Fine, 1993).

While much research suggests difficulty for children of divorce and remarriage, some researchers report children experience the most difficulties in the period shortly after their parents' divorce (Krein & Beller, 1988). Hetherington (1993) suggests that by 2 to 3 years after divorce most parents and children recover from disrupted functioning. Amato and Keith (1991b), however, have suggested that the long-term difficulties seen in adult children of divorce may be of more importance than the frequently researched short-term difficulties in children.

Adult children of divorce have been reported to experience lower levels of well-being such as depression, lower life satisfaction, lower marital quality, and higher divorce rates (Amato & Keith, 1991a). Adult children of divorce are also more likely to marry younger and to be a single parent (McLanahan, 1988). This is a significant social issue in that one of two single mothers is living below the poverty line (McLanahan & Booth, 1989).

As mentioned earlier, adult children of divorce frequently have lower educational attainment, income, and occupational prestige. McLanahan (1988) suggested that two general conclusions can be reached from research findings with adult children of divorce: 1) growing up in a female-headed family lowers future economic status and reduces future
marital stability, and 2) most of these negative effects are due to lower educational attainment and early marriage.

Lack of education has been found to be a determinant of chronic unemployment. Years of education has been shown to be a predictor of welfare recipiency and persistent poverty (Krein & Beller, 1988). High-school dropouts are far more likely than graduates to live at or near the poverty level, experience unemployment, and depend on government-subsidized income programs (Steinberg, 1989). Education during the teenage years appears to be of paramount significance in terms of future wage-earning ability.

Adolescents must develop a career identity. They must define their self-concepts and relate that self-concept to the world of work (Fouad & Keeley, 1992). They have to know about themselves and their abilities. They need to determine how realistic their goals are and if they can be achieved. They must decide whether to go to college or technical school or look for employment.

Researchers explore the development of career identity by measuring career maturity and work values. Career maturity has been defined as the extent to which an individual has mastered the age-appropriate vocational tasks relevant to his or her developmental stage (Fouad & Keeley, 1992). For example, during adolescence career choices should become more realistic. The adolescent who wishes to be a singer and has no singing ability should begin to pursue a more realistic career path where he or she exhibits talent or skill. This more
accurate assessment of reality will ultimately influence the developing career identity.

Work values also have been associated with career identity. This concept refers to goal-directed motives that influence vocational choice, career development, and occupational adjustment. They are the ends or objectives people seek to achieve through working (Bolton, 1985). For example, some individuals may highly value security and will make decisions which ensure employment that provides security. Endorsing values and seeking the types of employment that will satisfy these values are components of the developing career identity.

If adult children of divorce experience lower educational attainment, incomes, and occupational prestige, it may be that during adolescence they experience difficulty in developing appropriate career identities. This research will look at career identity, as measured by career maturity and work values, of adolescents whose parents have been divorced as compared to adolescents living with two biological parents.

Children of Divorce: Educational Attainment and Economic Earnings

A number of researchers have been looking at possible long-term effects of parental divorce on educational attainment and economic earnings. Lower educational attainment has been evidenced in higher school dropout rates for adult children of divorce than children from intact families (McLanahan & Booth, 1989). In a longitudinal research project of 1,147 children born between the years of 1965-1970 and followed to ages 18-22, Zill et al. (1993) found that youth aged 18 to
22 from disrupted families were twice as likely as other youths to have dropped out of high school.

Living in a single-parent family during the preschool years also appears to affect educational attainment (Krein & Beller, 1988). In a review of 2,544 men and women, the authors found that living in a single-parent family during the preschool years has a significant negative effect on educational attainment. In addition, the more years (in the preschool period and overall) spent in a single-parent family, the greater the reduction in educational attainment. The length of exposure was not, however, significant for Caucasian females.

One explanation for lower educational attainment has been that single mothers are slightly less likely to aspire to more than a high school education for their children than are married couples. Although a number of studies have reported this finding, the difference disappears when income is controlled. This suggests that single mothers whose financial resources compare favorably with those of married couples would not have lower educational goals for their children (Barber & Eccles, 1992).

Educational attainment of children has been shown to be positively related to parental inputs of time, especially of the mother (Krein & Beller, 1988). After a divorce, mothers frequently must work to support their families and have less time available to spend with their children. Single mothers have less time to help with schoolwork and may therefore adjust their goals downward. Barber and Eccles (1992) did find that single mothers had slightly lower expectations for their
children's school performance. However, this also disappeared when income was statistically controlled.

Finally, children of divorce may terminate their schooling for reasons other than poor achievement. In particular, early entrance into the labor force, early pregnancies and marriage, and economic necessity in general may prove to be more critical in explaining early drop-out rates than academic performance (McLanahan, 1985).

Income, as mentioned earlier, is influenced by years of education. However, there are other variables which may negatively influence income of adult children of divorce. McLanahan (1988) in her research of 1,450 girls between the ages of 17 and 26 found that living in a family dependent on welfare (for whites 50 percent or more of income, for African Americans any amount of welfare) increased the probability of receiving welfare as an adult. She also found that the longer the family is on welfare, the more likely the daughter will become a recipient herself.

African American and Caucasian females who live in single-parent families at some point between the ages of 12 and 16 are more likely to form single-mother households in early adulthood than are their counterparts from two-parent families (McLanahan, 1988). When socioeconomic status is controlled, both African American and Caucasian daughters of single mothers are still more likely to become household heads than are daughters from two-parent households.
Gender Differences Associated With Divorce and Remarriage

When considering the effects of divorce and remarriage on children and adolescents, research suggests that gender in relation to family structure is an important area to review. Boys seem to have fewer difficulties in stepfamilies than girls (Amato & Keith, 1991b; Fine et al., 1992; Ganong & Coleman, 1986; Hetherington, 1989; McLanahan & Booth, 1989; Santrock, Warshak, Lindbergh, & Meadows, 1982; Vuchinich, Hetherington, Vuchinich, & Clingempeel, 1991; Zaslow, 1989) and girls do better in mother single-parent households than boys (Hetherington, 1989). Amato and Keith (1991b) report that in five of the studies comparing children in stepfamilies and children in single-parent families, the presence of a stepfather improved the well-being (school achievement, parental relationships, psychological and social adjustment, conduct, self-concept) of boys but either had no effect on or decreased the well-being of girls.

Research indicates that girls in stepfamilies have more difficulty interacting with stepfathers than do sons, and have more extended conflicts with stepfathers. Further, closer mother-stepfather relationships are associated with more behavior problems in girls (Hetherington, 1993; Vuchinich et al., 1991). Bray and Berger (1993) report that after 5 years in a stepfamily, stepfather-daughter interactions were more negative than were stepfather-son interactions and father-daughter interactions in nuclear families. In stepfather families 44% of females indicated they were not close to their stepfather. Over one half (51%) of the females in stepfather families
indicated they didn't get enough love and attention from their stepfathers. The reaction of stepdaughters to stepfathers is less positive than the reaction of any other stepchild/stepparent combination. This is true whether the stepdaughter had resided with a stepfather for only a few years or for the major portion of her life (Ganong & Coleman, 1986).

In stepfather families, it appears that girls' relationships with both stepfathers and mothers are different from that of boys (Santrock et al., 1982). Girls in stepfather families showed more anger towards their mothers and the girls' mothers engaged in less meaningful verbal interaction with their daughters than with their sons. In the first two years following remarriage, conflict between mothers and daughters was high and after two years of remarriage the girls behavior improved but was still more antagonistic and disruptive than girls in mother-head households and nondivorced families (Hetherington, 1989).

In contrast, Santrock et al. (1982) found in a study of 36 families that boys in stepfather families showed more competent social behavior than boys in intact families. Some of the difference in the boys' behaviors in stepfather families was explained by the finding that fathers in stepfather families reported less marital conflict, more satisfaction with their mates, and less contemplation of divorce than the fathers from intact families. Boys in these stepfather families showed more warmth towards their stepfathers than girls in stepfather families. In addition, stepsons in longer remarried families reported
being close to their stepfathers, enjoying their company, and seeking their advice and support (Hetherington, 1989).

Girls appear to fare better than boys in mother-head households. Cornelius (1990) reports that boys from mother-head households show more aggression and noncompliance than girls from these families. Divorced nonremarried mothers 6 years after divorce tend to nag, natter, and complain and are often involved in angry, escalating coercive cycles with their sons (Hetherington, 1989). Hetherington hypothesized that daughters in mother-head families have played more responsible, powerful roles than girls in nondivorced families and have had more positive relationships with their divorced mothers than have sons.

Given that girls with stepfathers and boys in mother-head households appear to experience greater problems, these groups of children may be at a higher risk of developing lower educational attainment and lower income. This research examines whether there is an interaction between gender and family structure in adolescents' career identity.

Career Identity

An individual's career choice is based on his or her career identity. The individual translates his or her self-image into occupational terms in order to create a career identity (Krau, 1989). The career identity can be viewed as paralleling, or even as a part of, the identity development process through which children and adolescents proceed.
Adolescents will first examine their traits, abilities and interests, then go through periods of experimentation with different work roles, and finally, integrate influences from their past with their hopes for the future (Steinberg, 1989). Adolescents begin to plan educational and work activities to suit their career interests, and to evaluate career decisions in terms of long- as well as short-term consequences.

Development of a career identity involves a progression from global and poorly defined conceptions of the self in relation to the world-of-work to ones that are more clearly defined and differentiated (Schulenberg & Vondracek, 1987). Accordingly, in the early exploratory stage of career development, youth will have tentative, rather than firm goals, and broadly formulated rather than narrowly specified preferences (Hamdani, 1977).

Children and adolescents experience a transformation of work perception from fantasy-based notions of work typical of childhood to reality-based notions of adult employment. Children develop a growing awareness and understanding of the details of adult employment. They develop a more adult-like understanding of careers and are able to distinguish career from work or occupation (Santilli & Furth, 1987).

As young persons increasingly gain experience with the world of work, they become more realistic in their aspirations. Young persons begin to encounter and to comprehend occupational requirements, such as talent and education, which may then serve as barriers to their idealistic occupational aspirations. Occupational choice is motivated
by the individual's appraisal of his or her chances of being able to realize those aspirations (Brinkerhoff & Kunz, 1972).

The process of developing a career identity and making career choices appears to be influenced by one's parents. Parents influence career choices through socioeconomic status, modeling, maternal employment, family configuration, early parent-child interaction, parental encouragement, and providing direct work information (Middleton & Loughead, 1993; Young & Friesen, 1992; Young, Friesen, & Pearson, 1988). Middleton & Loughead (1993) also report that parents provide the majority of "definer influence" to their children. Definer influence is described as persons with whom the adolescent had direct contact, and who provided information regarding different activities associated with various occupations. Students mentioned that having family members in an occupation was one of the most influential reasons for their occupational plans (Piotrkowski & Stark, 1987). In addition, parents have been found to be the primary influencers of college business students' career choices (Hoffman, Hofacker, & Goldsmith, 1992).

Career Maturity

Career maturity is a concept associated with career identity. Career maturity can be defined as the level of mastery an individual demonstrates towards vocational tasks in relation to his or her developmental stage (Fouad & Keeley, 1992; Post-Kammer, 1987). Donald E. Super, in introducing the concept of career maturity, hypothesized that there are five dimensions along which career maturation proceeds: (1) orientation to vocational choice;
(2) information and planning; (3) consistency of vocational choice; (4) crystallization of traits; and (5) wisdom of vocational preferences (Crites, 1978).

Knowledge regarding various occupations is essential to choosing a vocation and developing career maturity. One way that children learn about various occupations is through their parents. Children listen to parents talk about their jobs, spend time at parents' workplaces, and see their parents come home tired after a hard day of work. Piotrkowski and Stark (1987) found that most of the children in their sample reported that their mothers talked to them about their jobs while only 28% of their fathers talked to them about their jobs. Children also reported knowledge about job loss, the physical environment of parent's work, and working hard.

Career maturity has been found to differ for various populations (McDonald & Jessell, 1992). For example, there is a relation between socioeconomic status and young adolescents' occupational attitudes and perceived occupational abilities. McDonald and Jessell (1992) found that young adolescents with a very short list of possible careers and doubts about their abilities to perform in them are likely to be males who come from a family of lower middle to lower socioeconomic status headed by a single parent. Young adolescents who believe a variety of careers are possible, and who would consider many as a career, are likely to come from a family of middle to high socioeconomic status with both parents present. Students who consistently demonstrated career
maturity from 9th through 12th grades were generally brighter, better students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds.

Disadvantaged youth are less likely to exhibit the attitudes and behaviors associated with vocational maturity in high school than are students from higher socioeconomic levels. Disadvantaged youths are also about 2 years behind their middle-class counterparts in vocational development (Hamdani, 1977).

Males and females also appear to differ in career maturity. Females have higher levels of career maturity when compared to same-age male counterparts (Schulenberg & Vondracek, 1987; Vondracek & Lerner, 1982). Luzzo (1995) found that female college students had a well-planned process for their career development—the decision to go to college, the choice of a major, and the choice of a career aspiration. Male students, on the other hand, generally reported rather sporadic and unplanned career decisions.

Minority populations also appear to differ in career maturity. Caucasian students tend to score higher on vocational maturity than African Americans (Fouad & Keeley, 1992; Westbrook & Sanford, 1991) and Asian American students (Leong, 1991). Mortimer and Yamoor (1987) hypothesized that African American students' disappointment at not being able to get part-time and summer jobs spills over into their academic work, fostering disillusionment, fatalism, and a lack of effort in school. Further, these negative experiences and encounters make them believe that they will be excluded from good jobs, irrespective of their level of academic effort or credentials. This influences their beliefs
and values, and results in less motivation to work hard and lower career maturity.

Career maturity is influenced by the career choices and decisions of an individual. These decisions are based on the values and beliefs of that individual. Thus, looking at work values is essential to understanding career identity.

**Work Values**

Work values is another concept associated with career identity. One of the developmental tasks of the exploratory stage of career development is clarification of work values. Work values have been defined as the personal determinants which provide a frame of reference for exploring occupations (Mannheim, 1988; Post-Kammer, 1987; Schulenberg & Vondracek, 1987). They are the emotional and physical needs and desires which are significant to an individual. Work values are the motivation behind career decisions.

Work values have been categorized as either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic work values refer to valuing work as a means to attain resources separable from the meaning of the work activities themselves, for example, income, security, and prestige. Intrinsic work value refers to valuing work for its own sake or interest or greater task orientation (Lindsay & Knox, 1984).

It has been reported that work values become more intrinsic with age (Post-Kammer, 1987). In a study of 9th and 11th graders, 11th graders reported valuing intrinsic work values to a greater extent than did 9th graders. Extrinsic work values showed few developmental differences.
Gade and Peterson (1977) reported that for women vocational development in late adolescence or early adulthood is a movement away from security orientation toward a view of work as fulfillment of intrinsic values and greater task orientation.

When considering work values, it is important to recognize that parents strongly influence children's values (Vodanovich & Kramer, 1989). Children in grades 6 and 10 had work values similar to those of their same-sex parent, while those in the 12th grade had occupational values that resembled those of their fathers. Thus, work values of both sons and daughters in the 12th grade are more similar to values possessed by their fathers than their mothers.

Quality of family relationships also appears to influence children's beliefs and values. A supportive home climate enhances value adoption (Mannheim, 1988). Mannheim further reports that a lack of consideration for the quality of family relationships has been cited as a reason for finding low correlations between family background factors and children's work values.

Work values, like career maturity, also have been found to differ across groups of children and adolescents. Children and adolescents from low socioeconomic environments have values which differ in several ways from those of higher socioeconomic environments. Low SES adolescents do not anticipate a working career positively (Krau, 1989). They experience apprehension due to the anticipated drudgery. Also, low socioeconomic status is associated with work value preferences which focus on economic security and good supervisory relations. In contrast,
Boys and girls also appear to differ in their work values. Girls place greater emphasis on intrinsic work values (convenience and altruistic values); boys place greater emphasis on extrinsic values (Mannheim, 1988). Females express greater expectations of intrinsic work enjoyment and fewer future financial responsibilities than males (Vondracek & Lerner, 1982). Post-Kammer (1987) found girls valued the intrinsic values of altruism and way of life, whereas boys valued management.

The Present Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the development of career identity in adolescents as related to family structure. Career maturity and work values were used as the indicators of career identity. The researcher proposed to compare the career maturity and work values of children living with both biological parents, children living in single-parent families, and children living in stepfamilies. The study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

1. Because adult children of divorce experience lower educational attainment, income, and occupational prestige, and career maturity is associated with mastery of age-appropriate vocational tasks, it is hypothesized that career maturity of children living with both
biological parents will be significantly higher than career maturity for children living with single-parents or stepfamilies.

2. Based on the results of previous studies (Schulenberg & Vondracek, 1987; Vondracek & Lerner, 1982), it is predicted that girls living with two biological parents will have higher levels of career maturity than boys living with two biological parents. Since boys experience fewer difficulties in stepfather families than girls, it is predicted that levels of career maturity of boys in stepfather families will be higher than girls in stepfather families. In addition, since girls fare better in mother-head households than boys, it is predicted that levels of career maturity for girls in mother-head households will be higher than for boys.

3. Because work values become more intrinsic with age, and adult children of divorce experience greater difficulties with educational and economic domains, it is hypothesized that children living with both biological parents will report higher levels of intrinsic work values than children from single-parent or stepfamilies.

4. Based on the results of previous studies (Vondracek & Lerner, 1982), it is predicted that in biological two-parent families girls will report higher levels of intrinsic work values than boys. Since boys experience fewer difficulties in stepfather families than girls, it is predicted that boys in stepfather families will report higher levels of intrinsic work values than girls in stepfather families. In addition, since girls fare better in mother-head households than boys, it is predicted that girls in mother-head households will report higher levels intrinsic work values than boys.
Subjects

Subjects were obtained from two midwestern high schools. In one of the schools, participants were solicited from 11th-grade English classes. At the other school participants were solicited from 11th grade homeroom classes. This age group was chosen because a major task of adolescence is developing a career identity.

Approximately 300 students from each school were solicited for participation, with 8 subjects (3 male, 5 female) from one school and 61 subjects (20 male, 41 female) from the other school agreeing to participate. Because of missing data, 2 female subjects from the first school and 2 males and 6 females from the second school were excluded. There were 49 Caucasian, 6 African American, and 4 participants who marked the "other" option under race. The ages of the subjects ranged from 15.75 years to 17.83 years with the mean age 16.66 years (SD = .54).

The subjects' parents reported on the demographics questionnaire the current family structure: biological parents (n = 32), adoptive or foster parents (n = 4), mother/stepfather (n = 11), father/stepmother (n = 4), mother head of household (n = 8). One parent from the adoptive
or foster parents group reported that the child had been in the home for only three months. This subject was excluded from the data analysis. The other 3 subjects in the adoptive parents category had lived with their families from early childhood.

The subjects who reported living in stepfamilies and mother head families provided length of time in their current household (mother/stepfather \([n = 11]\) mean years = 6.9, \(SD = 4.83\); father/stepmother \([n = 4]\) mean years = 6.5, \(SD = 2.65\); mother head \([n = 8]\) mean years = 11.88, \(SD = 5.14\)).

The subject's SES was calculated using the Hollingshead Four Factor Index (Hollingshead, 1975).

Measures

Demographics. This questionnaire was completed by the subjects' parents (see Appendix A). It included child's age, gender, ethnicity, SES, parental education, composition of current household, and years child lived in household.

Career Planning Questionnaire (CPQ). Developed by Westbrook (1983), the CPQ (see Appendix B) is a measure of career maturity and is an unpublished research measure. It has six subscales: Career Decisions, Career Activities, Career Salience, Self-Knowledge, Career Concerns, and Career Values and has Form A and Form B. Following are examples of items from each of the subscales: Career Decisions - "I have decided on a career for me," Career Activities - "I have read something about the abilities required in my preferred occupation," Career Salience - "I am willing to pursue my career choice at almost any cost," Self-Knowledge -
"I know what my abilities and aptitudes are," and Career Concerns - "I do not know whether I will be good enough for my career choice." Items on the Career Values scale describe two jobs and the student is asked to select the job they would prefer. If they are not certain they are asked to mark C. Following is an example: (A) Job A will provide you with security; you would not be afraid of losing your job. (B) Job B would provide you with lots of leisure time but not much job security. (C) I am not exactly sure.

For purposes of this research, only four of the six scales were used--Career Decisions, Career Activities, Self-Knowledge, and Career Concerns. These four scales were selected because they were found to meet minimum reliability standards for research purposes; to be independent of academic achievement; and to relate significantly to at least one relevant criterion measure 1 year later (Westbrook, Sanford, Merwin, Fleenor & Renzi, 1987). The other two scales did not achieve these standards and the scores on those scales were not consistent with theoretical expectations (Westbrook et al., 1987). At the suggestion of the first author (Bert W. Westbrook, Ed.D., personal communication), the four scale scores were combined and an overall score of career maturity was derived.

For this research, Form B was used. The authors report that for Form B intercorrelations for the four scales range from .47 to .82 with a median of .66; whereas, Form A intercorrelations range from .26 to .64 with a median of .52. Form B was also selected due to more consistently achieving significant correlations with a criterion-related measure, the

**Work Values Inventory (WVI).** Developed by Super (1968), the WVI is a 45-item inventory that refers to various benefits and aspects of work. The WVI consists of 15 scales: Altruism, Esthetics, Creativity, Intellectual Stimulation, Achievement, Independence, Prestige, Management, Economic Returns, Security, Surroundings, Supervisory Relations, Associates, Way of Life, and Variety (Super, 1970). This inventory uses a 5-point Likert scale. Scores on each item can range between Unimportant (1) to Very Important (5). As there are three items on each subscale, total scores on each subscale can range between 3 and 15. There is no total score for the instrument. The inventory takes approximately 15-20 minutes to complete and requires a 7th grade reading level.

The median test-retest reliability for the 15 subscales is .83 over a 2-week period. Content validity has been provided by research comparing six independently developed systems of work values (Bolton, 1985). Construct validity has been provided by over 30 studies reported in the literature since 1970 (Bolton, 1985). Bolton further reports in his critique of this instrument that it stands apart for its "excellent psychometric foundations and continuing use in research studies" (p. 841).

The normative data were collected in the spring of 1968. There were 10,083 students in grades 7-12. Boys and girls were about equally represented in the total sample. There were approximately 3,000 pupils
per grade included. The data is divided by grade and gender which includes data for 7th through 12th grade for both boys and girls. Raw scores are given and then a percentile ranking for each scale. Means and standard deviations for the 15 scales by grade and gender are also included.

Miller (1974) proposed that the scales can be divided between intrinsic values (Achievement, Altruism, Creativity, Esthetics, Intellectual Stimulation, and Management) and extrinsic values (Associates, Economic Returns, Independence, Prestige, Security, Supervisory Relationships, Surroundings, Variety, and Way of Life) based on item content and statements in the manual. For the purpose of this study, only the scores on each of the intrinsic value subscales were used.

Following are examples of items from each intrinsic subscale: Achievement - "get the feeling of having done a good day's work," Altruism - "feel you have helped another person," Creativity - "create something new," Esthetics - "add beauty to the world," Intellectual Stimulation - "have to keep solving problems," and Management "have authority over others."

Procedure

The students were asked to take the cover letter (see Appendix A) and the consent form/demographic questionnaire home for their parents to complete. Only students who returned and signed completed consent/demographic forms participated in the study. At the first school the subjects completed the WVI during their English class. Approximately a
week later the subjects completed the CPQ. Once both questionnaires were completed, the subject's results from the WVI were given to them with a written description of the results (see Appendix C). Students, at their discretion, could share their results with their school guidance counselor. Students whose parents did not want them to participate completed another English assignment provided by the English teacher.

At the second school, the subjects completed the WVI during two consecutive days of their homeroom class. Approximately a week later, the subjects completed the CPQ during three to four consecutive days of their homeroom class. Once both questionnaires were completed, the subject's results from the WVI were given to them with a written description of the results. Students, at their discretion, could share their results with their school guidance counselor. Students whose parents did not want them to participate engaged in normal homeroom activities.
CHAPTER III
RESULTS

The socioeconomic scores were computed using the Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Status (Hollingshead, 1975). The Four Factor Index derives a social status by using gender, level of education, occupational classification, and marital status. Computed scores range from 8 to 66. The scores correspond with 5 social strata: 8-19 unskilled laborers, menial service workers; 20-29 machine operators, semiskilled workers; 30-39 skilled craftsmen, clerical, sales workers; 40-54 medium business, minor professional, technical; and 55-66 major business and professional. In this study, the participants' social status scores ranged from 22-62 with an overall mean SES of 43.67 (SD = 11.06). The means for the SES for the various family structures are as follows: biological parents mean SES = 44.59 (SD = 10.75), adoptive parents mean SES = 49.33 (SD = 12.01), mother/stepfather mean SES = 37.72 (SD = 10.75), father/stepmother mean SES = 46.25 (SD = 9.32), mother-head mean SES = 44.75 (SD = 12.73). Using a one-way analysis of variance, the means were compared and did not significantly differ, F(2,55) = 1.12, p = .333. Table 1 presents a frequency distribution of the individual SES scores for each of the family structures.

All instruments were scored according to standard instructions. Two concerns about the subjects were immediately addressed. To determine if there was a main effect of school, a multivariate analysis
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Structure</th>
<th>Hollingshead 5 Levels of Social Strata</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological Parents</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoptive Parents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother/Stepfather</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father/Stepmother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Head</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hollingshead 5 levels of Social Strata

1 = 8-19 unskilled laborers, menial service workers
2 = 20-29 machine operators, semiskilled workers
3 = 30-39 skilled craftsmen, clerical, sales workers
4 = 40-54 medium business, minor professional, technical
5 = 55-66 major business and professional.
of variance was performed. Since no significant main effect for school was found, $F(7,48) = .84, p = .563$, the data for subjects from both schools were combined. To determine if there was a main effect for family structure between subjects living with long-term adoptive parents and subjects living with both biological parents, a multivariate analysis of variance was performed. Since no significant main effect for family structure was found, $F(7,25) = .85, p = .556$, the data for subjects from long-term adoptive families and subjects living with both biological parents were combined.

Career maturity and intrinsic work values were studied in relation to family structure (biological/adoptive parents, mother/stepfather, father/stepmother, and mother head) and gender. The means and standard deviations for career maturity by family structure and gender are listed in Table 2. The means and standard deviations for the intrinsic work values by family structure and gender are listed in Table 3.

To determine if any differences existed between the subjects' scores on the Career Planning Questionnaire (CPQ) and scores for the standardized sample, one-sample $z$ tests were performed. For the CPQ the standardized sample includes scores for 11th grade students and combines male and female scores. Thus, male and female scores for the present study's sample were combined and then compared with the standardized sample on the four individual scales (Career Decisions, Career Activities, Self-Knowledge, and Career Concerns). There was only one significant difference and that was on the Career Activities scale where the subjects scored higher ($p < .05$) than the standardized sample. This
### TABLE 2
Career Maturity by Family Structure and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Structure</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Combined Male and Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological/Adoptive</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44.80</td>
<td>17.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother/Stepfather</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>14.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father/Stepmother</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.00</td>
<td>11.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Head</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Dashes indicate scores not calculated or unavailable.
### TABLE 3
Intrinsic Work Values by Family Structure and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Biological/Adoptive Parents</th>
<th>Mother/Stepfather</th>
<th>Father/Stepmother</th>
<th>Mother Head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.13</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.20</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.73</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.53</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.40</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.20</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.65</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Dashes indicate scores not calculated or unavailable.
suggests that the subjects in this study were more involved in career-related activities such as looking into the educational requirements of an occupation and reading material about the abilities required in a given occupation.

On the Work Values Inventory (WVI) the standardized sample is separated by gender and grade. The male subjects' scores for the present sample were compared with the 11th grade male standardized sample on the six intrinsic scales (Achievement, Altruism, Creativity, Esthetics, Intellectual Stimulation, Management). The subjects from this study scored significantly higher ($p < .05$) on the Management scale. The female subjects' scores were then compared with the 11th grade female standardized sample on the six intrinsic scales. There were no significant differences between female subjects and the standardized sample ($p < .05$).

Four hypotheses were tested. The first hypothesis predicted that subjects living with both biological parents would report higher levels of career maturity than subjects living with single-parents and stepfamilies. Because of the small number of subjects, the career maturity scores for subjects living in other family structures (mother head, mother/stepfather, and father/stepmother) were combined and then compared with the career maturity for subjects living with biological/adoptive parents. A one-way analysis of variance was performed and no significant difference was found between the career maturity of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents and
subjects living in other family structures (mother head, mother/stepfather, and father/stepmother), $F(1,56) = .01, p = .938$.

Next, the career maturity of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents was compared to the career maturity of subjects living with mother head of household. A one-way analysis of variance was performed and no significant difference was found between the career maturity of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents and subjects living in mother-head families, $F(1,41) = .19, p = .664$.

Finally, the data for the subjects living with mother/stepfather were combined with the data from the father/stepmother group to create a stepfamily group. The career maturity of the stepfamily group was then compared to the career maturity of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents. A one-way analysis of variance was performed and no significant difference was found between the career maturity of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents and subjects living in stepfamilies (mother/stepfather and father/stepmother), $F(1,48) = .16, p = .693$.

The second hypothesis involved replication of previous research (Schulenberg & Vondracek, 1987; Vondracek & Lerner, 1982) where the career maturity scores of girls living with biological parents were found to be higher than the career maturity scores of boys living with biological parents. A one-way analysis of variance was performed and no significant difference was found between career maturity of girls and boys living with biological/adoptive parents, $F(1,33) = .21, p = .653$. 
Also predicted in the second hypothesis was that for boys living in mother/stepfather families there would be higher levels of career maturity than for girls in mother/stepfather families. In addition, it was predicted that girls in mother-head households would have higher levels of career maturity than boys in mother-head households. These hypotheses could not be tested because of the lack of male subjects in these family structures.

The third hypothesis predicted that subjects living with both biological parents would report higher levels of intrinsic work values than subjects living in single-parent or stepfamilies. Because of the small number of subjects, intrinsic work value scores of subjects living in other family structures (mother head, mother/stepfather, and father/stepmother) were combined and then compared with intrinsic work values of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on each of the intrinsic work values, and as reported in Table 4, a significant difference was found only for intellectual stimulation. Subjects living with biological/adoptive parents more highly valued intellectual stimulation than subjects from other family structures (mother head, mother/stepfather, and father/stepmother), $F(1,56) = 4.55, p < .05$.

Next, intrinsic work values of subjects living with biological/adoptive parents were compared to intrinsic work values of subjects living with mother-head families. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on each of the intrinsic work values, and as
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Values</th>
<th>Biological/Adoptive Parents</th>
<th>Other Family Structures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.
reported in Table 5, no significant differences were found between subjects living with biological/adoptive parents and subjects living in mother-head families.

TABLE 5
Intrinsic Work Values for Biological/Adoptive Parents Compared to Stepfamilies and Mother Head

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Values</th>
<th>Biological/Adoptive Parents</th>
<th>Stepfamilies</th>
<th>Mother Head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.54</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13.17</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9.97</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. No significant differences were found.

Finally, the data for the subjects living with mother/stepfather group were combined with the data from the father/stepmother group to create a stepfamily group. The intrinsic work values for the stepfamily group were then compared to the intrinsic work values for the subjects living with biological/adoptive parents. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on each of the intrinsic work values, and as reported in Table 5, no significant differences were found between subjects living with biological/adoptive parents and subjects living in stepfamilies.
(mother/stepfather and father/stepmother). However, intellectual stimulation did approach significance, \( p = .087 \).

The fourth hypothesis involved replication of previous research (Vondracek & Lerner, 1982) where girls living with biological parents reported higher levels of intrinsic work values than boys living with biological parents. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on each of the intrinsic work values (means and standard deviations are reported in Table 2) and only one significant difference was found. For management, boys reported higher scores than girls, \( F(1,33) = 9.03, p = .005 \).

The fourth hypothesis also predicted that boys living in mother/stepfather families would report higher levels of intrinsic work values than girls in mother/stepfather families. In addition, it was predicted that girls would report more intrinsic work values than boys in mother-head households. These hypotheses could not be tested because of the lack of male subjects in these family structures.
CHAPTER IV
DISCUSSION

In this research, the outcomes were not as predicted. Neither family structure nor gender were related to career identity. With one exception, adolescents living with their biological parents did not report higher levels of career maturity or intrinsic work values. Further, girls living with biological parents did not demonstrate higher levels of career maturity or intrinsic work values than boys living with biological parents.

It was predicted that adolescents living with biological parents would report higher levels of intrinsic work values on a number of the six scales (Achievement, Altruism, Creativity, Esthetics, Intellectual Stimulation, and Management). This was not supported. Little can be said about finding differences on only the Intellectual Stimulation scale, where adolescents who lived with biological/adoptive parents place a higher value on this construct.

Contrary to prediction, girls living with biological parents did not report higher levels of career maturity or intrinsic work values than boys in these families. The only significant difference between male and female scores was on the intrinsic Management scale where boys scored higher than girls. This is similar to the normative sample for this measure, where boys had higher scores than girls. The males in the present study, however, scored significantly higher than the standardized sample. Considering that the majority of subjects in this
study were from the upper three SES categories, it is probable that a number of their parents were employed in managerial positions. The adolescents' personal knowledge of this aspect of work may have contributed to their valuing it highly. However, it is difficult to explain why this was true for males and not for females.

In further understanding the lack of significant findings, consideration of the sample of subjects may be helpful. The subjects consisted of 58 students out of a pool of 600 who volunteered to participate. They received one benefit from participation -- feedback on their scores on the Work Values Inventory. It may be that using this as an enticement created a preselection process where subjects who were already engaged in some degree of career planning were the ones motivated to participate.

Further, the subjects in this study were not representative of the population, most specifically in SES and the diversity of family structure. The SES of the subjects was not representative, in that all but three subjects fell in the upper three levels of Hollingshead's five levels of social strata. Over half of the subjects were in the two highest levels of social strata. None were in the lowest level.

Further, the mother heads of household had a mean SES which was equivalent to families with both biological parents and to stepfamilies. Research has found that families with both biological parents generally report higher incomes than single-parent families (Zill, 1994). In addition, as reported earlier, in the general population one of two single mothers is living below the poverty line. However, in the
present study, six of the eight subjects in mother-head families were in homes that met the criteria for the two highest levels of social strata. Clearly, this sample was not representative of the population of mother heads of household.

Research has also found that stepfamilies report lower incomes than biological families (Zill, 1994). Thomson (1994) reports that noticeable differences exist between families with both biological parents and stepfamilies, with stepfamilies less economically secure. The SES for parents from stepfamilies in this study was equivalent to the SES of families with both biological parents. Once again, the subjects from this study were not representative of their population.

It would appear that the subjects in this study were a select group of students. The SES for all groups, mother-head, stepfamilies and biological families, was equivalent. Particularly in groups such as the mother head of household, the subjects most likely represent a minority of the population.

It appears that through the selection process, the SES of the subjects was controlled. Demo and Acock (1988) report that when social class is controlled, children in female-headed families fare no worse than children from two-parent families on measures of intelligence. Barber and Eccles (1992) report differences between children in single-mother households and those in dual-parent households frequently disappear or become negligible when income is controlled in analyses. Gecas and Seff (1990) conclude that poverty, more than family structure, detrimentally effects children. Given the lack of differences on
intrinsic work values and career maturity and the equivalent SES of the subjects, this research supports their conclusions.

It is interesting to speculate why there were no males living in mother-head households who volunteered for this study. This group was specifically of interest because males in female-headed households have been found to have higher levels of conflict with their mothers. This group was predicted to have lower levels of career maturity and intrinsic work values. Because both the student and parent had to agree to participation, it is possible that these males either were not interested in the issues of career development addressed by the study or were not willing to discuss the study with their mothers. In any case, it may be that with a more normally distributed sample the differences between family structures would have been evident.

In addition to finding no significant differences between family structures, no significant differences were found between males and females. It is possible, as mentioned earlier, that subjects were motivated by receiving the scores on the Work Values Inventory and may have been at similar stages of career development. Another explanation may be that in our changing society, males and females are having more similar experiences, and thus, their levels of work values and career development become more similar. Florentine (1988) reports from his survey of college freshmen from 350 schools that nearly half of those aspiring to advanced degrees are women and finds similar increases in women aspiring to high-status professional and executive occupations. Traditionally women's career paths led into intrinsically rewarding
professions, e.g. teaching, nursing, and social services. Today the opportunities for women rival the opportunities for men, and it is possible that today's females are motivated by very similar values.

Interpretation of this research needs to be done cautiously because of the small number of subjects. In addition, the sample of subjects was a very select group of students living in middle to upper SES families. These students may have chosen to participate because of their current stage of career development. However, the lack of significant findings provides support for the theory that the effects of poverty influence outcomes for children of divorce and remarriage more than does family structure.

Further research should include a more representative sample of the populations of single-parent and stepfamilies, including high school dropouts and adolescents who frequently skip school. Gender differences as related to family structure still need to be studied, because this research could not address these issues. Research that considers the role of SES in the development of children and adolescents needs to continue. Finally, research that focuses on issues of career identity, career maturity, and work values also needs to continue.
APPENDIX A

Consent Form and Demographics Questionnaire
Dear Parents and 11th Grade Students:

I am a graduate student at the University of Dayton majoring in Clinical Psychology. My masters thesis involves adolescent career development and desired work benefits as they relate to family constellation. This research is being supervised by Dr. Judith Allik of the Psychology Department.

Career development is a major task of adolescence. It is a time when adolescents develop an image of themselves in the world of work. Enhancing this development by helping adolescents identify their interests and desired outcomes is a part of career counseling. With this research, I hope to expand the available knowledge for career counselors regarding 11th graders.

What does participation involve? If a parent provides written consent below and the student agrees to participate, during two hours of school time, the 11th grader will complete two surveys that deal with career development and desired work outcomes. In addition, a parent with whom the student lives must complete a one-page general questionnaire about your family constellation. Parents or students can withdraw from the study at any time with no consequences. This study is strictly voluntary.

The information you provide will be held in confidence. Each student's career development and desired work outcomes information will be combined with the information from the other 11th graders and provided to the school as general statistics. No individual information will be provided to the school. The individual results from the desired work outcomes questionnaire will be given to each participating student with a written description of the results. Students may, at their discretion, share these results with their school guidance counselor.

If you and your child agree to participate in this research, please complete the attached consent form and the family constellation questionnaire on page 2. Please have your child return the entire letter, in the enclosed envelope, to his or her teacher by September 13, 1995. It is important that page 2 be completed by a parent. If you have any questions, you can reach me at (513) 885-2861 or Dr. Judith Allik at (513) 229-2716.

Thank you,

Melanie Gallimore, B.S., LSW

Judith Allik, Ph.D.
I give my permission for my child to participate in the study.

Parent's signature ________________________________________________ Date

I agree to participate

Student's signature ________________________________________________ Date

Please complete the following information.

YOUR CHILD'S NAME ___________________________________________

BIRTHDAY OF YOUR CHILD ___________________ (including year)

GENDER OF YOUR CHILD _ male _ female

RACE OF YOUR CHILD __ African-American __ Caucasian __ Hispanic

__ Asian __ other

COMPOSITION OF CURRENT HOUSEHOLD - Please put a check mark next to those who currently live in the home with your child and provide the additional information. For the occupation, please look at the occupations listed on the back of this page, find the number which corresponds with the relevant occupational category, and place the number on the line underneath the column headed occupational level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF YEARS IN HOUSEHOLD</th>
<th>NUMBER OF YEARS OF EDUCATION</th>
<th>OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL (see back of this page)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biological mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoptive or foster mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoptive or foster father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stepmother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stepfather</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HOW MANY YEARS HAS YOUR CHILD LIVED WITH THE CURRENT FAMILY COMPOSITION?

IF YOURS IS A SINGLE-PARENT HOUSEHOLD, FOR HOW MANY YEARS HAS YOUR CHILD BEEN LIVING WITH YOU AS THE SINGLE PARENT?

IF YOUR CHILD RECEIVES FINANCIAL SUPPORT FROM HIS OR HER OTHER PARENT, INDICATE THE FOLLOWING FOR THAT PARENT:

number of years of education _____ occupational level _____
### Occupational Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Category Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Higher executives, proprietors of businesses and farm owners of farms valued at $650,000 or more, and major professionals (examples: presidents, vice-presidents, state officials, mayors, dentists, judges, lawyers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Administrators, lesser professionals, proprietors of businesses and farm owners of farms valued at $300,000-650,000 (examples: accountants, chiropractors, computer specialists, industrial engineers, registered nurses, pharmacists, pilots, and teachers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Business owners of businesses and farm owners of farms valued at $200,000-300,000, managers, minor professionals (examples: radio/television announcers, artists, buyers, computer programmers, insurance agents, painters, public relations persons, real estate brokers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Technicians, semiprofessionals, business owners of businesses and farm owners of farms valued at $100,000-200,000 (examples: draftsman, dental hygienists, foremen, inspectors, payroll clerks, photographers, sales managers, secretaries, technicians, tool programmers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Clerical and sales workers, business owners of businesses and farm owners of farms valued at $50,000-100,000 (examples: bank tellers, bookkeepers, cashiers, collectors, key punch operators, telephone operators)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Smaller business owners and tenant farmers, skilled manual works, craftsmen (examples: bakers, boilermakers, brakemen, carpenters, carpet installers, shipping and receiving clerks, decorators, electricians, machinists, service store managers, job and diesetters, mechanics, plumbers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Machine operators and semiskilled workers (examples: bus drivers, child care workers, deliverymen, drill press operatives, file clerks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Unskilled workers (examples: bartenders, busboys, garbage collectors, waiters)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Farm laborers/ menial service workers (examples: cleaners, dishwashers, janitors, maids, newsboys)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

Career Planning Questionnaire
CAREER PLANNING QUESTIONNAIRE

This is not an ability test. It is a questionnaire about your own career and education plans, your career activities, and your career decisions. Please try to respond to all the items.

DO NOT MAKE ANY MARKS IN THIS BOOKLET.
PART 1
CAREER DECISIONS

Directions: On this page is a list of statements about your career and education decisions. Read each statement. If you agree or mostly agree with the statement, use your pencil to blacken the circle marked with an T for True. If you disagree or mostly disagree with the statement, blacken the circle marked with a F for False.

1. I have decided how I can finance my education after high school.
2. I have not yet decided when I would like to be living on my own.
3. I have not yet decided if I want to go to a college or a technical institute after high school.
4. I have not yet decided where I am going to work.
5. I have no idea when I will get married.
6. I have not yet decided whether or not to become involved in the armed forces.
7. I have not decided when I will go to work full-time.
8. I have not decided where I would like to go to work.
9. I have not yet decided what I want to major in.
10. I am not sure if I should work and go to school at the same time.
11. I have not yet decided whether to go to work full-time or get further education after high school.
12. I have not yet decided what specific job I would like to have.
13. I am not sure if I want to work mostly with people or with things.
14. I have decided what I am going to do with my life and my decision will be the same next year.
15. I have made practically no decision about my future.
16. I have made most of the necessary decisions about my future.
17. I haven't decided what my elective courses will be next year.
18. I would describe my career plans as "uncertain" at this time.
19. I would describe my career plans as "very uncertain" at this time.
20. I have made a decision about the general area that I want to work in the rest of my life.
PART 2
CAREER ACTIVITIES

Directions: Below is a list of statements about different activities you might have done. Read each statement. If you have done that activity, blacken the circle marked with an T for True. If you have not done the activity, blacken the circle marked with a F for False. Mark true or T only if you have actually done that activity.

21. I have taken part in a job interview.
22. I have taken a course which is helping me to learn about the world of work.
23. I have attended a "job fair" or "career day" where workers or employers talk about jobs.
24. I have spent a lot of time thinking about the steps that are necessary for me to reach my career goals.
25. I have spent a lot of time trying to figure out what I want in a job.
26. I have done some reading and/or study about the ways that people advance in the occupation I am considering.
27. I have read something about the cost of getting trained for a career that I am interested in.
28. I have looked into the educational requirements of an occupation that I am interested in.
29. I have taken a close look at my past performance in school courses, extracurricular activities, etc., to understand what my abilities are.
30. I have done several things which have helped me figure out my educational and career plans.
31. I have talked to a guidance counselor about the connection between my interests and occupations.
32. I have talked to a guidance counselor about the occupations that are appropriate for my abilities.
33. I have taken a test to measure my vocational abilities.
34. I have talked to friends or adult acquaintances to see if they think I have the abilities that I think I have.
35. I have observed workers in the occupation I may enter.
36. I have read brochures about the jobs in industries to obtain information about occupations.
37. I have used the Occupational Outlook Handbook to get information about occupations.
38. I have examined why I want to enter a particular occupation.
39. I have figured out how I will pay for the cost of preparing for an occupation.
40. I have read something about the abilities required in my preferred occupation.
PART 3
SELF-KNOWLEDGE

Directions: How much do you know about yourself and about occupations? We would like for you to estimate how much you know. Read each statement. If you agree with the statement, mark T for True. If you disagree with the statement, mark F for false.

41. I know which jobs I would enjoy the most as far as a career is concerned.
42. I know a lot about apprenticeship and other job training programs which I can attend.
43. I have a great deal of information about the course offerings in a college that I may attend.
44. At this time, I do not know of any occupation that I can be successful in.
45. I can name three places where I can get a job when I finish my education.
46. I am not sure what all I should know about myself before I choose my school courses.
47. I know exactly how to predict my chances of success in different courses for next year.
48. I am not exactly sure about the steps to follow in making career decisions.
49. I know exactly how much education is required for an occupation that I may enter.
50. I can describe the connection between the subjects I am taking this year and the work I will do later on.
51. I am not sure how my parents feel about my career plans.
52. I am not sure what plan I should follow in getting into an occupation for me.
53. I know where to go to find out what jobs are available in different fields of work.
54. I am not sure where I can get a job when I finish my education.
55. I know exactly what I want to get out of life, what would make me happy and satisfied.
56. I have a great deal of knowledge of the working conditions in a job I would like to have.
57. I have hardly any knowledge about my chances of advancing in an occupation I may enter.
58. I know exactly what I have to do to get ahead in a career.
59. I know which extracurricular activities will help me in my future occupation.
60. I know which school courses will help me most in my future occupation.
Directions: The statements on this page are about concerns that students have about their career. Read each statement. If you agree with the statement, mark T for True. If you disagree with the statement, mark F for False.

61. I have too many interests at this point to choose just one job.
62. I don't know what you have to do to get into a job.
63. There are so many job choices that I am confused.
64. I can't fit my interests and values into one specific job.
65. I am not sure that I'd be successful in today's world.
66. I'm not sure I want to spend so many years in school after high school.
67. I don't know what courses to take to get into my preferred job.
68. I am not sure that I can afford to get the education required in my career.
69. I don't know much about the requirements for getting the job I have thought about.
70. I am concerned if there will be a need for my career in the future.
71. I need to know more requirements about the job I have thought about.
72. I am not sure if I can get qualified for the careers I am interested in.
73. I am not sure if I would like my job once I get started.
74. My problem is that after studying for my job choice I don't know what to do.
75. I am not sure if I am headed in the right direction.
76. I just don't know what to do about my future career.
77. I don't know what I am capable of doing.
78. I don't really know what to take in school.
79. I don't know what I'd be good at.
80. I don't have enough information about how much money is made in the job I like.
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<th>PART 1</th>
<th>PART 2</th>
<th>PART 3</th>
<th>PART 4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAREER DECISIONS</td>
<td>CAREER ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>SELF-KNOWLEDGE</td>
<td>CAREER CONCERNS</td>
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<td>2.</td>
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APPENDIX C

Post-test Information
Dear Students:

Thank you very much for participating in this research project. I recognize that completing the questionnaires was time-consuming, but the information you were able to provide was a tremendous help. Your participation has made it possible for us to obtain a better understanding of the way adolescents think about career plans and make decisions.

The findings from your questionnaire on desired work outcomes are reported on the next page. There were 15 work outcomes included on the questionnaire and they are listed with a brief description. You rated each of these outcomes according to their importance. I have marked on the lines your three most highly valued outcomes by a "1, 2, 3" (1 the most highly valued outcome, then 2, then 3). Also marked are the three least valued work outcomes identified by a "15, 14, 13" (15 being the least valued outcome, 14 the next least valued, and 13).

If you wish more information about the findings, please contact your school guidance office. Once again, I would like to thank you for your time and effort. The information you shared has been invaluable and your time and effort was greatly appreciated.

Thank you,

Melanie Gallimore, B.S., LSW
Judith Allik, Ph.D.
SCORES ON THE DESIRED WORK OUTCOMES

Altruism: Refers to "work which enables one to contribute to the welfare of others." Altruism assesses social service values and interests. Girls tend to make somewhat higher scores than do boys, but both sexes show a decline with age during adolescence. Men in social service occupations, such as Peace Corps, teachers and school counselors, make high scores on this scale, higher than do most men and women.

Esthetic: Refers to "work which permits one to make beautiful things and to contribute beauty to the world." Esthetic values are related to similarly named traits such as artistic interests. The average preference for people in the general population and for most occupational groups is low, other values tending to be stressed more. Higher than average preferences characterize Peace Corps teachers (but not school counselors), and workers such as office clerks tend to make higher scores than do technicians such as body and fender men.

Creativity: Refers to "work which permits one to invent new things, design new products, or develop new ideas." Creativity is related to artistic and scientific interests. It is a value associated with non-material aspects of culture, found particularly in Peace Corps teachers, electronics technicians, and other somewhat self-expressive as contrasted with time-serving occupations.

Intellectual Stimulation: Refers to "work which provides opportunity for independent thinking and for learning how and why things work." Intellectual stimulation appears to assess a quality which characterizes people with professional and scientific interests of an abstract type, a liking for using one's intellectual abilities and for exercising one's judgment. It appears to be somewhat related to planfulness but not to educational achievement as reflected in grades. Peace Corps teachers tend to make high scores on this scale, while police and fire applicants score low. What clerical workers consider "mentally challenging" is not, obviously, what scientists so consider.

Achievement: Refers to "work which gives one a feeling of accomplishment in doing a job well." Achievement appears to assess a task orientation, a liking for work with visible, tangible, results. Most people in the USA and both clerks and engineers give achievement a relatively high place in their value hierarchy. It is not related to grades or to participating in extracurricular activities. Professional men, clerical workers, and men in technical fields tend to make relatively high scores on achievement.

Independence: Refers to "work which permits one to work in his or her own way, as fast or as slowly as he or she wishes." Independence seems to reflect a pleasure orientation, more characteristic of males than of females, of low than of high level occupations, although in India engineers tend to value it more than do office clerks. Office machine repairmen, electronic technicians, and business students score relatively high on independence values.

Prestige: Refers to "work which gives one standing in the eyes of others and evokes respect." Prestige taps a desire for the respect of others rather than for status or for power. It is related to interest in business contact occupations. Most people attach considerable importance to this value. Police and fire candidates and school counselors engaged in professional improvement made particularly high scores.

Management: Refers to "work which permits one to plan and lay out work for others to do." Management values characterize business students, people interested in contact occupations, and persons in occupations requiring that they plan their own work even if not that of others; they are not rated high by counselors and teachers.
Economic Returns: Refers to "work which pays well and enables one to have the things he wants." Economic Returns represent a type of value often referred to as materialistic, the attaching of importance to tangibles, top earnings. Boys and men make higher scores on this scale than do girls and women. Most persons, except Peace Corps teachers, score fairly high; middle management workers make higher scores than skilled and semi-skilled workers.

Security: Refers to "work which provides one with the certainty of having a job even in hard times." Security is somewhat related to Economic Returns, as is to be expected in the case of a second kind of material value. It reflects, too, a degree of interest in getting the rewards of work. It is stressed less than most values by most occupational groups, but boys and girls who are still in school, and semi-skilled factory workers, assign it more importance than do others, perhaps because they feel its lack more acutely.

Surroundings: Refers to "work which is carried out under pleasant conditions - not too hot or too cold, noisy, dirty, etc." Surroundings, the material environment in which the work is done, tend to be important to people with interests which are not specifically in the work itself, but in its concomitant. Secretaries tend to attach more importance to these values than do most occupational groups, Peace Corps teachers less.

Supervisory Relations: Refers to "work which is carried out under a supervisor who is fair and with whom one can get along." Supervisory Relations denote the attaching of importance to getting along with the boss, as in cases with extreme scores. Most groups so far studied attach little importance to this type of value, although data on a larger number of semi-skilled workers might suggest otherwise, as studies show they do for police and firemen.

Associates: Refers to "work which brings one into contact with fellow workers whom he or she likes." Associates, the people with whom one works, are considered important by office workers, and by people in lower-level skilled occupations, more than by those in more demanding fields. It has been shown in many studies that for the semi-skilled the social life of the job is more important than the nature of the work itself.

Way of Life: Refers to work that "permits one to live the kind of life he chooses and to be the type of person he or she wishes to be." Way of Life assesses a value which does not seem to be highly developed in young people, and the concept is one which has little meaning to the less mature and to people at low socioeconomic levels. High school boys and girls attach a moderate degree of importance to this value, which is associated with participation in school and community activities and with peer acceptance. Peace Corps teachers attach special importance to it, as do school counselors and students of broadcasting.

Variety: Refers to "work that provides an opportunity to do different types of jobs." Variety, which appears, like the last four values, to reflect a pleasure rather than a task orientation, is a value which generally receives a relatively low place in the hierarchy of those so far tested. It is noteworthy, however, that in some groups such as Peace Corps teachers it ranks relatively high. It seems that in the case of these young people interested in serving others in unusual ways and places, variety is associated with intellectual stimulation, esthetics, and creative values in an unusual combination, rather than with supervisory relations and associates.


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