IDENTIFYING CAREER ORIENTATIONS OF FEMALE, NON-MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES AT VIRGINIA TECH

by

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to examine the career orientations of women employed at lower levels of an organizational hierarchy in occupations not usually considered professions. Career orientations are constructs for those values, attitudes and motivations inside the person which develop through accumulated work experience, and which serve to guide, constrain, stabilize and integrate the person's career. According to the career anchor/career orientation model of adult career development, an individual's career orientation greatly affects the career decisions that person makes. Individuals' career orientations have been hypothesized to influence their willingness to participate in specific career development activities.

The sample for this study was 156 women employed at Virginia Tech who had participated in the University's Employee Career Development Program between 1980 and 1988. Career orientations of these women were identified using Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. The women also completed a survey which provided demographic

information and required them to rank specific career development activities according to their personal preferences. Selected women from each career orientation identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were interviewed and questioned about their values, attitudes and motivations toward work.

Inferential statistics were used to determine that the career orientations Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire identified these women as having, were not differentiated by their: (a) ages; (b) years in the paid work force; (c) education levels; or (d) occupations. Nor did career orientations identified for these women by Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire differentiate their preferences for specific career development activities. Structured interviews with selected women having different high intensity career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire did not indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work. Structured interviews with these women indicated they may have career orientations other than those identified by the Career Success Map Questionnaire. It was hypothesized some of these career orientations might include:

(a) a family orientation; (b) a service orientation;

(c) a variety orientation; (d) a creative orientation;

(e) a technical competence orientation; and

(f) a social/religious orientation.

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Grateful acknowledgement is also made to my family who have unconditionally supported my educational endeavors.

"But it is obvious that the values of women differ very often from the values which have been made by the other sex; naturally, this is so."

Virginia Woolf, 1929, p. 76.
(reprint 1981, p. 73.)

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INTRODUCTION

Changing Work Values in America

Dramatic changes have occurred in the American work force during the past twenty years. More workers than ever before are employed in professional, technical and service occupations. Increasing numbers of workers are women, minorities, or handicapped. Many workers are either single parents or are partners in a dual career marriage. There are more part-time workers and more job changers. Changes in the work force have not been limited to the kinds of work done and the composition of the work force, but have also included the attitudes, values and motivations workers bring to work. These changes have affected the ways work is accomplished and the ways organizations treat the people that work for them.

More and more American workers are demanding opportunities to gain satisfaction from work and to realize personal definitions of being a success at work. Tarnowieski (1973) discussed the shift in the definition of success in America from an emphasis upon material acquisition to an emphasis upon personal values and fulfillment. Yankelovich (1979) coined the term "New Breed" to describe workers for whom the traditional pursuit of money, achievement and status no longer serves

as a driving force. "The 'New Breed' values are, in essence, an extension of individualism to the work place, where today's individualism can be defined as the quest for life-styles that suit each individual's unique needs, potentials, and values" (Yankelovich, 1979, p. 21).

The entrance of women in increasing numbers as permanent participants in the America work force since the 1960s has had impact on American work attitudes, values and motivation. Women workers appear to hold a very different view from men workers regarding the role work plays in their lives. A 1987 Gallup Career Development Survey (Gallup, 1987) questioned 735 adults employed either full or part time regarding the importance of work in relationship to other aspects of their lives. When asked to choose between "work" and "family or relationships to significant others," the latter was judged to be "most important," by approximately 75% of survey respondents. A greater percentage of females (81%) than males (69%) judged "family or relationships to significant others" to be "most important." Males rated "work" as "most important" more than twice as frequently as "leisure." Females also rated "work" as "most important" more frequently than "leisure", but not by a significant amount. This suggests women's values and

attitudes toward work differ from those of men. One reason for this, Hoyt (1988) suggested is that "many of the best jobs go to white males while minority persons and women are relegated to less challenging jobs that provide still less incentive to value 'work' in total lifestyle" (p. 15). Women workers' expectations and desires regarding their work may are thus likely to be different from those of male workers.

Changes in worker attitudes, values and motivations and have created new challenges for professionals interested in the career development of adults (particularly the career development of women and minorities), and for those responsible for organizational human resource management. Applegath (1982) noted that people in the 1980s are willing to depart from traditional jobs in search of work which will allow them to express other values such as: personal autonomy, flexibility, challenge, creativity, and personal growth. D. T. Hall (1976) suggested such individuals have self-directed protean careers in which the unifying or integrative elements are the search for self-fulfillment and personal career choices. Adults with personalized or actualized definitions of success: tend to seek personal fulfillment or meaning in their work; have greater loyalty to inner goals and rewards than corporate objectives; desire

greater freedom of choice in their work situations; and are willing to change or explore alternative employment should such be lacking (Sinetar, 1988). Yankelovich (1988) has proposed that a new kind of work ethic exists:

> . . . the new kind of work ethic stresses skill, challenge, autonomy, recognition, and the quality of work produced, because the product of an individual's work is an intimate expression of the self. Moreover, autonomy on the job is valued as much as income, and in many instances, even more highly valued (p. 58.)

For career counselors, changing attitudes, values and motivations toward work poses the challenge of helping workers clarify those attitudes, values and motivations toward work which formulate their personal meanings of success at work throughout their careers. For human resource managers this poses the challenge of providing new work opportunities and rewards so workers can realize their personal definitions of success at work while achieving business objectives.

The Career Anchor/Career Orientation Model

The career anchor model of adult career development addresses how career choices people make are influenced by their search for personal meaning and fulfillment.

> Certain motivational/attitudinal/value syndromes formed early in the lives of individuals apparently function to guide and constrain their entire careers. These basic combinations of needs and drives act, in effect, as "career anchors" that not only influence career choices, but also effect decisions to move from one company to another, shape what the individuals are looking for in life, and color their views of the future and their general assessments of related goals and objectives (Schein, 1975, p. 11).

In his original study, Schein (1975, 1978) identified five career anchors: (a) managerial--associated with desire to advance up the organizational hierarchy; (b) autonomy--associated with desire for freedom from work constraints and restrictiveness; (c) security--associated with desire for security either by remaining within a single organization or at a specific geographic location; (d) technical/functional competence--associated with desire to master skills and achieve expertise in a specialized area of knowledge; and (e) entrepreneurial creativity--associated with desire to build and be personally identified with the creation of a product, service, or business organization. He hypothesized other

career anchors might exist such as: (a) organizational identity--associated with the status and prestige of belonging to a socially respected organization; (b) service--associated with desire to help others; and (c) variety--associated with a desire for change and different challenges.

Career anchors are made up of the individual's self-perceived needs, values and talents. DeLong (1982a, 1982b) proposed the term, "career orientation" to describe the values, attitudes, and career needs which make up the central part of the definition of career anchors. Derr (1986) used the career anchor concept to address adults' career orientations which he described as internal maps which guide adults to their personal definitions of career success.

Counselors addressing career development issues of adults might find identification of career anchors or career orientations useful in helping adults to: better understand self; clarify the personal meaning of success; provide a basis for choosing among a variety of job and work settings; and provide insight into personal organization of life and work experiences. Human resource managers might find identification of career anchors or career orientations useful to match employees

with appropriate work opportunities and rewards (Derr, 1980).

Previous research has examined the career anchors or career orientations of adults employed in various occupations. Much research on career anchors or career orientations has focused on men employed either as managers or in professional occupations.

Schein developed the career anchor model based on a longitudinal study of 44 alumni of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) (Schein, 1975, 1978, 1982, 1987). Hopkins (1976) examined the career anchors of 20 male senior executives in attendance at the MIT Sloan School Senior Executive Program. Hall and Thomas (1979) described the impact of career anchors on the organizational development of 28 male program managers in the aerospace industry. Anderson and Sommer (1980) examined the development of the career anchors of 40 male Sloan Fellows five to ten years after their graduation. Derr (1977, 1980) identified career anchors in 154 male U.S. Naval officers. DeLong (1982a, 1982b) identified Schein's five basic career anchors plus three additional career orientations (service, identity, and variety) in a sample of 320 males who graduated between 1963 and 1973 from the School of Industrial Administration at Purdue University.

Four career anchor studies have focused exclusively on women: Huser (1980) examined the career anchors of 20 female executives having master's of business administration degrees. Grzywacs (1982) studied the development of the career anchors of 20 female Sloan School graduates five or more years after their graduation. Janes' (1982) study of career anchors focused on 20 mid-level managers and career professional women from industry, government and academe who were at least five years but not more than twenty years into their careers. Kanto (1982) examined the career anchors of 20 female bank officers at least five years into their careers who were in the top two levels of the Assistant Vice President title structure.

Other studies (Albertini, 1982; Applin, 1982; Burnstine, 1982; Crowson, 1982; Heller, 1982; Liebesny, 1980; Senior, 1982) of career anchors have been based upon samples which included both men and women. Regarding differences in the career anchors of men and women, Schein (1987) noted:

> The men and women differ in some important ways. Alumnae are spread over more categories; more of them are harder to categorize into any one anchor group; more of them are managerially anchored; and noticeably fewer of them are

> technically/functionally anchored. It is not clear whether these differences are due to gender or to changes in social values, because the female samples were done more recently than some of the male ones (p. 160).

Other studies of career orientations based upon samples which included both men and women were done by DeLong (1984) and Wood, Winston and Polkosnik (1985). DeLong compared the career orientations of 530 elementary and secondary teachers in rural and urban areas of Utah. Wood et al. examined the career orientations of 65 master's degree graduates from four student personnel programs. No distinctions between the career orientations of men and women were made in these studies.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Being a worker is a major role in the life of many adults. All adults who work can be said to have a career. "The career represents an organized path taken by an individual across time and space" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 31).

> Typically, we have associated this concept of career with professions like law, medicine, teaching, government service, engineering, and architecture. But the concept is just as applicable to other kinds of occupations, even

> occupations considered to have low prestige. For instance, although one cannot define very many career steps involved in occupations like automobile factory worker or secretary or plumber, there is nevertheless some horizontal progression. This may be in terms of rewards such as higher pay through the years, greater job security, cleaner and less physically demanding work, and honors for length of service or high priority work (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 47).

Persons employed in occupations not usually considered professions have various values, attitudes and motivations toward their work and toward their careers. That the career anchor concept can be applied to persons employed in occupations not usually considered professions was demonstrated by Van Maanen's analysis of the career anchors of policemen (Schein, 1978). The studies of career anchors/career orientations reported above have all focused on men and women employed as managers or in occupations usually designated as professions, such as: medicine, engineering, teaching and student personnel. No studies have been found that examine the career anchors or career orientations of women employed in occupations not usually considered professions.

Since the 1960s increasing numbers of women have become permanent participants in the American work force. While women make up almost half (43%) of the American work force (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 1988a), they are concentrated in occupations not usually considered to be professions. For example, eighty percent of administrative support jobs are filled by women. Women make up: 99% of secretaries; 95% of typists and word processing personnel; 92% personnel clerks; 92% of bookkeeping, accounting and auditing clerks; 80% of general office clerks; and 69% of computer operators; (BLS, 1988b).

These administrative support occupations are vital to both business and academic organizations. Typically, an organization will have greater numbers of positions in these occupations, at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, than positions in managerial or professional occupations at higher levels of the organizational hierarchy. Currently, high percentages of these lower level positions are filled by women workers.

These administrative support occupations are among those with the largest number of yearly job openings, however, a greater percentage of these openings is due to turnover rather than growth. Women holding positions in these support occupations may not value work as the most

important aspect in their lives. The values and attitudes which these women have toward their work are likely to be other than those associated with the traditional success formula for getting ahead, that is, advancing up the organizational hierarchy to achieve success in terms of prestige, status and high income. These women may desire employment which will allow them to find personal fulfillment in their work and express other values such as personal autonomy, freedom of choice, and flexibility. They may readily change in employment if placed in a work situation which does not offer opportunities to fulfill their personal definitions of being a success at work. The problem is to identify the career orientations of women employed at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in administrative support and technical occupations to determine if they are anchored in work values other than those associated with the traditional pursuit of success.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Secretaries, word processing personnel, accounting and auditing clerks, computer operators and laboratory technicians are employed in support occupations which comprise many lower level positions in most organizational hierarchies. These occupations are among those with the largest number of yearly job openings, not only due to

growth, but due to turnover of employees in these lower level positions. Such turnover results in substantial costs to the organization in the hiring and training of new employees. It is thus in the interest of the organization to strive to retain good employees in these lower level positions. To reduce turnover, some organizations have initiated organizational employee career development programs for their employees.

That organizationally sponsored employee career development programs are considered beneficial for working adults is evinced by the National Career Development Association (NCDA, 1988) recommendation that "businesses should accelerate the development and improvement of career development programs that allow employees to seek new career options within the company. They should also accentuate their efforts to alleviate job stress and enhance life role relationships" (p. 8). However, as Cairo (1986) has pointed out, these programs often fail to recognize the diverse career development problems and needs of adults.

The effectiveness of organizational employee career development programs is greatly dependent upon employees' perceptions of these programs as being relevant to their personal career goals (D. T. Hall, 1986; Merman & Leibowitz, 1987; Portwood & Granrose, 1986). If

organizations are to offer effective organizational employee career development programs which address the needs of women working at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in occupations not usually considered professions, the work values, attitudes, and motivations of these women must be better understood.

This study will examine the work values, attitudes, and motivations of women working at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Virginia Tech), a major state university. These women are employed in occupations not usually considered professions, such as secretary, word processing personnel, accounting and auditing clerk, computer operator, and laboratory technician. These women are employed at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy, levels which do not have policy making or managerial decision making powers.

This study will describe the attitudes, values and motivations toward work held by women employed at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in occupations not usually considered professions. The career orientations of these women will be identified. Their preferences for specific career development activities which are frequently offered in organizational employee career development programs will be determined. This study will

contribute information on the career orientations of women employed in occupations not usually considered professions and will consider how organizational employee career development programs can be better designed to meet their needs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions will be considered in this study:

1.) Are women's career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire independent of their occupations?

2.) Are there significant differences in women's ages, education levels, or length of time in paid employment among the different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

3.) Do women's preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities differ significantly among the different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

4.) Do structured interviews with selected women who have different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work?

5.) Do structured interviews with selected women suggest they may have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire?

ASSUMPTIONS

1.) This study assumes that the career anchor/career orientation model of adult career development can be applied to female employees working at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy of a major state university in occupations not usually considered professions.

2.) This study assumes that Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire is an appropriate assessment instrument to identify the career orientations of female employees working at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy of a major state university in occupations not usually considered professions.

3.) This study assumes that subjects will conscientiously complete the assessment instrument and will provide honest responses to interview questions requiring self-examination.

LIMITATIONS

1.) The population for this study will be female employees at Virginia Tech who have participated in the university sponsored Employee Career Development Program. Employees are engaged in the following occupations: secretary; computer operator; laboratory technician; and accounting/auditing clerk.

2.) Employee participation will be voluntary.

3.) This study will examine employees' stated preferences for specific career development activities solely in relation to their career anchors as identified by Derr's (1986) Career success Map Questionnaire and by structured interview responses.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study will contribute insight into the career orientations of women working in lower level, non-managerial positions in administrative support, accounting/auditing, computer, and technical occupations. Exploration of career orientations of women will help career counselors better understand the work attitudes, values, and motivations which formulate the personal definitions of success at work for women employed in non-managerial positions. Better understanding of the needs, attitudes and values women bring to their work should aid human resource managers in providing suitable work

challenges and rewards to motivate and retain female employees in support occupations. Better understanding of what women working in lower level, non-managerial positions want from their work should aid both career counselors and human resource managers in planning appropriate organizational employee career development programs which will be accepted by and be beneficial to these women.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Career - Norris, Hatch, Engelkes, and Winborn (1985) noted:

> In all probability the most distinct variation in the terminology used by students of career development is that of the meaning of the term career. The tendency to refer to one's work as one's career is prevalent in lay usage and in many segments of the profession. At the other end of the continuum the word career is used to describe the total composite of one's activities throughout life (p. 6).

Van Maanen and Schein (1977) considered "the career [as] represent[ing] an organized path taken by an individual across time and space" (p. 31). Derr (1980) elaborated on these notions of a career as both encompassing an individual's activities throughout life and as being

ordered, in his definition of a career as "a sequence of work-related experiences that comprise a work history and reflect a chosen work-related life theme" (p. 65). D. T. Hall (1976) uses the term protean career to define self-directed processes of individuals who have taken charge of their own careers and to whom personal criteria of performance and personal attitudes, identity and adaptability are most salient in their life management. This study will consider a career the methods or processes by which individuals seek to achieve self-established goals by integrating the concept of work into and across their lives.

Career anchor or career orientation - an occupational self-image developed through work experiences and based upon three components:

1.) self-perceived talents and abilities (based on actual success in a variety of work settings).

2.) self-perceived motives and needs (based on opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations or on feedback from others).

3). self-perceived attitudes and values (based on actual encounters between self and the norms and values of the employing organization and work setting (Schein, 1978, p. 125).

Career anchors are a construct for those attitudes, values and motivations inside the person which develop through accumulated work experience, and which serve to guide, constrain, stabilize, and integrate the person's career. The career anchor/career orientation concept explains a stabilizing part of the personality which can be described as that aspect of a person's self-concept which would not be given up when making a career choice. Hence the metaphor of an "anchor" reflecting the tendency of the person to pull back into the orientation and to seek change if placed in a position compromising to those components central to the person's self-concept. Career anchors/career orientations may be described as common themes of what people basically seek in their work, or as internal maps which guide people to their individualized meanings of success at work (Schein, 1975, 1978, 1982, 1987; Derr, 1977, 1980, 1986).

Career counseling - the process of working with individuals in examining personal factors affecting their careers, focusing on necessary information and exploring environmental possibilities (Smith & Karpati, 1985).

Career development - career development is a conscious effort to direct the relationship between the individual and work; Career development: a.) is a continuous process over the life span; and b.) involves both career choice

and career adjustment issues which involve both career content and process variables (Minor, 1986).

Non-managerial position - Any support position not having policy or managerial decision making powers, usually found in lower levels of the organizational hierarchy.

Organizational employee career development - "the combination of techniques used by an organization in attempting to achieve an optimal match of individuals with organizational needs and opportunities" (Merman & Leibowitz, 1986, p. 7).

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter Two presents a review of the literature pertinent to this study. Chapter Three contains the methodology, including a description of the subjects, data collection, procedures and data analysis. The results of the study based on the analysis of the data are reported in Chapter Four. Conclusions and recommendations for future research are discussed in Chapter Five.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review addresses four topics pertinent to the examination of career orientations of women in non-managerial positions and their preferences for organizational employee career development activities. The changing work attitudes and values and the changing meaning of being a success at work in America will be reviewed from a historical perspective. The career anchor/career orientation model of adult career development will be presented in terms of its origins, research and outcomes, and theoretical nature. The historical role of women as American workers will be reviewed as well as the current status of women workers and the rewards afforded them in modern organizations. Lastly, this review will consider the nature of organizational employee career development programs and the types of activities offered by such programs.

AMERICAN WORK VALUES AND ATTITUDES AND CHANGING DEFINITIONS OF BEING A SUCCESS AT WORK

Success in America: From Founding to Mid-Twentieth Century

The roots of the Protestant Work Ethic, which has had profound impact on the meaning of being a success at work in the United States of America, have been traced by Braude (1975), Kranzberg and Gies (1975), and Tilgher

(1977). The Protestant Work Ethic began in the sixteenth century when Martin Luther reconciled the conflict between spiritual and secular views of work. He endowed everyone's work with religious dignity by stating all work served God and all capable of work should work. Man's highest duty was his conscientious performance of work which was his path to individual salvation. Idleness was against God's natural order. Two branches of Protestantism, Calvinism and Puritanism, particularly influenced attitudes toward work and what it meant to be a success at work in early America.

The foundation for capitalism and the discipline required by modern business was laid by Calvinism. Work was the will of God for every man. Idleness was associated with actual evil. Man worked for God, both for his own salvation and as a partner in the on-going progress of creation. Methodical, disciplined, rational work was considered the means to establish God's kingdom on earth. Profit from an individual's labors was to be re-invested to promote this good work. Thus each man had a duty to seek the profession that would bring the greatest return to him and through him to society. Success at work was an indicator of one's election as God's chosen.

The Puritans, who would become the founding fathers of America, adopted and modified many of Calvin's notions. For the Puritans, faithfulness to a calling was a duty owed God. Practice of virtues such as honesty, thrift, industry, and diligence were rewarded by God providing a sufficiency on which to live. The pursuit of wealth above that sufficient for life was sanctioned because such fruitfulness was to be used to promote God's will on earth.

America has been called the Land of Opportunity, meaning the opportunity for anyone to achieve success. Over the course of its history, being a success at work has meant different things to the people of America. English influence and the Protestant Work Ethic shaped the American idea of success and has had lasting impact on what being a success at work in America has meant.

Burns (1976) wrote of the traditional idea of success in early America:

> Beginning with the Puritans and modified by the Enlightenment, success was most often associated with the figure of a middling income who worked his own fee-simple farm, the yeoman. This kind of success had three major elements: a competence, independence, and morality. In brief, these elements may be defined as wealth

> somewhat beyond one's basic needs, freedom from ecomonic or statutory subservience and the respect of the society for fruitful, honest industry (p. 1).

"Rags to riches" is the repeated theme of success stories Americans have loved. Benjamin Franklin, the epitome of the American success story, rose from humble origins, amassing a private fortune and becoming one of the most influential men of his time. Franklin founded the character ethic. According to the character ethic, success was within the grasp of the individual, who must exercise personal virtues such as industry, thrift, and frugality to gain wealth.

> Franklin became to the nineteenth century the great advocate of all the sober Protestant virtues, not for any spiritual ends, but in the interest of a blatant materialism, in and of itself. His rise from rags to riches became the American dream of Mammon. In the literature of McGuffey and Horatio Alger the formula was very simple: the "Franklinian" virtues equal business success equal happiness (J. H. Best, 1967, p. 17).

The popularity of Horatio Alger's novels in the nineteenth century were a testimony to the lasting

influence of the character ethic in America. Alger wrote over 100 novels based on the same formula: the protagonist, who had to earn his way, gained success through virtuous behavior. Honesty and willingness to work were the key elements to freedom from poverty and success at work.

During its first two hundred years, America was involved in a great industrial expansion. After the first hundred years of industrialization, the yeoman's dream of success had been entirely eroded and the meaning of being a success at work had changed for most Americans. Industrialization influenced and changed work: (a) by moving sites of consumption far from sites of production; (b) by introducing technology; (c) by breaking jobs down to the smallest task units, making the worker an anonymous entity, and thus removing responsibility for quality of work from the individual worker; (d) by paying workers in money for time spent on the job, thus rewarding workers for merely being present at work rather than for the quality of their work; and (e) by heightening the distinction between work and leisure (Levitan & Johnston, 1973).

When the yeoman became a wage earner, he gave up the notion of achieving a competency and independence inherent to the traditional dream of success. The emergent hero

was the technological entrepreneur who could reap vast profits from the growing ranks of wage earners--the capitalist par excellence.

The philanthropy of Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller, Sr. was in the best tradition of the character ethic's stewardship doctrine. However, both Carnegie and Rockefeller were true believers in Social Darwinism, which while not entirely eroding the values of the Protestant Work Ethic, gradually reformulated the American idea of success. Social Darwinism applied the notions of evolutionary theory to human society.

> The struggle for existence in plants and animals, as Darwin showed, brought evolutionary change, and this change was progressive, leading to a community formed of successful individuals. The environment was thus improved by struggle. Any interference by the state in social matters such as housing, poor laws, charity, factory acts, banking, education or the raising of tariffs, would make it easier for the non-competitive to flourish, to the detriment of the community (Burke, 1985, p. 269).

Thus the growth of a large business became merely the survival of the fittest and the millionaire became a product of natural selection. The influence of the

Protestant Work Ethic had not ended in that the virtues of the character ethic were attributed to those who had proved themselves most fit to survive by accruing wealth. Hofstadter (1955) has written on the philosophy of William Graham Sumner of Yale, one of the most influential Social Darwinists in America:

> Poverty belongs to the struggle for existence, and we are all born into that struggle. If poverty is ever to be abolished, it will be by a more energetic prosecution of the struggle, and not by social upheaval or paper plans for a new order. Human progress is at bottom moral progress, and moral progress is largely the accumulation of economic virtues. Let every man be sober, industrious, prudent, and wise, and bring up his children to be so likewise, and poverty will be abolished in a few generations (p. 61).

So "by the last third of the nineteenth century, the dominant concept of success was one of opulent materialism competitively won" (Burns, 1976, p. 167).

According to Huber (1971), the cultural definition of success in America "has meant making money and translating it into status, or becoming famous" (p. 1). Huber traced American ambivalence toward success through six dilemmas

posed in the history of being a success at work in America:

1.) The character ethic posed the dilemma of self-giving versus self-seeking--the question of is it possible to be a Christian and a Capitalist. The stewardship doctrine and the concept of success as community service popular in the 1920s were attempts to resolve this dilemma.

2.) The character ethic also raised the dilemma of material success versus "true success." This was an acknowledgement that the material success that was a reward for virtuous character could corrupt virtuous qualities. This dilemma distinguished success in money making from the happiness or peace of mind that should accompany possession of a noble character.

3.) The dilemma of hypocrisy versus sincerity arose with the personality ethic of the 1930s. This ethic, born of Dale Carnegie's (1936) How to Win Friends and Influence People, advocated the road to success was through use of psychological principles in human relationships to attain one's own ends. The personality ethic dominated the American scene until the 1950s largely due to corporate expansion and its impact on human relationships. The consequences of this ethic, which sanctioned the exploitation of human weaknesses, were,

paradoxically, not only alienation and estrangement from self and others, but also a greater tendency toward group mindedness and conformity.

4.) The nature of the American political system has posed the dilemma of freedom versus equality. This is the paradox of a system which has demanded both the right of equal opportunity and the right to unequal rewards be sustained.

5.) In a society where citizens vote in the marketplace the dilemma of freedom versus authority is raised. The criterion of market value as a measure of quality has yielded the materialism and anti-intellectualism associated with the American character.

6.) The conflict between individual and national growth is expressed in the dilemma of self-fulfillment versus national power, which was the central dilemma throughout the 1940s and 1950s. International involvement increased pressure on Americans to continue to produce to stay ahead as the leader of world freedom. The urge toward success was for national security. If the individual, disillusioned with the American dream of material success, slackened in competition, the loss would be paid for in American freedom and liberty. Again, the paradox existing in this notion of success was that

preservation of American ideals of freedom and liberty required sacrifice of individuality.

Whyte (1956) discussed this pressure toward conformity, posing the social ethic in The Organization Man:

> By the social ethic I mean that contemporary body of thought which makes morally legitimate the pressures of society against the individual. Its major propositions are three: a belief in the group as the source of creativity; a belief in "belongingness" as the ultimate need of the individual; and a belief in the application of science to achieve the belongingness (p. 7).

The ambition of the organization man of the 1950s was to achieve a plateau of security within the organization and the good life within suburbia. The plateau, however, was elusive, if not non-existent, while competition to get ahead within the organization was intense. The difficulty was in defining what was meant by getting ahead. "The figures of speech younger executives use to describe this situation... 'treadmill,' 'merry-go-round,' 'rat race,' ...convey an absence of tangible goals but plenty of activity to get there" (Whyte, 1956, p. 176).

The reward for getting ahead, also paradoxically, carried its own punishment--advancing up each level of the

organizational hierarchy required leaving the social group of each lower level behind. The price of the social ethic was both group mindedness and transience, with each social strata pressuring the individual to conform to the group, in social life, in possessions, and in the definition of the suburban good life. By the end of the happy days of the 1950s, a revolt was brewing in suburbia's little houses made of "ticky-tacky" (Seeger, 1964), fed on disenchantment with the rat race and materialism.

Success in America: The 1960s to Present

Yankelovich's (1974) mid 1960s survey showed that a majority of the adult population associated four cultural themes with work:

1.) The Good Provider theme required the man--the natural head of the household--to prove his manhood by being the breadwinner, the provider, for the family.

2.) The Independence theme equated work with freedom and independence, the ability to "stand on one's own feet."

3.) The Success theme proposed that hard work led to success in the form of home ownership, a rising standard of living and community respect.

4.) The Self-respect theme held that man's inherent worth was reflected in work.

Clearly these themes reflected the Protestant Work Ethic, but the 1960s was a time of upheaval and changing values in America. A new theme of self-fulfillment was emerging. Huber (1971) referred to those whose values protested against the competitive ethic of success as the "New Romantics":

> The uptight organization man was an emotional ball bearing bucking to be a big wheel. The "New Romantics" were all sensitive antennae tuned in on beauty, love, honesty, and fun. They were diverse as a movement and ephemeral in membership, but in one body they turned their backs on the American goals of mobility and crass achievement. Blowing marijuana smoke in the face of the middle-class dream, a dream which had sustained their parents through the struggles of the 1940s and 1950s, the "New Romantics" were not only asking, but actively seeking answers to an old question of increasing contemporary relevance: If I am not who I am, who will I be? (p. 444).

By the beginning of the 1970s, America was rapidly becoming a post-industrial society and the work force was changing both in composition and attitudes. Many in the labor force were born well after the Great Depression of

the 1930s, and had never known the economic insecurities faced by their parents. Many were better educated than their parents partly as a result of the veteran's educational benefits provided after World War II and the Korean conflict. Levitan and Johnston (1973) considered these two factors most responsible for changes in the attitudes of most workers toward their jobs: "the unprecedented educational levels achieved by the current generation of workers and the affluence to which they have become accustomed" (p. 36).

The 1960s had brought consumerism, counter-culture movements, desegregation, and women's liberation. These political and social movements had the effect of increasing the numbers of women and minorities in the work force. The lessons these social movements taught encouraged resistance to established authority, a right to participation in decisions, and a value for the individual.

In the early 1970s the first of several large post-World War II birth cohorts known as the "Baby Boomers" began to enter the job market. This was the beginning of a continuing increase in the youthfulness of the work force. These youth, who had often been part of the 1960s "New Romantics," brought new attitudes toward work and new

meanings to being a success at work which began to influence older workers.

Tarnowieski's 1972 survey of 2,821 businessmen revealed personal definitions of success emphasizing, in order of endorsement, these common terms: (a) achievement of goals; (b) self-actualization; (c) harmony among personal, professional, family, and social objectives; (d) making a contribution to a greater good; (e) happiness or peace of mind; (f) greater job satisfaction; (g) self-respect and the respect of others; (h) enjoyment in doing or being; (i) job and financial security; (j) honesty and personal integrity; (k) spiritual growth; and (l) family (Tarnowieski, 1973). In 1974, Yankelovich identified new, important cultural trends that were gradually transforming the work ethic:

> (a) the changing meaning of success in America; (b) lessening fears of economic insecurity; (c) a weakening of the rigid division of effort between the sexes; (d) a growing "psychology of entitlement" leading to the creation of new social rights; and (e) spreading disillusion with the cult of efficiency (p. 23).

Mortimer noted in 1979, "In recent years, considerable attention has been directed to the changing attitudes of the work force. Commentators speak of

growing dissatisfaction and malaise, the declining potency of traditional incentives, and escalating demands for fulfillment and self-actualization from the job" (p. 1.). Yankelovich (1979) identified the "New Breed" Americans who had "a set of values and beliefs so markedly different from the traditional outlook that they promise to transform the character of work in America" (p. 3). "New Breed" values focused on individual self-fulfillment and quality of lifestyle rather than conventional rewards for success such as prestige, status and money. Individual identity and growth became of primary importance: "the beginnings of an ethic built around the concept of duty to oneself, in glaring contrast to the traditional ethic of obligation to others" (Yankelovich, 1979, p. 12).

These shifts in attitudes had impact on the work place:

1. autonomy, responsibility, achievement, and related psychic rewards gained in importance relative to material or comfort considerations;

2. workers demanded more of a voice in what goes on in their companies;

3. decreased importance of hierarchical status as a source of power and satisfaction;

4. greater emphasis on "quality of working life" with

conditions to further mental and physical health and well-being;

5. less motivation to work long and hard out of habit or conscience; increased expectations for explanations and payoffs in both material and psychological terms;

6. greater concern with long term career development; and

7. greater concern with the satisfying use of leisure time (Katzell, 1979).

In the late 1980s, Yankelovich (1988) proposed there had been "a synthesis of the old Protestant work ethic--with its emphasis on hard work and sacrifice--and the '60s self-expressive ethic. Nowadays, work has become the focus of self-expression" (p. 58). The product of this synthesis has been a work ethic which places emphasis on autonomy, freedom of choice, challenging work, skill, and recognition for the quality of work produced because work has become an expression of self.

In summary, attitudes toward work, and what has been meant by being a success at work, have been characterized by change throughout history. Increasingly, for many modern Americans, work has been seen less as a means to obtain a desired lifestyle during non-work hours, and more as an inherent part of life which must in itself offer worthwhile opportunities for self-expression and self-

fulfillment. The simple equation of an honest day's work for an honest day's wages is often no longer sufficient to motivate many of today's American workers. Nor do all American workers hold that being a success at work necessarily means advancing to the top of the organizational hierarchy to gain prestige, status and high income. Changing work attitudes have evolved different work expectations and meanings of success have become highly personalized as modern Americans have sought diverse gratifications from their work lives.

THE CAREER ANCHOR/CAREER ORIENTATION MODEL OF ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT

The Theoretical Framework of Career Anchors/Career Orientations

Employers are constantly faced with questions such as the following: What do employees want from their work? What will stimulate positive attitudes toward work? What will motivate this particular employee to perform well? What incentives will encourage good employees to remain with the organization? Most employers would rather retain good employees than expend time and money in recruiting and training new employees, yet these are questions that are not resolved once and for all with any given employee. With worker attitudes undergoing change, employers have come to realize that what motivates one employee may seem

to have little effect on another; or what motivated an employee yesterday, may not today. Consequently, employers have an increasing interest in influencing individual career choices through understanding their employees' attitudes toward work and what being a success at work means to them. To influence employees' career choices, employers must have a theoretical framework of why individuals make particular career choices.

Schein's (1978) career anchor model of career development addresses how the career choices people make are based upon their search for personal meaning and fulfillment. For Schein (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977), "career development implies a lifelong process of working out a synthesis between individual interests and the opportunities (or limitations) present in the external work-related environment, so that both individual and environmental objectives are fulfilled" (p 36).

Schein distinguished between the external career and the internal career. The external career consists of the prescribed steps for progress through an occupation such as stages of apprenticeship, mastery of an educational curriculum, passing licensure examinations, or progress on an organizational career path. The internal career is the dynamic evolutionary perspective which individuals have of their work life and their role in it. Career anchors are

internal career components which develop over time as external career experience accumulates.

Interactions between the organizational environment and the employee shape employee's values and attitudes which influence career choices. Schein (1982) recognized

> the standards by which an individual measures his or her own success may be quite different from those employed by another person or by society at large. In fact...the subjective definition of success very much reflects the individual's career anchor or subjective career image (p. 8).

The ideal Schein proposed was a matching model in which the problem is to achieve the optimum congruence of the employee's needs and interests and the goals and requirements of organizational work environments.

Schein referred to the pattern of work values and attitudes which evolves as the individual interacts with the organization as a career anchor. "A career anchor can be thought of as a syndrome of self-perceived talents, values and motives that organize and give stability to career oriented decisions and that probably provide one key element of an individual's sense of identity" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 70).

> Career anchors may be latent or unconscious in the individual when he first chooses a career but become manifest both to the individual and to others as actual work experience accumulates. Career anchors are clearly inside the person, functioning as a set of driving and constraining forces. If people move into settings in which they are likely to fail or in which their values are compromised, they will be pulled back into something more congruent with their skills and beliefs--hence the metaphor of the anchor (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 71).

Origins of the Career Anchor Concept, Research and Outcomes

Schein (1975, 1978, 1982, 1987) developed the career anchor concept from a longitudinal study, which began in 1961, of 44 alumni of the Sloan School of Management at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). Interviews and surveys of their values and attitudes were conducted while these men were enrolled in classes, six months after graduation, a year after graduation, five years after graduation and again, approximately ten to twelve years after graduation. From this study Schein identified five career anchors: (a) managerial; (b) autonomy; (c) security; (d) technical/functional competence; and (e) entrepreneurial creativity.

Other studies of career anchors have focused on men employed as either managers or in professional occupations. Hopkins (1976) identified the career anchors of 20 male senior executives in attendance at the MIT Sloan School Senior Executive Program. Hall and Thomas (1979) described the impact of career anchors on the organizational development of 28 male program managers in the aerospace industry. Anderson and Sommer (1980) identified the development of the career anchors of 40 male Sloan Fellows five to ten years after their graduation.

Four career anchor studies have focused exclusively on women: Huser (1980) identified the career anchors of 20 female executives having master's of business administration degrees. Grzywacs (1982) studied the development of the career anchors of 20 female Sloan School graduates five or more years after their graduation. Janes' (1982) study of career anchors focused on 20 female mid-level managers and career professional women from industry, government and academe who were at least five years but not more than twenty years into their careers. Kanto (1982) identified the career anchors of 20 female bank officers at least five years into their careers who were in the top two levels of the Assistant Vice President title structure. The percentages of women

in each of these studies who were identified as holding career anchors which had been previously identified in the studies with men are presented in Appendix A. In each study, the career anchors held by some of the women could not be determined, suggesting Schein's (1978, 1982) typology did not encompass all the career anchors which were possibly held by these women.

Other studies (Albertini, 1982; Applin, 1982; Burnstine, 1982; Crowson, 1982; Heller, 1982; Liebesny, 1980; Senior, 1982) of career anchors have been based upon samples which included both men and women. All of the above studies used detailed biographical interviews to gather data about the subjects' career anchors. The career anchors identified from all of the above studies included:

1. Managerial--key values and motives for these people are advancing up the organizational hierarchy, with increasing responsibilities, opportunities for leadership, potential to contribute to organizational achievement of goals, and rewards of prestige, status, and high income.

2. Autonomy and independence--key values and motives for these people are maintenance of personal freedom, and avoidance of organizational restrictions. They prefer rewards of compensation with no strings attached and

portable, cafeteria-style benefits which allow them to pick and choose options suitable to their lifestyles.

3. Organizational security--key values and motives for these people are stability, predictability, financial security and knowledge that they have "made it" and are secure within an organization. DeLong (1982b) notes that William Whyte's (1956) organizational man is anchored in organizational security. This security orientation may also be centered on remaining in a specific geographic location rather than in a particular organization. Persons anchored in a geographic security orientation may prefer to move their employment from one organization to another, even should some sacrifice of their standard of living be required, rather than face geographic dislocation.

4. Challenge--key values and motives for these people are problem solving, self-testing, and winning in competition. Derr (1980) called this the warrior anchor in his study of U.S. Naval officers. A desire for action, excitement and a wish to test one's abilities in adventurous situations are characteristics of these people.

5. Lifestyle--key values and motives for these people are a balanced integration of professional and personal life. They value flexibility more than any other reward.

This anchor was first observed in the female graduates of the Sloan School (Grzywacs, 1982; Huser, 1980; Schein, 1987).

6. Technical/functional competence--key values and motives for these people are developing a recognized expertise in a particular area of work and/or craftsmanship. They desire rewards to be based on skill levels achieved.

7. Entrepreneurial creativity--key values and motives for these people are to create a new organization, a new service or a new product on their own and to be able to take primary credit for this accomplishment. They seek financial success of the enterprise as a reward.

8. Service--key values and motives for these people are dedication to a cause and making a contribution to improve the world. Support of their values and recognition of their contributions are important rewards for these people.

9. Organizational identity or affiliation--key values and motives for these people are the status and prestige of belonging to and being personally identified with a powerful or socially respected organization. Schein (1978) provided examples of people with an organizational identity career anchor: "when slaughterhouse employees were asked about their line of

work, they said they worked for Swift and Co.; similarly, low-level civil servants say they work for the United States government" (p. 170).

Schein (1982, 1987) provided a detailed summary on these career anchors and related managerial issues, pay and benefits, promotion systems and types of recognition appropriate for each. He included a table illustrating the frequency of occurrence of the different career anchors in the different occupational groups. Information from this table is presented in Appendix A.

While the studies mentioned above used in-depth biographical interviews as the primary assessment instrument, DeLong (1982a, 1982b), used a more empirical approach to investigate career anchor concepts. DeLong and Schein developed a Career Orientation Inventory using items on a Likert scale to measure the five career anchors Schein identified in his original study of 44 Sloan alumni (managerial; autonomy; security; technical/functional competence; and entrepreneurial creativity), and other career anchors hypothesized by DeLong and Schein: service (the desire to make a contribution to improve the world); identity (the desire to be identified with a powerful or prestigious organization to gain personal status); and variety (the desire for maximum variety in work

assignments). This Career Orientation Inventory is presented in Appendix B.

When data gathered from 320 men, who graduated from the School of Industrial Administration at Purdue University between 1963 and 1973, was analyzed through factor analysis, a "strong conceptual typology emerged derived from Schein's longitudinal study" (DeLong, 1982a, p. 59). A follow-up study from 73 questionnaires returned from 100 randomly selected respondents to the Career Orientation Inventory, yielded test-retest reliability coefficients on the different career anchors which ranged from .71 to .91. DeLong thus demonstrated the feasibility of using an assessment instrument more empirical than in-depth biographical interviews to identify people's career anchors.

Other studies have applied career anchors concepts to persons employed in various professional occupations. DeLong (1984) used the Career Orientations Inventory to compare the career orientations of 153 rural and 377 urban educators in Utah. This study included both men and women teachers. He found both rural and urban educators were similar in the way their career orientations clustered into two groups: those with managerial, autonomy, and variety career orientations and those with security and technical/functional competence career orientations.

Included in this second group were those with a high need for service. DeLong further noted the career orientation of identity seemed important to both groups of educators.

> This analysis suggests that managerial interests and technical competence interests are on the polar extremes of teacher career orientations. Also, those teachers who value autonomy and creativity have less interest in long term security. Perhaps the most obvious surprise is how similar the career orientations of rural and urban teachers seem to be (DeLong, 1984, p. 71).

Wood, Winston, and Polkosnik (1985) used DeLong's Career Orientations Inventory to relate career orientations of 65 graduates from student personnel programs to retention and professional development in the student affairs field. This study included both men and women student affairs professionals. They found "significant differences between those who remained in student affairs and those who left the field only on two career orientations: Autonomy... and Geographical Security.... In both instances the group that left the field scored higher than the group that remained" (Wood et al., 1985, p. 535). Career orientations related significantly to the level of professional development of these student affairs professionals, suggesting "that

professionals with high creativity career orientations, medium technical and functional competence, and low geographical security and variety orientations are most likely to reach higher levels of professional development" (Wood et al., 1985, p. 537).

C. Brooklyn Derr (1977, 1980) applied the career anchor concept to study 154 U.S. Naval officers using both a questionnaire and interviews. This work revealed U.S. Naval officers had the five career anchors Schein found in his original study of 44 MIT alumni: (a) managerial; (b) autonomy; (c) security; (d) technical/functional competence; and (e)entrepreneurial creativity. Also identified were two other anchors: (f) organizational identity/affiliation, which Derr saw as a variant of the security anchor, where the individual desired the status and prestige of belonging to, and being personally identified with, a socially respected organization; and (g) a warrior anchor, similar to the challenge anchor, where excitement, adventure and testing of one's abilities were basic psychological requirements of the individual.

During his work with students pursuing master's degrees in business administration at the American University/National Training Laboratory Institute of Applied Behavior Science Program at Airlie House,

Virginia, Derr refined a forced choice instrument, The Career Success Map Questionnaire, to identify five career orientations (C. B. Derr, personal communication, April 30, 1987):

1. Getting Ahead--the traditional pursuit of success by advancing up the organizational hierarchy to achieve prestige, status, and high income. This can be equated to Schein's managerial career anchor.

2. Getting Free--the desire to escape from organizational restrictions and maintain a sense of personal autonomy. This can be equated to Schein's career anchor of autonomy.

3. Getting Secure--a desire for a sense of security, belonging, and loyalty to the organization. This can be equated to Schein's career anchor of organizational security.

4. Getting High--the pursuit of excitement, creativity, and challenge within work tasks themselves. This can be equated to Schein's career anchor of challenge.

5. Getting Balanced--the desire to achieve an equilibrium between professional and personal life. This can be equated to Schein's lifestyle career anchor.

The Nature of Career Anchors and Career Orientations

Schein (1975, 1978, 1982, 1987) used the term "career anchor," as did Derr (1977, 1980) in his study of U.S. Naval officers. DeLong (1982a, 1982b, 1984), and Derr more recently (1986), used the term "career orientation." In his earlier work, DeLong (1982a, 1982b) suggested the term "career orientation" described the values, attitudes and career needs which are the central part of the definition of "career anchors". In his later work, DeLong (1984) referred to these values, attitudes, and career needs as "career variables" and used the terms "career anchors" and "career orientations" synonymously. Both of these terms, "career anchor" and "career orientation" define a self-image developed through interaction with the work environment which influences the career choices a person makes.

For both Schein and Derr, career anchors/career orientations develop with the accumulation of work experience as individuals learn more about themselves in the work environment. Once developed through work experience, career anchors/career orientations tend to be fairly stable, however, they can be changed if external circumstances exert sufficient influence. Schein (1982) noted:

> the career anchor is the self-image, and it can remain remarkably stable even if there is no opportunity whatsoever to exercise it, as in the case of the starving artist who is driving a cab. The self-image will change if the person obtains systematic experience and feedback that make it impossible to maintain an illusion--in the case of the artist, for example, repeated failure to be able to create artistically even to one's own satisfaction. But the self-image may not change if the constraint is seen as merely external and temporary (p. 11).

Derr (1986) stated: "A career success map, though deeply influential, is not a straitjacket. People can modify their career orientations, given enough motivation and information about options" (p. 18).

Derr also noted (1986) that career orientations may fall along a continuum with Getting Free on one end clustered with Getting High. At the opposite end, Getting Ahead clustered with Getting Secure. Getting Balanced was placed in the middle of the continuum. This continuum has been based on DeLong's (1982a, 1982b) studies which show Getting Secure and Getting Free as mutually exclusive polar opposites. Derr (1986) has suggested:

> if [there is] a very balanced profile where all of the scores are about equal, where the intensity is generally weak, or where an unconventional pairing occurs, [the] career success map may either not yet be formulated or be in the process of being redrawn. Possibly [the individual is] not a career-directed person. Many people, even those with long and successful work histories, still do not have a planned, long-term, inner-directed sense of their work futures. For some, work is not a central value or variable in life (p. 195).

Zagoria (1972) noted traditional incentives lack potency for many of today's American workers. While having employment is considered important to today's American, due to social support systems, the costs of refusing any job perceived as undesirable are not as great as in the past. Also, many households today are supported by two adult workers, which decreases pressure to accept any job to maintain income (Kerr & Rosow, 1979). For many workers in modern America, sufficient wage compensation and desirable working conditions are expected to be given and do not motivate work performance beyond the minimum. Many modern American workers have highly individualized their meaning of being a success at work.

It is through interaction with the work environment, that workers develop attitudes, values and motivations toward work which formulate their personal definitions of what being a success at work means to them. To develop employees' positive attitudes toward their work, to motivate employees to more than minimal work performance, and to retain good employees, employers must provide opportunities in the work environment for employees to be able to strive to realize their personal definitions of work success throughout their careers.

WORKING WOMEN IN AMERICA

From Founding to Mid-Twentieth Century

A review of the roles of women as workers in the United States shows that women in the paid work force traditionally have been occupationally segregated and differentially rewarded for their work efforts. The role of work in the lives of American women has had very different meaning than the role of work in American men's lives. Many authors have written on the history of working women in America. The following review is a summarization of accounts from Boulding (1976), Fox and Hesse-Biber (1984), M. S. Gordon (1973), Marshall and Paulin (1987), Rothman (1978) and Smuts (1971).

Women have always worked in America. Prior to industrialization, the entire family worked as the primary

economic unit on the farm. Pioneer women worked side by side with their husbands, both, by necessity, doing the same work in order to survive. As their sons grew, or as neighboring settlers, with whom labor could be exchanged, moved into an area, tasks were segregated by sex. Women had the primary responsibilities for homemaking and housekeeping. These included preserving food, preparing meals, making cloth, sewing and mending clothing, growing food in kitchen vegetable gardens, and caring for young animals and young children. Women made most of the products needed for housekeeping, such as soap and brooms. Women also performed most of the labors associated with housekeeping such as fetching water, chopping wood, building fires, making candles, tending animals intended for household consumption such as pigs and chickens, and dairying.

The women of the farm household were often responsible for the production of goods beyond those required for subsistence. Animal produce, such as eggs and dairy goods, and baskets and cloth woven by women, were often sole sources of cash income for the farm household. As settlements grew, women ran small businesses such as doing laundry, taking in boarders, or establishing "dame" schools.

In tasks primary to survival but where strength was not prerequisite, such as sowing seed for major field crops and harvesting, all adults and children worked together. But women and children were considered less proficient workers than men, less able to work as fast or to do as much. Further, the status of women was that of chattels of the male head of the household. Throughout most of the 1800s, married women were legal non-entities, ceding to their husbands rights to property or wage ownership. Women and children were subordinate to their husbands and fathers, dependent upon their male heads of household to represent them in society. So, by long tradition, women and children were considered worth less and paid less than men.

As industrialization removed paid work from home to factory, the division of labor by sexes became more marked. Men were the first to seek employment in factories and offices while women remained at home. The world of work outside of the home was considered too rough for women, whose sphere, it was thought, was domestic by biological necessity. Early factories, however, often faced shortages of male labor due to the heavy demand for manpower in the primarily agricultural economy. Farmers saw that the mills were places from which a cash income was available. For earning mill wages, daughters were

spared from farm households more frequently than sons. The presence of women in the work force was welcomed by mill owners because of the tradition of paying women less than men.

As early as 1810, 15% of women over 16 were employed for wages, most in the New England textile mills (M.S. Gordon, 1973). In consideration of women's lack of strength and stamina, and the supposed liabilities of feminine sensibilities, jobs were segregated by sexes. The incentive of a cash wage, and work which, with improved mechanization, was often lighter than that of the agricultural homestead, plus provided an introduction to wider horizons than found at home, made factory work an attractive alternative for young women. Paid employment was considered a temporary phase in the lives of young women, an interlude which would end with marriage. It allowed them to fulfill their duties by earning money to send home for family use or to save for marriage and establishment of their own households.

With the influx of immigrant labor in the mid 1800s, women's work was not only occupationally segregated from men's work, but also became segregated by social status. For the growing numbers of middle class families that were emerging from the increasingly affluent population, a daughter's working in a factory with unskilled immigrant

labor was no longer socially acceptable. Middle class women's employment opportunities were narrowed to a few white collar occupations such as teacher and librarian. Factory work and domestic service remained practically the only alternatives for women from the lower classes. In the south, the line of social demarcation for white women was drawn at domestic service which was considered appropriate only for black women.

Growing affluence made it possible for the middle class woman to aspire to be a lady, a designation previously achievable only by those in the upper class. Nineteenth century notions of being a lady reinforced the idea that a woman's proper sphere was domestic, and instilled a prejudice against women from the upper and middle classes having paid employment (Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1984).

In 1882 the Census Bureau took the first census of working women. Most women were employed in domestic or factory work. Women were employed in natural extensions of their traditional homemaker role in industries such as textiles, food processing, sewing, tailoring and shoe making. After factory employment, the only other occupation which offered employment to large numbers of women was schoolteaching. With the development of the mechanized office, women began to move into male dominated

businesses, in occupations such as typist and stenographer.

The invention of the typewriter revolutionized the office. Its effects were similar to those of technology in the crafts: work was broken down into smaller units and became more specialized. Almost from its introduction in the late 1800s, the typewriter was a woman's machine. The growing number of women who were high school graduates provided a suitably literate labor pool from which to recruit typists. Having mastered the skills of typewriting, typists were like interchangeable parts, and did not have to be highly trained in the setting of any particular office. As offices grew larger, stenography, like typewriting, became an area of specialization. Breaking the traditionally male occupation of secretary into smaller, more specialized functions, increased the number of jobs which were filled by women at lower wages than had been paid to men.

In the same manner, the growth of large department stores opened doors for women to be employed in retail occupations which had been dominated by men. Again, jobs within the store became more specialized than those previously held by men. Male sales clerks in smaller retail stores were often responsible for purchasing merchandise, stocking it, promoting it through display,

and for all transactions with customers, from their entrance into the store to their departure with the wrapped, purchased merchandise. In the larger department stores, each of these functions was specialized and created distinct jobs for women who became stock girls, sales clerks, cash girls, cashiers and wrappers (Rothman, 1978; Smuts, 1971).

Because of prevailing notions that women's proper sphere was domestic and because of the tradition of paying women less than men, women workers were often resented by their male counterparts. Nowhere is this so evident as in the uneven relationship of America's working women with the country's labor union movement. Throughout the 1800s women proved they could make unionization work in exclusively female labor unions. The more powerful all male unions held ambivalent attitudes toward, or were indifferent, if not hostile, to women workers. Foner (1987) and Milkman (1987) have provided detailed accounts of women workers and America's labor union movement.

National labor unions formed in the early 1800s expressed ambivalence in their positions toward women workers. While they made formal offers of support, their membership remained open only to men. Prior to the demise of the National Labor Union in 1869, a resolution urging women be paid equally with men for equal work was adopted

by the membership. This resolution had gained support not so much to improve women's wages as to protect men's wages. In 1878, the Knights of Labor employed the same rationale, adopting a provision of equal pay for equal work for both sexes into its constitution. However, constitutional provision for the admission of women into the union was not accepted until 1881.

The doors of one of the most powerful labor unions of the twentieth century, the American Federation of Labor, have historically been largely closed to women workers since its inception in 1886. Despite shortages of male labor in World War I, the American Federation of Labor opposed women's entry into trade jobs which had been previously held by men. After the war, the American Federation of Labor was an active force in recruiting union and government support to replace working women with returning veterans. As recently as 1924, eight of the American Federation of Labor's international unions officially opposed admission of women. Not until World War II did all unions of the American Federation of Labor officially admit women (Foner, 1987; Milkman, 1987).

Prior to World War II working for wages had long been considered a temporary life phase for young women, ending when they married. Women who remained single and worked, or who worked after marriage, were often looked upon with

pity, as lacking support of a man, or with suspicion and distrust. World War II, with its demands for increased productivity and recruitment of men to the battlefront, opened employers' doors to older, married women. Not only did the number of women in the work force peak during World War II, but the war years also marked the closest America had come to occupational desegregation since its colonial days.

The occupational desegregation of the war years did not continue in post war America. After the war, with veterans flooding the job market, government, business and social forces promoted homemaking as the proper occupation for women. As after World War I, male unionists were often in collusion with management to terminate women employees and replace them with veterans. Government sponsored loans for veterans encouraged home buying. The role of the woman in the post war economy was to be the homemaker and primary consumer of household goods for these newly acquired homes. Similar to the 1800s "cult of true womanhood," the "feminine mystique," (Friedan, 1963) was the role of the ideal woman of the 1950s. As in the 1800s, the man was responsible for representing the interests of his wife in the outside world and was to be the sole provider for the household.

Despite these social messages, broadcast with compelling persuasion by the new medium of television, the number of women, particularly older, married women, in the work force did not drop to pre-World War II levels. The working women of the 1950s were typically married, in their forties, and had grown children. Beginning in the 1960s a new category of women began to enter the work force in large numbers: young, married women with preschool and school aged children. These women were joining the work force as permanent participants. Over the next two decades, they were to account for the greatest percentage of growth in the work force (Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1987; R. H. Hall, 1986; Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Working Women in America: 1960s to Present

The 1960s was a time of upheaval and changing values in America. Social movements of the 1960s and early 1970s focused on civil rights and resulted in antidiscrimination legislation which included women with other minority groups. Equal opportunity in obtaining employment and equal pay for both sexes for the same work became legally enforceable.

The women's liberation movement changed many women's expectations and ambitions for their self-fulfillment. Women began to expect to have an individualized identity, separate from that of wife and mother. As men and women

tried to cope with changing sex roles, divorce rates soared, and many women no longer had men to support them. Single parent households headed by women were a growing segment of the population. Becoming a permanent part of the work force was a necessity in many women's lives. With equal opportunity legislation, some women began to have expectations that, like men, paid employment would be a lasting aspect of their careers.

Currently, at least 43% of the work force is composed of women. A conservative estimate is by the year 2000, over 47% of the nation's work force will be female (BLS, 1988a). In the 1980s 9 of 10 women enter paid employment at some time in their lives. The average American woman of the 1980s can expect to spend about 34 years in the paid work force. Two-thirds of working women are either without support from a man or are married to men who make less than $15,000 per year. Over one-fourth of American families are headed by a single parent and 90% of these families are headed by women. Over half of American children under six have mothers in the paid work force ("The Numbers Game," 1987).

Blau (1978), Fox and Hesse-Biber (1987), and Marshall and Paulin (1987) have suggested reasons for the continued presence of married women in the work force including: (a) the decreased fertility rate and the increased

longevity of America women which have expanded the amount of time in a woman's life that she can expect to spend without either children or spouse; (b) a decreasing available labor pool of young, single women; (c) increasing education levels among American women; (d) rising divorce rates and the prevalence of female single parents and (e) increasing competition of international markets which has resulted in economic needs for a two income family in America.

Despite gains made since the legislation of antidiscrimination laws, occupations in America today remain largely segregated by sex. Women are concentrated in only 20 of the 440 occupational classifications as listed by the Bureau of the Census and the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (Bureau of the Census, 1983). Throughout the 1960s, the 1970s, and into the 1980s, most women entering the paid work force entered the "pink collar ghetto" (Sargent, 1985) of traditionally female, low paying occupations such as secretary, accounting and auditing clerk, and computer operator.

Characteristics these occupations share are: they are highly segregated by sex; they tend to require stereotypical female traits such as manual dexterity and attention to detail; and they tend to be dead-end

positions that are among the lowest paying (Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1984). Many of these occupations require minimal education and training. They can be re-entered with little or no re-training after a period of leave from the work force. Organizational rewards for these occupations include neither advancement nor higher income, so little penalty exists for absence from the work force (Chafetz, 1978).

Women's Careers and Organizational Rewards

While women have been a part of the American work force throughout the nation's history, as Fitzgerald and Betz (1983) have pointed out, the study of women's career development has been addressed as a legitimate and unique area only in the past twenty years. Gutek and Larwood (1987) suggested that women's careers are different from men's due to:

1. differential societal expectations regarding the appropriateness of occupations for each sex, which effects the career preparation and occupational choices of young people: women prepare for and enter different occupations than men.

2. differential willingness to accommodate to the other's career expressed by married couples: wives are generally expected by our society to accommodate more to their husbands' career needs.

3. differential societal expectations of the parenting roles assigned to men and women: women have traditionally been expected to bear the primary responsibility for child care.

4. the constraints women must deal with in the world of work: women face both discrimination for non-traditional occupational choices and stereotyping of feminine traits detrimental to career advancement.

Organizational rewards for men and women are also differentiated. Nieva and Gutek (1981) provided a review of studies examining organizational reward of women workers in the areas of: pay, promotion, affiliation, working environment comfort and intrinsic rewards. Their summary indicates that in every area but comfort, women workers suffer disadvantages. Direct comparisons of organizational rewards may be problematic due to the occupational segregation of men and women, however, it appears on the whole that women: receive less financial reward than men, lack upward mobility, and frequently are employed in jobs that offer little opportunity for growth and challenge. Women place more value than men on the social rewards of their jobs, but women's professional judgments are less valued, they have less access to persons in authority, and have less influence than men in most organizations.

Research on women's careers has focused primarily on women in occupations usually considered professions or on women requiring assistance from social support systems (Colwill, 1987; Fox & Hesse-Biber, 1984; Laws, 1976). Little is known about what women in traditionally female occupations not usually considered professions, which are concentrated in the lower tiers of the organizational hierarchy, value at work. Glenn and Feldberg (1979) noted women in the clerical occupations have reported that, in addition to income, rewards for their work included: "[a] opportunities to form and maintain social connections...[b] direction and purpose to their lives by structuring their time and getting them involved in 'useful' activity...and [c] a identity separate from their family roles" (p. 33). While this may seem to imply that women in these occupations have low expectations regarding what being a success at work means, Nieva and Gutek (1981) noted:

> Across many areas of reward, the rationalization of women's preference has tended to be used to justify the low reward levels they attain. Women are thought to downplay the importance of pay and promotion, for example, and that is given as the reason for what they receive. A message emerging from this...however, is that,

> in many instances, one's realistic expectations shape one's desires and aspirations. What women want from a job tends to be shaped by what they expect to receive, and what they expect tends to be shaped by what they or others like them are receiving or have received in the past. The realities of the present effect aspirations for the future (p. 113).

In summary, women have always worked in America. Although increasing numbers of women have entered the work force in the past twenty years from ecomonic necessity, and although it is projected in the next twelve years almost half of the paid work force will be female, American society continues to hold differential expectations regarding the careers of men and women. Traditionally, the worth of female workers has been considered less than that of male workers, and compensation for work has been awarded accordingly. While recent legislation has required equal pay be given both sexes for the same work, American women have remained largely occupationally segregated. American women are concentrated in support occupations and are usually employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies. These positions are relatively low paying and offer few opportunities for reward in terms of prestige or

influence, advancement, or intrinsic challenge. While employers in the 1980s are increasing concerned with adhering to equal opportunity legislation, reducing turnover, and motivating workers at lower levels of the organization hierarchy, little is known about what values and attitudes women in these lower level positions hold toward their work, what they want from their careers, and what being a success at work means to them.

ORGANIZATIONAL EMPLOYEE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Objectives of Organizational Employee Career Development Programs

Since the 1960s, American employers have had to adapt their work places to pressures besides those exerted by the profit motive. Employers have been required by law to offer equal opportunity in the hiring and promotion of employees, which has compelled many to change personnel practices. American workers' changing attitudes toward their work, and their personalization of the meaning of being a success at work, have forced employers to seek new ways to motivate employees. When ecomonic rewards are no longer sufficient to induce workers to perform, falling production is but one by-product of worker dissatisfaction. Abuse of drugs and alcohol on the job, vandalism at work, absenteeism and turnover of employees have been growing concerns for employers. Zagoria (1972)

reported on these effects and some alternatives employers have offered to motivate workers:

> American workers--male and female, black and white, manual, clerical, technical and managerial, old and young--are being infected by a malaise whose spread is challenging our assumptions about work and beginning to force welcome new definitions of jobs. The changes range from some eliminations of assembly line techniques to a broadening of worker responsibilities, rotation of jobs, a steady spread of the four day work week, and increased proposals to allow workers to choose their own hours (p. B4).

Another alternative offered by employers has been the establishment of organizational programs to promote employee career development. The popularity of organizational employee career development programs has arisen both from employer interest in human resource management and from employee demand (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Wowk, Williams, & Halstead, 1983). Organizational employee career development programs are popular with both employers and employees because most such programs have objectives which aim to meet the needs of both the organization and of the employee. Organizational employee

career development programs have been seen as providing benefits to both employer and employee by: (a) familiarizing employees with organizational personnel systems; (b) insuring adequate staffing and succession planning; (c) identifying and promoting better use of talented employees; (d) addressing equal opportunity and affirmative action concerns; (e) promoting productivity and creativity; (f) reducing turnover; (g) contributing to employee satisfaction and commitment to the organization; and (h) encouraging employees to take responsibility for their own careers (Cairo, 1986; Earwood, 1979; "Is career development the answer?," 1981).

The Nature of Organizational Employee Career Development

A precise and widely agreed upon definition of exactly what is an organizational employee career development program has remained elusive. Responsibility for offering employees programs with the intention of meeting all or some of the above stated objectives has usually been considered part of organizational human resources management or personnel management systems. However, the who and how of such program administration has varied within the structure of organizations or has been handed over to hired outside consultants. Such programs have been identified by many different names, including: (a) organizational or employee career planning,

(b) organizational or employee career management, (c) employee career enhancement or (d) organizational or employee career development. Ultimately, organizational employee career development programs consist of activities, sponsored by an organization, and which address the career planning processes of adults employed by the organization.

Brooks (1984) identified commonalities of the career planning process with adults including: (a) active participation of the adult in the process; (b) promotion of individual self-assessment, occupational exploration and choice, goal setting, and decision making skills; (c) change or movement within the adult's career and (d) the continued usefulness of the career planning process throughout the adult lifespan. Organizational employee career development programs attempt to foster individual employees' career planning processes within the context of work place.

However, the career development of the individual employee is only one aspect of organizational employee career development programs. L. L. Moore (1979) noted that "confusion concerning career planning has resulted from the failure to distinguish between organizational- and individual- directed approaches, and from the failure to differentiate between human resources planning and

career planning" (p. 11). As early as 1976, Story pointed out that career development within organizations has two facets: the individual and the organizational. Morgan, Hall and Martier (1979) concluded from a survey of 56 organizations that "career programs . . . can be grouped into seven main categories: career counseling, individual career planning, organizational human resource planning, career information systems, management or supervisory development, training and programs for special groups" (p. 13). Gutteridge and Otte (1983) have seen organizational career development as a means to wed the career needs of the individual and the organization:

> Organizational career development is defined as the outcomes of the interaction between individual career planning and institutional career management processes. Desired institutional outcomes might include the communication of career opportunities to employees and obtaining a better match between individual career interests and organizational opportunities. Individual outcomes might include better self-understanding, and identification of desired career goals (p. 6).

The relationship between individual employee career concerns and organizational human resource needs within

the context of organizational employee career development has been characterized in different ways. D. T. Hall (1986) conceptualized career development activities as existing on a continuum with individual and organizational concerns at opposing ends. Winterschied (1980) suggested career development programs link individual career development with organizational business objectives. Leibowitz, Farren and Kaye (1986) characterized the career development system as "an organized, formalized, planned effort to achieve a balance between the individual's career needs and the organization's work force requirements" (p. 4). Schein (1978) and Derr (1986) have indicated the nature organizational employee career development as an attempt to match or identify the congruence between organizational goals and individual career goals.

These descriptions of how organizational employee career development programs attempt to meet both organizational human resource management needs and individual career concerns imply that conflict often exists between the two, and that the organizational employee career development program exists to reconcile this conflict or to find a match or balancing point between the individual and the organization. This may be because organizational human resource management needs

have been clearly identified: to maintain adequate levels of motivated, efficient workers; to meet equal opportunity requirements; and to reduce turnover and subsequent training investments; while individual career concerns have not been as well understood. A common misconception has been to equate career development with advancement up the organizational hierarchy; however, it is obvious that is not a feasible or desirable career goal for every employee. An effective organizational employee career development program should serve the purpose of aiding employees, each with differing values and attitudes towards work and having a personalized meaning of what it means to be a success at work, in assessing the potential of the organizational environment for achieving their individual career goals.

Career Development Activities

No comprehensive definition has been developed for what exactly constitutes an organizational employee career development program. Early organizational employee career development efforts were activity driven and there has remained an emphasis on activities in organizational employee career development efforts. Wowk et al.'s (1983) proposed definition of organizational career developed programs illustrated this: "A formal career development program is a centralized system of policies and procedures

which provides employees with the opportunity for career development activities such as counseling, evaluation, pathing, information and human resource planning and workshops" (p. 83).

Gutteridge and Otte (1983), Morgan et al. (1979), and Walker and Gutteridge (1979) noted that career development activities in organizations have often been introduced in a fragmentary, informal manner, rather than as part of a formal programs with clearly defined objectives. As organizational employee career development programs have been seen as attempts to meet both the needs of the organization and individual employees, many different types of activities have been identified as career development activities. This practice has contributed to the confusion regarding whether any given activity may be considered an organizational or an individual directed approach to career planning. Further, career development activities identified by the same name may be manifested very differently in different organizations. Examination of attempts to classify career development activities, such as Gutteridge (1986) and Morgan et al. (1979), reveals both the wide range of activities which have been considered career development activities as well as the confusion regarding how these activities should be categorized.

A sample of these activities ranges from what might be considered basic personnel practices, such as job posting, to specialized efforts to address individual career development, such as individual career counseling. Some commonly identified organizational career development activities include: (a) assessment, either self-assessment or through the use of assessment centers; (b) the identification of career paths or career ladders which are sequences of jobs within organizational hierarchies; (c) the dissemination of information through self-paced instructional devices such as workbooks or computer systems; (d) workshops or training opportunities addressing specific career development topics, career transitions, or specially targeted groups of employees; (e) offering of individual career counseling and development of individual career plans for specified periods of time often based on performance evaluation and appraisal; and (f) identification of high potential employees and succession planning which may include job rotation and other training opportunities (Gutteridge, 1986; Morgan et al., 1979).

Few, if any, organizations, offer all of the possibilities which have been identified as career development activities in organizational employee career development programs. In some cases, while the activity

or practice may exist within the organization, such as job posting, it may not be considered part of the organizational employee career development program. Or in other cases, while the activity or practice may exist within the organization, such as succession planning, it may be made available only to a few selected employees. The most frequently used career development activities offered by organizational employee career development programs have been group workshops, individual career counseling, and self-directed materials (Brooks, 1984; Gutteridge and Otte, 1983).

This is true of the Employee Career Development Program at Virginia Tech as described by McDaniels and Watts (1987). While various career activities have been offered to Virginia Tech employees during the seven years of the Employee Career Development Program's existence, the core of the program has been: (a) a six week, comprehensive career development workshop meeting for two hours weekly which is offered each academic term; (b) individual career counseling offered at the individual employee's request; and (c) self-paced career information materials arranged into stations addressing topical areas such as self assessment, educational and occupational information, taking action, and life management.

The six week, comprehensive workshop has provided employees the opportunity: (a) for self-assessment through use of both standardized assessment instruments and participation in values discussions; (b) to learn about career information, including job opportunities at Virginia Tech, and to relate it to personal traits and career goals; (c) to improve career decision making skills through the use of formal decision making models; and (d) to learn job search strategies and improve job seeking skills such as resume writing and job interviewing through actual practice.

McDaniels and Watts (1987) described other aspects of the Employee Career Development Program such as the development of seminars on career development topics of interest. Employee Career Development Program participants have been offered individual career counseling at their request and have received individualized help in resume writing, preparing jobs applications, and interviewing for specific job openings. Employees can use not only the materials in the self-paced career stations on their own initiative, but also have current career information materials available for their use. These materials include the state career information delivery system, Virginia VIEW, and other commercial, computerized career information and guidance systems, as

well as video and tape career information, and print materials such as self-help career books. Related career development activities, such as job posting, training in specific academic topics, and tuition waivers for university courses, are available to employees through the Employee Relations Office at Virginia Tech.

The Employee Career Development Program at Virginia Tech is a totally individual- directed approach to employee career development. It is based on the philosophy that given occupational information and opportunity for self-assessment, individuals can become self-directing in their careers. This process of the individual rather than the organization managing the career of the employee is what D. T. Hall (1976) describes as the protean career.

All Virginia Tech employees may voluntarily participate in the Employee Career Development Program which offers activities on a demand basis. The Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program provides information and an atmosphere where employees may freely assess the potential of the environment of Virginia Tech to help them achieve their career goals. During its existence, employees who have participated in the program have become knowledgeable regarding their own career needs and have requested specific career development activities

to meet these needs. The program is unique in that the majority of female employees who have participated in the Employee Career Development Program have not been targeted for promotion but are employed in occupations not usually considered professions at lower level of the Virginia Tech hierarchy.

Choosing Among Career Development Activities

Organizational employee career development program sponsorship has organizational costs in terms of time, money and resources (Merman & Leibowitz, 1987). Given an effective organizational employee career development program, individual employees may realize their career goals can not be met in the organizational environment and may consequently choose to leave the organization. Offering an ineffective organizational employee career development program may be detrimental to an organization by undermining its employees' morale and trust. Not all organizational employee career development program activities have the same appeal or provide the same beneficial outcomes to all employees nor will all employees equally accept employer involvement in their career development (Portwood & Granrose, 1986).

Issues organizations must address when offering an organizational employee career development program include: (a) understanding which of the various career

development activities are possible to offer within the organization; (b) awareness of the cost of each activity in terms of time, money, and organizational staffing and resources; (c) identification of the possible beneficial outcomes each activity is likely to provide both employer and employee; (d) identification of a target group of employees; and (e) matching employees to career development activities in which they will accept employer involvement and in which they will be interested and willing to participate (D. T. Hall, 1986; Merman & Leibowitz, 1987; Portwood & Granrose, 1986).

Derr (1986) suggested persons with different career orientations are likely to have particular preferences for specific career development activities such as:

1. In-depth self-assessment through testing including the use of standardized assessment instruments, and simulated activities and work situations that would give participants feedback on their performances. This activity should allow both the organization and the individual to determine an employee's potential for managerial advancement. This activity should particularly appeal to persons having a Getting Ahead career orientation.

2. Career pathing which identifies sequences of jobs or positions related to specific career goals such as

managerial advancement or development of technical expertise. This activity should aid the employee by clarifying organizational requirements to meet specific career goals and aid the organization by better preparing employees to meet requirements for specific career goals. This activity should particularly appeal to persons having a Getting High or a Getting Free career orientation.

3. Computer aided instruction and information systems which deliver information relevant to individual career plans including organizational philosophy about career development, career programs and benefits offered, various career paths, and promotion practices. This activity should aid both the employee and the organization by promoting better understanding of the organizational personnel system. This activity should particularly appeal to persons having a Getting Ahead or a Getting Secure career orientation.

4. Workshop and training events which include specific topics such as life-career planning, self-assessment, career information and decision making, specific career transitions, such as outplacement or retirement, and career development for special groups, such as women and minorities. These activities provide the organization an effective means of targeting groups of employees with similar career concerns and provide

employees a means of networking within the organization and obtaining information on specific career topics. These activities should particularly appeal to persons with a Getting High, a Getting Free, or a Getting Balanced career orientation.

5. Individual career development plans which are developed by employee with management's help and concurrence. This activity should aid the organization in maintaining staffing levels while identifying career development plans for each individual employee. This activity should particularly appeal to persons with Getting Ahead, Getting Secure, or Getting High career orientations.

6. Identification of high potential employees which includes systematic efforts to identify promising young employees and newly hired employees. This activity should aid the organization in management development, in retention of highly talented employees and in succession planning. It should increase employee satisfaction by providing personal growth opportunities within the organization. This activity should particularly appeal to persons with Getting Ahead and Getting High career orientations.

SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

To summarize this review of changing work attitudes in America, the career anchor/career orientation model of adult career development, the role of women in the American work force, and the development of organizational employee career development programs, as L. L. Moore (1979) noted:

> overall, it appears that organizations are concerned with understanding human needs in order to create an environment of work quality that attracts and rewards qualified employees. The changing work ethic and social values demand a more participative and adaptive work environment that recognizes and reinforces employer-employee partnerships for personal and organizational goals. Finally, the need to be responsive to social change by providing women . . . with increased opportunities facilitated the interest of organizations in career planning (p. 11).

Organizational employee career development programs have promised to deliver benefits to both the organization and its individual employees. A myriad of career development activities have been identified as suitable for organizational employee career development programs.

Little is known regarding which career development activities will be accepted by and appeal to specific groups of employees. As employee attitudes and values toward work, and their meanings of being a success at work differ, so it seems likely that differing career development activities will appeal to and be accepted by employees as helpful in meeting their individual career goals.

Gutteridge and Otte (1983) have held the key to making career development programs effective is an institutional commitment to use specific practices to satisfy the needs of particular employee groups and to resolve identified human resource issues. To do this it is necessary to determine what practices will appeal to and be accepted by the targeted employee group. This study targets women at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, employed in occupations not usually considered to be professional, and examines their attitudes and values toward work, considering what success at work means to them, and relates this to their preferences for specific career development activities.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology and procedures of this study. The following topics will be discussed in this chapter: (a) the research objectives; (b) the research method used; (c) the research instruments used; (d) a description of the population; (e) a description of the procedures used in collecting data; and (f) the analysis procedures.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study was to examine career orientations of women employed in occupations not usually considered professions, at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in non-managerial positions, and to compare their preferences among organizational employee career development activities. Specifically, the objectives of this study were to determine:

1.) Are women's career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire independent of their occupations?

2.) Are there significant differences in women's ages, education levels, or length of time in paid employment among the different career orientations Derr's

(1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

3.) Do women's preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities differ significantly among the different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

4.) Do structured interviews with selected women who have different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values, and motivations toward work?

5.) Do structured interviews with selected women suggest they may have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire?

RESEARCH METHOD

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the current status of phenomena (career orientations of women in specific occupations), a descriptive survey method was used. J. W. Best (1981) noted "a descriptive study describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with conditions that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident or trends that

are developing" (p. 93). According to McMillan and Schumacher (1984) descriptive research "assesses the nature of existing conditions" (p. 26).

Descriptive research provides three types of information:

> 1) what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation;
>
> 2) what we want by identifying standards or norms with which to compare the present conditions or what experts consider to be desirable, and
>
> 3) how to achieve goals by exploring possible ways and means on the basis of the experience of others or the opinion of experts (Koul, 1984, p. 394).

One of the most frequently used methods of descriptive research is the survey. "The purpose of survey research is to obtain information that describes existing phenomena by asking the individuals their perceptions, attitudes, behaviors or values" (G. W. Moore, 1983, p. 174). Surveys may require respondents to use paper and pencil to rate their feelings on a scale, to select the answer most applicable to them from a given set of answers, or to respond to open ended questions.

Another means of obtaining insight on an individual's perceptions, attitudes and values is through in-depth qualitative interviewing. Taylor and Bogdan (1984) defined in-depth qualitative interviewing as "repeated face-to-face encounters between the researcher and informants directed toward understanding informants' perspective on their lives, experiences or situations as expressed in their own words" (p. 77). Dillman (1978) noted that a comprehensively planned approach to conducting a survey can be an extremely effective method for collecting data. Personal interviews can provide the researcher with extensive materials and in-depth insight that supplements that of the written survey.

This study is a descriptive research study using a written survey supplemented by face-to-face interviews with selected survey respondents. This study will examine the career orientations of women employed at non-managerial levels in occupations not usually considered professions.

THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Three instruments for collecting data were used in this study: (a) a questionnaire designed by the researcher to gather demographic data and which requested respondents to rank six specific organizational employee career

development activities in order of their personal willingness to participate in them; (b) Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire; and (c) a structured interview format. The demographic questionnaire and the Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) required subjects to respond using paper and pencil. The structured interview format required subjects to respond verbally to questions in a face-to face interview situation.

The researcher designed a demographics questionnaire which asked each respondent completing the Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) to indicate: age; employment title; years of paid work experience; education level completed; and contact information. Respondents were also asked to rank in order of personal preference six commonly used organizational employee career development activities: (a) in-depth self-assessment through testing; (b) identification of a personal career path; (c) computer aided instruction and information systems; (d) workshop and training events; (e) individual career development plans; and (f) identification of high potential employees.

The Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) is a forced choice instrument of thirty items which requires

individuals completing it to choose, between two statements per item, the statement which is the most accurate personal description. The Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) identifies five career orientations:

1. Getting Ahead--the traditional pursuit of success by advancing up the organizational hierarchy to achieve prestige, status, and high income.

2. Getting Free--the desire to escape from organizational restrictions and maintain a sense of personal autonomy.

3. Getting Secure--a desire for a sense of security, belonging, and loyalty to the organization.

4. Getting High--the pursuit of excitement, creativity, and challenge within work tasks themselves.

5. Getting Balanced--the desire to achieve an equilibrium between professional and personal life.

The Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) may be self-scored by adding statements having the same code letter to determine intensities of the different career orientations. A graph is supplied which allows the individual to plot the intensities of resulting career orientations. The orientation having the greatest intensity is the individual's career orientation. One

possible result is that no single career orientation will be identified for the individual due to intensities being the same for one or more orientations. Individuals whose career orientations are identified as having "weak" to "average" intensities may actually have no internal career orientation developed (Derr, personnel communication, March 1, 1989).

Derr refined the Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) during his work with students pursuing master's degrees in business administration at the American University/National Training Laboratory Institute of Applied Behavior Science Program. Test validity was assessed through in-depth interviewing with these students. Test-retest reliability coefficients on the different career anchors ranged in the seventies. The structured interview format used in this study to identify attitudes, values and motivations toward work (Appendix D) was also based on interview questions used by Derr (1986) in his work with master's degree seeking students (Derr, personal communication, April 30, 1987). Specific questions were modified by the researcher according to Taylor and Bogdan (1984). Interview techniques suggested by R. L. Gordon (1980) were used throughout the study.

A pilot study was conducted with 10 women employed in secretarial and clerical positions at Virginia Tech. This study demonstrated that these women were able to understand and supply the information requested by the demographic questionnaire, and that they also were able to complete and self-score Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. The pilot study suggested modification of the structured interview was needed for question clarification and to insure areas relevant to career orientation were included. The original structured interview format can be found in Appendix C. The assessment instruments used in the study can be found in Appendix D.

DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

The population for this study consisted of women employed at Virginia Tech at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in occupations such as secretary, computer operator, laboratory technician, and accounting and auditing clerk. The sample for this study was 165 women who represented all females who had participated in the university's Employee Career Development Workshops between 1980 and 1988 and who had continued their employment with Virginia Tech. These women were employed at Virginia Tech at the non-managerial (non-decision

making, non-policy making) level. Their names were obtained from Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program records.

Because the survey involved questioning women regarding their values, attitudes and perceptions about their careers, and regarding their preferences regarding specific career development activities, only former participants of the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops were asked to take part in this study. The rationale for this was based upon Crystal (1982) who suggested that in order for employees to be able to meaningfully participate in organizational employee career planning processes they must be first educated in their own career planning processes.

> ...if individuals cannot define the issues clearly and do not even know what their personal criteria are, they can hardly be expected to contribute to the success of any program dependent upon input from both sides. I know of only one way to close this gap: teach the individual how to conduct her or his own self-assessment and how to clearly define her or his own job, career and life objectives and goals

before participating in a joint employer-employee planning process (Crystal, 1982).

Women who had participated in the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops were considered to have had opportunities for self-assessment and to gain insight regarding their own career goals. These past participants of the Employee Career Development Workshops had been exposed to various career development activities and were believed to be knowledgeable regarding what specific career development activities were likely to encompass.

DATA COLLECTION

A memorandum issued jointly by the Training Specialist in charge of Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program and the researcher, was sent to 165 women who had participated in the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops between 1980 and 1988, and who had continued to be employed by Virginia Tech. This memorandum requested these women to complete an attached demographic questionnaire and Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. Instructions for self-scoring the Career Success Map Questionnaire (Derr, 1986) were included. As suggested by Dillman (1978), a hard peppermint candy was stapled to the memorandum to provide

an incentive to complete and return the surveys. A copy of this memorandum is presented in Appendix D.

Eighty-two (52%) of the past workshop participants returned completed survey forms by the deadline stated on the memorandum. During the following week, the researcher attempted to contact by telephone the past workshop participants who had failed to return completed survey forms. It was found that nine of the 165 past workshop participants were no longer employees of Virginia Tech. Past workshop participants whom the researcher was able to contact were urged to return their completed surveys. Twelve of these women stated they had not received the memorandum with the attached surveys. Surveys were then sent to these women who said they had not previously received them.

From 156 past workshop participants receiving surveys, 122 returned surveys. Of these, 116 (74%) surveys were completed with sufficient demographic data and had indicated a career orientation so as to be usable for research purposes.

Surveys were returned to the Training Specialist in charge of the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program. She sorted the surveys into groups by career orientation. None of the women completing the survey was

identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Ahead career orientation. The Training Specialist chose five women having the highest intensity orientation in each of the other four career orientations identified for these women by Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire to be asked to participate in the follow-up structured interview.

Contact information for these twenty women was provided to the researcher by the Training Specialist. The researcher was given no information regarding the career orientations of these women at this time. The selected women were contacted by the researcher who made arrangements with each for face-to-face interviews. Two women declined to be interviewed. The Training Specialist supplied the researcher with names of two other women, who also had high intensity orientations in the appropriate career orientation, to serve as replacements.

The researcher arranged to conduct a half hour interview with each of these women in her work setting if a private area was available where such an interview could be conducted without interruption. This facilitated the willingness of the women to be interviewed as they could then be interviewed on their break times and lose no actual work time for an interview. In some cases, women

were unable to obtain a private area in their work settings and preferred to come to the researcher's office for the structured interview.

Because the structured interviews touched on sensitive areas such as disliked work tasks and irritants in the work situation, most of these women indicated they preferred the interviewer take paper and pencil notes during the interview rather than use an electronic recording device. The same interview instructions (Appendix D) were given to each of these women. The interviewer used probe questions to clarify answers which were not clear. Interviews lasted between 20 and 45 minutes dependent upon each woman's willingness to answer and to expand upon her responses.

DATA ANALYSIS

To facilitate analysis, some data from the surveys was coded in the form of numbers. Employment titles were converted into nominal scale data. Numbers used for coding purposes were assigned according to the responses and had no numerical meaning beyond categorizing respondents into the occupational groups of: (a) secretary; (b) computer operator; (c) laboratory technician; and (d) accounting and auditing clerk. Career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success

Map Questionnaire were also converted into nominal data. No respondents to the survey were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Ahead career orientation. Respondents were categorized into the career orientations of: (a) Getting Free; (b) Getting Secure; (c) Getting High; (d) Getting Balanced; and into a fifth category, (e) "other," which encompassed those respondents whose career orientation was not clearly identified. All respondents to the survey indicated they had completed at least a high school education. Educational levels were recoded to indicate if a respondent had: (a) completed high school; (b) completed vocational, or business school; (c) completed some college courses; or (d) completed a college degree, either at a two year or four year college. These survey responses converted to nominal scale data and other numerical responses to the survey were analyzed using the software package, Number Cruncher Statistical System (1987).

The demographic survey was designed specifically to answer the first three research questions. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze data from the demographic questionnaire. Means were computed to determine: (a) the average age of the women; (b) the average number of years they had participated in the paid work force; and (c)

their average salary. Frequency distributions were determined for: (a) state pay grades; (b) occupational groups; (c) educational levels attained; and (d) career orientations as identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

Inferential statistics were used to answer the first, second and third research questions. The first research question was answered by a chi square test of independence to determine if women's career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were independent of their occupations. The second research question was answered by analysis of variance to determine if there were significant differences in age, education levels, and length of time in paid employment among the four different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified for these women. The third research question was answered by analysis of variance to determine if preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities differed significantly among the four different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified for these women. Analysis of variance also determined if there were significant

differences among these women's indicated preferences for specific organizational career development activities.

The structured interview format was specifically designed to answer to the fourth and fifth research questions. Responses to the structured interview were reformatted into answer categories. In analyzing the content of the structured interviews, it was found that certain questions on the structured interview elicited direct responses, while others did not. Interviewees who did not respond directly to some of the structured interview questions tended to volunteer other information about their jobs and attitudes, values and motivations toward work. For ease of analysis, the researcher reformatted each interviewee's responses to the structured interview into responses to specific interview questions and comments made by respondents on other topical areas. Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, and 12 from the structured interview were retained as answer categories. Because interviewees tended not to respond directly to questions 5, 7, 8, and 11 from the structured interview, these were reformatted into the answer categories of: (a) comments made about desire to work; (b) comments made about positive aspects of the job; (c) comments made about relationships with supervisors/managers; and (d) comments

made about career advancement. Appendix E presents the answer categorization.

Both the researcher Training Specialist compared the categorized responses with the descriptions of career orientations on Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire to identify each interviewee's career orientation. The researcher had no knowledge of which career orientation Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire had identified each women interviewed as holding. Although the Training Specialist had selected the women to be interviewed, the categorized responses for each interviewee were identified only by number when given to the Training Specialist, so she had no knowledge of any respondent's name or the career orientation identified for her by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

The answer to the fourth research question was determined by tabulating the categorized responses for each interviewee by her career orientation as identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. The tabulated responses were examined for any emerging themes distinct to each career orientation identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

The answer to the fifth research question was determined by comparing the career orientation identified

for each interviewee: (a) by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire; (b) by the researcher using the categorized structured interview responses; and (c) by the Training Specialist using the categorized structured interview responses. When the career orientation identified for an interviewee by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire did not match the career orientation identified for the interviewee by the researcher or by the Training Specialist, they reexamined the structured interview responses attempting to:

1. Identify response patterns which might indicate the likelihood of fit into other career orientations identified by research such as: (a) technical/functional competence; (b) entrepreneurial creativity; (c) service; (d) organizational identity and (e) variety. This analysis was done by comparison of those responses to both Schein's (1987) description of those career orientations and DeLong's (1984) statements on his Career Orientations Inventory.

2. Identify response patterns of commonly held values, attitudes and motivations toward work which might indicate career orientations which had not been identified in previous research.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the objectives of this study, the research methodology, the data collection instruments and procedures and the methods of data analysis. Tables were constructed to display the data collected and are presented in Chapter IV with comments and discussion.

Chapter IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data analysis and results of the demographic questionnaire, of Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, and of the structured interviews. The chapter is divided into three sections: (a) a description of the subjects who were the sample for the survey; (b) the results of Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire; and (c) the findings with respect to each research question.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

The population for this study were women workers at Virginia Tech employed at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in traditionally female occupations not usually considered professions. The sample for this study was 156 women employed in non-managerial positions as secretaries, computer operators, laboratory technicians, and accounting and auditing clerks. Members of the sample were chosen specifically because they had participated in Virginia Tech's Employee Career Development Workshops between 1980 and 1988. These past Workshop participants had been exposed to career development concepts and activities and had opportunities to gain insight on their own career goals.

The employment titles of these women were converted into nominal scale data, categorizing them into the occupational groups of: (a) secretary; (b) computer operator; (c) laboratory technician, and (d) accounting and auditing clerk. The distribution of respondents in these occupational categories to the distribution of numbers of people employed in these occupational categories at Virginia Tech is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution in Selected Occupational Categories at Virginia Tech

	Sample		Population	
Occupation	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Secretary	71	61.2	911	68.2
Computer Operator	6	5.2	18	1.3
Laboratory Technician	10	8.6	200	15.0
Accounting & Auditing Clerk	29	25.0	207	15.5
Totals	116	100	1336	100

Of the 116 female past participants of Virginia Tech's Employee Career Development Workshops who returned surveys having sufficient data for research purposes, only two failed to indicate their ages or years in the paid work force. The ages of these respondents ranged from 22 to 62 years, the mean being 37.4 years of age with a standard deviation of 8.6 years. While computer operators were on average the younger (M = 34, SD = 3.6), and secretaries on average older (M = 37.8, SD = 1), no significant differences existed between the ages of the women employed in these four occupations. These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 1 in Appendix F.

These respondents had been in the paid work force between 3 and 35 years, the mean being 16.5 years with a standard deviation of 6.4 years. Women employed as accounting/auditing clerks had the longest of time in paid employment (M = 17.5, SD = 1.2) and computer operators had the shortest time in paid employment (M = 13.4, SD = 2.6), however, there was no significant difference between the length of time in paid employment in the four occupations. These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 2 in Appendix F.

Despite the commonly held belief that women are often part time or temporary workers who drop in and out of the paid work force, these women appeared to be

permanent participants in the paid work force. Comparison of their average age and their average length of time in paid employment suggested these women entered the paid work force in their late teens and twenties and have not had extensive times when they were not part of the paid work force. Many of these women would have been born in the 1950s, and would have entered employment in the 1970s when it began to be the norm for women to join the work force as permanent participants.

On Virginia's graded pay scale for state employees, which has grades from 1 to 23, these women ranged between grade 2 and grade 12 with 66.4% of them falling into grades 5 and 6. For Virginia state employees, the grade held is equivalent to the salary level. The women in this sample earned salaries ranging between $12,488.63 and $29,959.00 a year. The average salary was $18,368.82 with a standard deviation of $3009.04.

A significant difference was found between salaries in the occupations in which these women were employed, $F(3, 112) = 13.77$, $p < .001$. Computer operators had the highest average salary (M = $22,101.16, SD = $1,063.94), followed by laboratory technicians (M = $21,707.77, SD = $824.13), accounting and auditing clerks (M = $18,964.79, SD = $483.95), and secretaries (M = $17,339.71, SD = $309.29). These results are presented in ANOVA Summary

Table 3 in Appendix F. No significant differences were found in the salaries of these employees based on their length of time in paid employment. These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 4 in Appendix F.

As indicated in Table 2, over one-third of these women had completed at least a two year college degree, while almost one half had taken some college courses. For purposes of analysis, all women completing college degrees, either two year, four year, or graduate degrees, were considered as a group.

Table 2

Education Level of the Sample

Education Achieved	Frequency	Percent
High School Graduate	17	14.7
Vocational, trade or business school after high school	9	7.7
Attended some college courses	53	45.7
Completed a two year college degree	9	7.8
Completed a four year college degree	24	20.7
Completed a graduate degree	4	3.4
Totals	116	100

Significant differences were found the levels of education achieved by women in the different occupations, $F(3, 112) = 5.09$, $p < .05$. Laboratory technicians had the highest levels of education followed by computer operators, secretaries and accounting and auditing clerks. These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 5 in Appendix F. An analysis of variance also showed significant differences in salaries for levels of education achieved, $F(3, 112) = 4.25$, $p.<.05$. Women who had completed a college degree had the highest average salary (M = \$19,689.37, SD = \$474.96), which was significantly different from those who had only completed some college courses, and who also had the lowest average salary (M = \$17,484.03, SD = \$396.84). These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 6 in Appendix F.

The significant differences in salaries for those who have completed a college degree and those who have only completed some college courses may be explained by hiring policies at Virginia Tech which place more emphasis on experiences appropriate to the position than on education achieved. Due to the competitive applicant pool available to the university, most women hired in occupations with higher starting salaries, such as laboratory technician and computer operator, have completed college degrees.

RESULTS OF DERR'S (1986) CAREER SUCCESS MAP QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 3 shows the frequency distribution of career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire for the sample.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution of Sample's Career Orientations as Identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire

Career Orientation	Frequency	Percent
Balanced	40	34.5
Secure	27	23.3
Free	18	15.5
High	7	6.0
Ahead	0	0.0
Other	24	20.7
Total	116	100

Comparison was made of the intensities with which the different career orientations were held. The higher the intensity score, the greater the intensity with which the career orientation is held. On Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, career orientations with intensity scores above eight are considered strongly held

while those below eight are considered held with average intensity. As no member of the sample was identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Ahead career orientation, the Getting Ahead career orientation was not included in the statistical analysis of the intensities of the career orientations.

Analysis of variance showed significant differences in the intensities of the career orientations held by members of the sample, $F(4, 111) = 7.89$, $p < .001$. The Getting Balanced career orientation was held with the greatest intensity ($M = 9.73$, $SD = .16$), followed by the Getting Secure career orientation ($M = 9.33$, $SD = .20$), the Getting Free career orientation ($M = 9.28$, $SD = .24$), and the Getting High career orientation ($M = 8.57$, $SD = .39$). The category designation "other" referred to cases where a single career orientation could not be identified. This category had the lowest intensity ($M = 8.29$, $SD = .21$). These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 7 in Appendix F.

These intensity scores indicate all the career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified these women as having were held with strong intensity. This result suggested that these career orientations were probably accurately identified as being held by these women. The cases designated in the

"other" category could be explained two ways: 1.) these women do not have an internalized career orientation; or 2.) their internalized career orientations were not accurately identified by Derr's (1986) instrument. The fact that the "other" category intensity scores were slightly above average suggests that the latter possibility may be the more likely. These women may hold attitudes, values, and motivations towards work which may be highly compatible with those career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire but these women may actually have career orientations which can not be identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO EACH RESEARCH QUESTION

Chapter III outlined the analysis conducted to answer each of the research questions. The arrangement of this section will be to state the research question and then to provide a summary of the data analysis.

1.) Are women's career orientations as identified by Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire independent of their occupations?

A chi square test of independence showed no relationship between these women's career orientations and their occupations.

2.) Are there significant differences in women's ages, education levels, or length of time in paid employment among the different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

Analysis of variance showed no significant differences in these women's ages, education levels, or in length of time in paid employment among the career orientations these women were identified as having. These results are presented in Summary ANOVA Tables 8 - 10 in Appendix F.

3.) Do women having different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire express significantly different preferences for various organizational employee career development activities?

Analysis of variance showed no significant differences among women having different career orientations in their preferences for the following commonly used organizational employee career development activities: (a) in-depth self-assessment through testing; (b) identification of a personal career path; (c) computer aided instruction and information systems; (d) workshop and training events; (e) developing individual career development plans; and (f) identification of high

potential employees. These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Tables 11 - 16 in Appendix F.

However, as a group, these women did indicate significantly different preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities, $F(5, 616) = 10.22$, $p < .001$. These results are presented in ANOVA Summary Table 17 in Appendix F.

As a group, these women ranked organizational employee career development activities as follows from most to least preferred: (a) identification of an personal career path; (b) in-depth self-assessment through testing; (c) workshop and training events; (d) developing individual career development plans; (e) computer aided instruction and information systems and (f) identification of high potential employees. As a group, these women preferred identifying high potential employees significantly less than any other organizational employee career development activity. As a group, their perference for computer aided instruction and information systems was significantly less than their preference for identification of a personal career path.

4.) Do structured interviews with selected women who have different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work?

This section reports on the responses to the structured interviews. The arrangement for this section will be to give the structured interview question or answer categorization and to tabulate the number of interviewees' in each career orientation identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire who made similar responses. As no respondents in the sample were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Ahead career orientation, the Getting Ahead career orientation does not appear on the following tables. Of the women interviewed, not all provided responses to each question. Other women offered more than one response to a single question. For this reason, the total of the percentages may be less than or exceed 100% on the following tables.

Question: What kinds of work assignments or tasks do you like best?

Table 4 shows the career orientations and responses of the interviewees to the first question of the structured interview which asked respondents to specify what work assignments or job tasks they liked best. Most popular were tasks that were seen as important, significant or worthwhile, followed by challenging tasks, and those dealing with people. As indicated on Table 4, women with differing career orientations stated these were qualities of the work assignments or tasks which they liked best.

Table 4

Types of Tasks Interviewees Liked Best

Aspects of Tasks	Career Orientation				Percent
	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	
Important, significant, worthwhile tasks	2	2	1	2	35
Challenging	2	3	0	1	30
Working with people	0	2	1	2	25
Planning	1	0	1	2	20
Learning	2	0	1	1	20
Responsi-bility	0	3	0	1	20
Problem solving requiring analytical thought	1	1	1	0	15
Autonomy or indepen-dence	2	0	1	0	15
Decision making powers	1	0	1	0	10
Organizing	1	0	0	1	10

Question: What kinds of assignments "turn you off?" What tasks or events do you dislike most?

Work assignments which were routine or involved repetition were most disliked by the interviewees. State regulations or procedures which were referred to as "the system" or "red tape" were also frequently mentioned as an aspect of their jobs these women disliked. Table 5 shows these job aspects and the career orientations of the women who expressed dislike for these aspects.

Table 5

Dislike About the Job

	Career Orientation				
Negative Aspects	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
Routine, repetitious things	3	2	1	4	50
The system; red tape	0	3	1	0	20
Vague problems; lengthy problems	0	1	1	0	10
Inadequate preparation times before deadlines or changes	0	1	1	0	10
Lack of challenge	0	1	1	0	10

Question: What do you see as your major professional strengths or talents?

Being efficient, having the ability to get along with people, and being organized were work strengths that these women most often assessed themselves as having. Table 6 shows these work strengths and the career orientations of the women who said they had them.

Table 6

Work Strengths

	Career Orientation				
Work Strengths	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
Efficient	0	4	1	4	45
Able to get along with people	3	2	1	2	40
Organized	0	0	2	5	35
Dependable	0	1	1	2	20
Good attitude toward job	2	0	1	1	20
Good problem solving skills	1	1	2	0	20

Question: What would you consider some of your weaknesses effecting your job at Tech?

Many of these women were unwilling or unable to identify personal weaknesses that would effect their jobs. Not being assertive enough and lacking self-confidence were most frequently identified as weaknesses. Other weaknesses included being inflexible and not able to deal well with change or interruptions, lacking education and being impatient to the point of having difficulty focusing attention or losing one's temper. Table 7 shows the weakness and the career orientations of the women who identified themselves as having these weaknesses.

Table 7

Weaknesses Effecting Your Job

	Career Orientation				
Weaknesses	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
Not assertive	0	1	1	1	15
Lack self-confidence	1	1	0	1	15
Inflexible	0	0	1	1	10
Lack of education	1	1	0	0	10
Impatient	0	0	1	1	10

Question: Everyone has a pet peeve, something about their work situation that "bugs" them. What sort of things at work offend or irritate you most?

Questioning about pet peeves induced comments from the interviewees regarding supervisors and managers so frequently that these are dealt with as a separate answer category. Other pet peeves of these women focused on co-workers who were characterized as inconsiderate, having poor attitudes, or as given to gossip or "pettiness." Working in offices divided only by partitions or having their work areas centered in the middle of offices so as to lack privacy was another pet peeve. Co-workers that "goof-off" and the "arbitrary rules" of the "system" which support this were the next most commonly stated pet peeves. One women expressed this succinctly:

> -- Merit increases and people who do just enough to get them. The state system supports people just getting by. Everyone gets the same increase but everyone doesn't work the same. People who do bad jobs don't get fired. Supervisors are afraid to [fire them] because of the system.

Table 8 shows the pet peeves and career orientations of women identifying these irritants.

Table 8

Pet Peeves

	Career Orientation				
Irritant	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
Co-Worker Inconsideration	2	1	2	2	35
Lack of Privacy	1	1	0	0	15
Arbitrary Rules	1	0	1	0	10
Goofing off co-workers	0	2	0	0	10

Question: If all restrictions were eliminated and none of the rules applied, what would be the best reward that your supervisor could give you? What would motivate you the most?

Asked what would be the best, most motivating, reward they could receive, the majority of these women indicated they desired flexible working hours. Other rewards such as money and feedback building self-esteem were also frequently mentioned. Another perspective regarding the time spent on the job was a desire to compress the work week to 4 work days of 10 hours each or simply to earn more leave time. Other fringe benefits, such as insurance and tuition waivers, and a desire for more responsibility were also mentioned as rewards. Table 9 shows the rewards desired and the career orientations of women endorsing these rewards.

Table 9

Rewards Promoting Motivation

Desired Reward	Career Orientation				Percent
	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	
Flexitime	0	4	3	2	45
More Money	3	1	2	0	30
Praise	1	1	1	2	25
Compress work week /more leave	0	1	2	0	15
Fringe Benefits	0	2	0	0	10
More Responsibility	1	0	1	0	10

Question: What are the things--the causes, people, or tasks--to which you are most dedicated?

These women most frequently responded that their dedication was given to their families and to a Christian life. Many specifically said that outside of work, their families came first. As indicated in Table 10, this occurred across all career orientations:

Table 10

To What Are You Most Dedicated?

	Career Orientation				
Dedicated to	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percentage
Christian life	2	4	4	1	55
Family first	2	2	3	2	45

Question: Of what single thing in your work life are you most proud?

When asked what they were most proud of in their work life, the majority of these women indicated their ability to get along with others. Being dependable and receiving support from their superiors were other aspects of their work life of which these women were proud. Table 11

indicates what these women were most proud of in their work life and their career orientations.

Table 11

Most Proud of in Work Life

	Career Orientation				
Most Proud	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
I get along with others	0	3	1	0	20
I'm dependable	1	2	0	0	15
I get support from my bosses	1	2	0	0	15
I can handle the work load	0	0	1	1	10
I do a good job	0	1	0	1	10
I get high performance evaluations & I've had promotions	1	1	0	0	10

Answer category: Desire to work

Having to work because of financial need appeared to be a given aspect of these women's lives. When asked what kept them working, the immediate response of many of these women was "money." Over half of these women made comments which indicated that having to work for money was an expected part of their lives. These included:

-- I have to eat and I have bills to pay.

-- I have house payments; car payments.

-- I need the money to pay the bills.

-- I'm at Tech because I need a job.

-- Money, of course, with a family and two children.

-- I'd work part time but I have full time bills.

-- If I were financially able I'd like to work part time.

-- I have to work to survive.

However, many of the women interviewed also commented on their desire to work and reasons they had for working in addition to financial gain. Most of them indicated they would prefer to work fewer hours or part time. Many mentioned that the social contact work provided was

motivation to continue working. Others noted that work provided rewards such as feedback which built their self esteem. Table 12 shows the responses these women indicated regarding their desire to work, the reasons influencing their desire to work and their career orientations.

Table 12

Desire to Work

	Career Orientation				
Desire & Reasons	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
Work for financial reasons	3	2	2	4	55
Prefer to less hours or part time	2	1	2	3	40
Social contact keeps me working	1	2	1	3	30
I get feedback building self-esteem	1	1	0	1	15
I would work anyway	1	1	0	0	10
I don't want to work	0	0	0	1	5

Answer category: Positive aspects of the job

Some of the women interviewed volunteered aspects of their jobs which they found positive. Receiving praise and being allowed to come and go freely or being allowed flexitime were positive aspects these women cited most frequently. Table 13 shows these aspects of the job and the career orientations of the women who held them as positive.

Table 13

Positive Aspects of the Job

	Career Orientation				
Positive Aspects	High	Secure	Free	Balanced	Percent
Provides reinforcement/builds self esteem	2	2	1	2	35
Allowed flexitime	2	0	2	0	20
Classes, tuition waiver & other benefits	0	2	1	0	15
Social contacts & relationships	0	2	0	0	10

Answer category: Comments regarding relationships with supervisors and managers.

While not specifically asked about their relationship with their supervisors and managers, many of these women made comments regarding their supervisors and managers. These comments were so individualized they did not lend themselves to categorization. These results are reported by a sample of typical responses.

Ten women made critical comments about their supervisors and managers. These focused on the lack of management skills shown by supervisors and inequities between supervisors and employees. A sample of the typical comments included:

> -- Front line supervisors need to work on management skills. They need to treat women as more than coffee getters or laundry picker-uppers. A goal is not to be a surrogate office wife. I have a problem with people who treat us as little pink skirts back there.

> -- There's poor management and little concern for people. People are disposable; the attitude is, "We'll get someone else."

-- Here at Tech the faculty and students are on top. The staff is not important. The staff is unbelievably at the bottom of the ladder.

--The quality of supervision is poor. There is great inequity among individuals at the same grade level regarding the work they are expected to do. Everyone at the same grade should have the same level of responsibility.

-- Professors can be rude, crude and obnoxious chauvinistic pigs. They have bull sessions where they can be purposefully overheard and make sexual innuendos. I've left positions because of that.

--I've dealt with inconsiderate staff who treat classified poorly. Treated secretaries like dirt.

Other negative comments indicated that supervisors thought only of themselves first, did not set worthy examples, did not allow input from classified employees, and were not people trustworthy of confidence.

Six women made positive comments regarding their supervisors. These focused on promoting professional growth and development and providing positive feedback and included:

> -- Here we are encouraged to go to classes, encouraged in our professional development. There's trust and praise for a job well done.

> -- My supervisors in both the past and present have given me encouragement and opportunity to grow.

> -- I like my boss. I was worried about her being a female. She understands because she has a kid the same age as mine. Feedback I get from my bosses tell me how much they appreciate what I do.

> -- I have five wonderful bosses who treat me nicely.

Those who made positive comments about their supervisors often referred to themselves as fortunate that they had this particular supervisor, noting that others

employees in similar positions had difficulty with their supervisors. One woman who made positive statements about her supervisor commented, "I'm proud of my role as a liaison between the classified employees and the administration because classified don't feel comfortable with the administration."

Answer category: Career Advancement

Seven women made reference to frustrations they had experienced when attempting to advance their careers. All these comments indicate some sort of blockage to advancement. These comments are at least partly explanatory as to why no women in this sample had a Getting Ahead career orientation. A Getting Ahead career orientation would be an unrealistic expectation for these women:

> -- My boss has a PhD in physics. There's no way I can aspire to his job. It's a very flat management structure.

> -- Its frustrating being held back and not being able to move up to a better position. Tech wants applicants to have skills, but if your office doesn't allow you to develop them, there will be no position for which you are qualified. There's no room for advancement. It's

frustrating because you can't acquire supervisory skills in this office.

-- There's no reward for doing better than the minimum except self satisfaction. More money would help tremendously. If I knew the harder I worked, the more money I could make. But you can only go so far and you reach the top long before retirement. So there's no real incentive.

As Tables 4 through 13 show, structured interview responses did not indicate distinct differences in the attitudes, values, and motivations toward work of women having different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. Women having different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire often shared the same attitudes, values and motivations toward work.

For example, Tables 7 and 10 show that women with Getting High, Getting Free, and Getting Secure career orientations all commented negatively about "arbitrary rules," "the system," and its "red tape." Table 6 shows women with Getting High, Getting Secure and Getting Balanced career orientations all liked challenging jobs.

Table 7 shows women having Getting Secure and Getting Free career orientations also noted that lack of a challenge was a quality of work they most disliked. Tables 6 and 11 show being given responsibility was a quality best liked in a job and was considered rewarding by women with Getting Secure, Getting Balanced, Getting High, and Getting Free career orientations. Table 8 shows being dependable identified as a work strength by women with Getting Secure, Getting Free, and Getting Balanced career orientations. Being dependable was also the single thing a women with a Getting High career orientation was most proud of in her work life (Table 13).

That structured interview responses indicated no distinct differences could be identified in the work attitudes, values, and motivations of women having differing high intensity career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire was further borne out by the lack of success both the researcher and Training Specialist experienced when attempting to determine the career orientation Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified each interviewee as having (Table 14), based only upon that interviewee's responses to the structured interview.

Table 14

Career Orientations Identified for Each Interviewee

	Career Orientation			
Interviewee	High	Secure	Free	Balanced
#1	A		C	B
#13	A			B,C
#14	A		B	C
#15	A,B			C
#20	A,B	C		
#6	B	A,C		
#8	B	A,C		
#10		A,B,C		
#11		A,C	B	
#17		A		B,C
#2		C	A,B	
#4		B,C	A	
#5	C		A	B
#9	B	C	A	
#12		C	A	B
#3		B,C		A
#7		B,C		A
#16		B,C		A
#18			B	A,C
#19		C	B	A

Note. A - Career orientation identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. B - Career orientation identified by researcher. C - Career orientation identified by Training Specialist.

The researcher identified the same career orientation as Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire for four (20%) of the interviewees. The Training Specialist identified the same career orientation as Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire for five (25%) of the interviewees. These results suggested structured interviews with women having different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire did not indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work.

Using the responses from the structure interview to attempt to identify the interviewee's career orientation, the researcher and Training Specialist agreed in seven (35%) cases on the interviewee's career orientation. Only in one (5%) of these cases was the career orientation agreed upon the same as that identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

In all of the cases where the researcher and Training Specialist agreed in their identification of interviewees' career orientation, the career orientations identified for the interviewees were either Getting Secure or Getting Balanced. In three (15%) of the seven cases, the researcher and Training Specialist identified interviewees as having Getting Secure career orientations when Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified them as

having Getting Balanced career orientations. In one case the converse occurred: the researcher and Training Specialist identified an interviewee as having a Getting Balanced career orientation, when Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire indicated she had a Getting Secure career orientation.

From their analysis of the structured interview responses, the researcher and the Training Specialist had a higher rate of agreement with each other in the career orientations they assigned these women than with the career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified these women as having. This was particularly true for the Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations, which, as noted previously, were identified in the total sample as being the career orientations held with the strongest intensities. It is possible that, while they may also have wanted other things from their work, many of the basic attitudes, values, and motivations these women had toward their work were most compatible with the Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations.

That women having other career orientations may hold basic values, attitudes and motivations toward work compatible with the Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations was further borne out by two trends in

the analysis of structured interview responses. First, although they have become permanent work force participants, women in the 1980s still bear the primary responsibility for homemaking and child rearing. Across all career orientations identified by Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire, 45% of the women in this sample said their families came first and 40% stated they would prefer to work part time, specifically so they could have more time for their families, indicating attitudes, values, and motivations toward work compatible with those of the Getting Balanced career orientation. Secondly, these women accepted that they had to work to meet financial needs and considered that the state offered employment which was reliable and structured so they could best meet these needs and their family obligations, again indicating attitudes, values, and motivations toward work which would be compatible with a Getting Secure career orientation. This could explain why, despite their numerous complaints about the management and organizational administration, these women were willing to continue to work at the university. Structured interview responses which supported these trends included:

-- My family is number one. While I try to do the best I can in whatever job I'm in, I don't let work interfere with my family. I don't want work to mean more than my family.

--I don't put my job first. It's not most important or I would be more involved.

-- I don't know of any better place to meet family obligations than here.

-- Virginia Tech has offered me the best job I've every had. The fringe benefits make the difference. Weekends off, insurance and leave time. Security counts a lot with me.

--It has some non-monetary benefits I want like flexible time off on long or short notice. It's a more relaxed atmosphere than in some places.

This seems to suggest that some of the attitudes, values, and motivations toward work held by individuals with Getting Secure and Getting Balanced career orientations may be congruent. On a continuum of career

orientations, Getting Secure may be closer to Getting Balanced than to Getting Ahead.

It also suggests the attitudes, values and motivations toward work of the Getting Secure and Getting Balanced career orientations, such as desire for predictability and stability in working life, and balance between personal and professional life, may form the foundations of what many women employed in traditionally female occupations at lower levels of organizational hierarchies want from their work. These attitudes, values, and motivations toward work could also be congruent with other career orientations such as a family career orientation, or an orientation rooted in the Protestant Work Ethic.

5.) Do structured interviews with selected women suggest they may have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire?

Another possibility would be that these women who seemed to have attitudes, values and motivations toward work highly compatible with the Getting Balanced or Getting Secure career orientations, may actually hold the family career anchor which was hypothesized by Huser (1980). She noted that some women's devotion to their families takes precedence over their work. Women with a

family career anchor tend to choose a career path which allows them to see their work as more of a job than a career. A family career anchor may be indicated in these structured interview responses:

-- I don't worry about the job in my off time. I can divorce from work.

-- I'd get paid no matter where I work, if not here, elsewhere.

Although they did not seem to be held with great intensity, other career orientations were suggested by some of the structured interview responses. These included: (a) a variety orientation; (b) a creativity orientation and (c) a technical competence orientation. The desire for variety was evidenced in that women across all the career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire stated that routine, repetitious tasks were those they most disliked. Also, a few of the women interviewed made specific comments that they liked variety in their work. One women interviewed stated that she liked being able to "put into her work creatively" and seemed to value the creative aspect of her work. This woman declared she was much happier in her

present job which allowed her to express her creativity than in her previous job which did not require creativity. Pride in their technical competence seemed most important to women who: (a) worked in highly specialized divisions of the university; (b) had been in one job for a considerable length of time; or (c) worked with computers. Structured interview responses that reflected a possible technical competence orientation included:

> -- I know the ropes real well and am an expert in this field.

> -- I know the job well because I've been here so many years.

Both the researcher and the Training Specialist noted trends in the structured interview responses which indicated some of these women might hold a career orientation which had not been identified in previous research. The researcher and the Training Specialist have proposed this career orientation be called the Social/Religious career orientation. This career orientation would be compatible with attitudes, values, and motivations toward work which have their roots in the Protestant Work Ethic.

The Social/Religious career orientation would be similar to the service career anchor in that the women holding it seemed to believe that through their work they were doing their best to improve the world. This is not unlike the Protestant Work Ethic belief that work promoted God's kingdom on earth. Also, like the Protestant Work Ethic, women having a Social/Religious career orientation seemed to believe they had been called to their work, or had been placed in their job for some higher purpose.

Many of the women having a career orientation which appeared to be Social/Religious stated they were very involved in their churches. They frequently indicated they wanted to be even more involved and felt they should do more in their churches. A typical statement was, "I want to do more church work. I teach Sunday School, but I need to be more active." Another noted, "I am devoted to my church and don't have any Sunday (for leisure). I don't really have any leisure time (because Saturday is devoted to homemaking tasks and Sunday devoted to church)."

Influencing those around them in a positive Christian manner seemed very important to women with a Social/Religious career orientation. Consequently, getting along with other people, avoiding criticism of others, which is referred to as backbiting, and not

thinking of oneself as better than others, were characteristics of women having a Social/Religious career orientation. This desire to avoid thinking of oneself as being better than others seemed so strong that many of these women with Social/Religious career orientations could not identify work areas in which they might do just a little better than their peers. Typically these women made statements such as, "I don't judge other people" and "everybody does a good job," even though they might identify co-workers' "goofing off" as a pet peeve. Interestingly, these women also seemed to have great difficulty in identifying personal weaknesses which might effect their job performances.

Getting along with others was considered a work strength by 40% of the women interviewed and was identified by 20% as the single thing in their work life of which they were most proud. Social contact on the job was rated by 30% of the women interviewed as a motivation to continue working while 10% noted social contacts were a positive aspect of their jobs. One woman interviewed spoke enthusiastically about how she was finally near to completing a college degree after using the tuition waiver available to take one course per term, for a period of years. Yet when asked of what she was most proud in her

work life, she unhesitatingly replied, "I can get along with anyone I work with."

Other statements from the structured interview responses which support the trend to a Social/Religious career orientation included:

> -- I have family obligations and I have religious spiritual reasons for being here. I'm intended to be here. It's hard to understand why. When I get the go ahead, I can leave.
>
> -- I will have left the world as a good Christian, wife, mother, daughter and employee. I am dedicated to maintaining a Christian attitude. I will go the extra mile to help someone who needs help.
>
> -- Everybody's a person and should be treated with due respect and with the love God taught us to give each other.
>
> -- I'd like to be remembered as a Christian being, kind and sympathetic, helping someone along the way.

--Mostly I try to follow the will of God. That's my major concern as a Christian.

The researcher and Training Specialist analyzed the structured interview responses for emerging themes which might indicate career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. Themes from structured interview responses which suggested these women might have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire included:

1. Dedication to a Christian lifestyle (Table 10) expressed by many of these women. This dedication influenced reasons for remaining at work and interactions with people at work.

2. Statements that family was more important than work (Table 10). Preference for working part time specifically so more time might be spent with family and on family concerns (Table 12).

3. Recognition that financial need, rather than career advancement, was a primary reason for working (Table 12).

4. Preference for work which could be seen as significant, meaningful and worthwhile (Table 4).

5. Preference for flexibility, autonomy, and freedom of choice at work (Tables 9 and 13).

6. Emphasis on social interaction as a motivation to continue working and pride in possession of good interpersonal skills (Tables 12 and 13).

7. Difficulty with critically judging self or others.

8. Dislike of repetitious, routine work (Table 5) and stated preferences for variety in work.

9. Pride in expertise either through specific skills development or mastery of the system.

10. Satisfaction from being able to be creative at work.

These trends from the structured interview responses, plus the fact that Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire did not clearly identify a career orientation for 20% of the women in this sample, suggested these women may have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. These career orientations may include: (a) a family orientation; (b) a variety orientation; (c) a creativity orientation; (d) a technical competence orientation; and (e) a social/religious career orientation.

SUMMARY

This chapter provided a description of the sample of the subjects for this study and the results of the data analysis for each research questions. Results of the data analysis showed:

1. There were no significant differences of age or length of time in paid employment among the women employed in the occupations of secretary, computer operator, laboratory technician, or accounting and auditing clerk. There were significant differences in levels of education and salaries among the women employed in the occupations of secretary, computer operator, laboratory technician, or accounting and auditing clerk.

2. No women in this sample were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Ahead career orientation. The majority of these women were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations. No single career orientation was identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire for 20% of the sample. Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire identified 15% of the sample as having a Getting Free career orientation and 6% of the sample as having a Getting High career orientation.

All of the career orientations were identified as being held with strong intensities.

3. No relationship was found between women's career orientations and their occupations. No significant differences in these women's ages, education levels, or length of time in paid employment were found among the career orientations these women were identified as having.

4. No significant differences were found in preferences for organizational employee career development activities among women identified as having different career orientations. As a group, these women's preferences for organizational employee career development activities did differ significantly.

5. Structured interviews with selected women who had different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire did not indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work. Structured interviews with selected women suggested they might have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire.

Comments on the results, conclusions, and recommendations for further study will be presented in Chapter IV.

Chapter V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter summarizes the following: purpose, objectives and justification for the study; the methodology and research procedures; the research findings; discussion of the research findings; and conclusions. Recommendations for further study are also presented.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine the career orientations of women employed at lower levels of an organizational hierarchy in occupations not usually considered professions. These women's preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities were determined. Their attitudes, values, and motivations toward work were described. Specifically, the objectives of this study were to determine:

1.) Are women's career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire independent of their occupations?

2.) Are there significant differences in women's ages, education levels, or length of time in paid employment among the different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

3.) Do women's preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities differ significantly among the different career orientations Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified the women as having?

4.) Do structured interviews with selected women who have different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work?

5.) Do structured interviews with selected women suggest they may have career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire?

The majority of working women in America are employed in traditionally female occupations at lower levels of organizational hierarchies. These traditionally female occupations are among those with the largest number of job openings, this however, is due to turnover rather than growth. As most organizations have greater numbers of positions in traditionally female occupations at lower levels of their organizational hierarchies, than higher level managerial positions, retaining good employees in these positions is important to organizational efficiency. Little research has been done on what women in these

positions want from their work life, how they view their career development within the organization and what organizational career development activities they prefer. Better understanding of the needs, attitudes, and values these women bring to their work should help in identifying the organizational challenges, rewards and career development opportunities that will motivate and retain females employees in non-managerial positions in support occupations.

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

A descriptive survey method was used to obtain information on the career orientations of women employed in traditionally female occupations at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. The women selected for the survey had been participants of the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops between 1980 and 1988 and had remained employed by Virginia Tech. These women were asked to supply demographic information and to rank specific organizational career development activities in order of their personal preferences. These women completed Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire to determine their career orientations.

Five women with high intensity career orientations in each of the career orientations identified for these women by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were

selected for follow up interviewing using a structured interview format based on Derr (1986).

The researcher, who conducted the interviews, had no knowledge of the career orientation identified for each of these women by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. The researcher attempted to determine from her interview responses which career orientation Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified each interviewee as holding. The researcher reformatted the interview responses into answer categories and identified each interviewee's responses by number only. Using the reformatted interview responses, the Training Specialist in charge of the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program attempted to identify which career orientation Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire identified each interviewee as holding.

The data was analyzed using inferential statistics and qualitative research methods. Survey responses were converted to nominal data as necessary. Survey responses were analyzed using the computer program, Number Cruncher Statistical System (1987). Data was reported by ANOVA Summary Tables. Interview responses were reformatted into answer categories and tabulated by career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to examine career orientations of women employed in occupations not usually considered professions at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. Five research objectives were designed to accomplish this purpose. The research findings have been summarized as follows:

Research question 1 was designed to determine if the career orientations identified for women by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were independent of their occupations. A chi square test of independence showed no relationship between these women's career orientations and their occupations.

Research question 2 was designed to determine if the career orientations identified for women by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were significantly different by the ages, education levels, or length of time in the paid work force of the women holding them. Analysis of variance showed no significant differences in these women's ages, education levels, or length of time in employment among the career orientations these women were identified as having.

Research question 3 was designed to determine if women identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having different career orientations, had

significantly different preferences among specific organizational employee career development activities. Analysis of variance showed no significant differences among women having different career orientations in their preferences for the following commonly used organizational employee career development activities: (a) in-depth self-assessment through testing; (b) identification of a personal career path; (c) computer aided instruction and information systems; (d) workshop and training events; (e) developing individual career development plans; and (f) identification of high potential employees.

Research questions 4 was designed to determine if women having different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire would indicate distinct differences in their attitudes, values and motivations toward work in their responses to a structured interview format. Analysis of the structured interview responses both from answer categories and from tabulation by career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire revealed no distinct differences in attitudes, values and motivations toward work among women having different career orientations.

Research question 5 was designed to determine if career orientations other than those identified by Derr's

(1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were suggested by structured interview responses. Analysis of answer categories suggested attitudes, values and motivations toward work which are congruent with Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations might also be compatible with a family or a social/religious career orientation. Other career orientations suggested by structured interview responses included: (a) a variety orientation; (b) a creativity orientation; and (c) a technical competence orientation.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Career Orientations Identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire

The majority (34.5%) of these women were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Balanced career orientation. This career orientation was also the one held with the greatest intensity, suggesting that, among the career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, Getting Balanced is one of the strongest and most accurately identified of the career orientations these women held.

The Getting Balanced career orientation may be equated with Schein's lifestyle career anchor which was first observed in the female graduates of the Sloan School

(Grzywacs, 1982; Huser, 1980; Schein, 1987). The balance of professional and personal life that individuals with this career orientation seek may be typical of women trying to cope with working while having primary responsibility for homemaking and child rearing. Schein (1987) noted that flexibility was the reward most valued by persons with a lifestyle career anchor.

The next greatest portion of the sample (23.3%) were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting Secure career orientation, which was also identified as being held with the next strongest intensity. Using Derr's (1986) conception of career orientations falling along a continuum (with Getting High and Getting Free at one end, Getting Ahead and Getting Secure at other end, and Getting Balanced in the middle), Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations would be compatible within the same organizational environment. It was not surprising to find many of these women holding Getting Secure career orientations for two reasons.

First, many of these women may be anchored in geographic security. During the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops women frequently commented that they were bound to the geographic area due to: (a) their spouses' employment; (b) their desire to be near

extended family; and (c) their desire to live and raise their children in a rural environment. In this area, Virginia Tech is the sole major employer which offers employment other than factory work to large numbers of people, consequently, individuals desiring to remain in the area often seek employment with the university.

Second, many of these women have been long time employees of the state which may provide a comfortable organizational environment for persons with a Getting Secure career orientation. Salary increases are almost automatic during the first eight years of employment with the state. State policies make dismissal of an employee difficult, so some supervisors will tolerate a minimum work performance rather than seek an employee's termination. This is evidenced in comments these women made regarding "goofing off" co-workers and the inequity of work performance expected by supervisors from employees of the same grade.

Given that the majority of women at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in this organization governed by state regulation have Getting Secure or Getting Balanced career orientations, it was not surprising that women with Getting Free and Getting High career orientation were identified in much smaller numbers. Again, this is in congruence with Derr's (1986) conception

of career orientations as falling along a continuum with Getting Free and Getting High polar opposites of Getting Secure and Getting Ahead. The organizational environment that would be comfortable to individuals with a Getting Secure orientation, would not be so to individuals with a Getting Free orientation.

Only a small percentage (6%) of women in this sample were identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having Getting High career orientations. Of the career orientations identified for this sample by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, Getting High was the career orientation held with the least intensity. This might imply that the women identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having a Getting High career orientation may highly value challenge in their work but may actually have some other career orientation not identified by Derr's Career Success Map Questionnaire. It is understandable that the Getting High career orientation might not be held with strong intensity by women in this sample in that the occupations in which these women were employed would seldom offer the challenge or excitement usually sought by individuals with Getting High career orientations.

In this sample, no women were identified by Derr's (1986) Career success Map Questionnaire as having a

Getting Ahead career orientation. As reported in Chapter IV, women who were interviewed often commented on blockages to career advancement which would be likely to frustrate individuals with Getting Ahead career orientations. These blockages included a flat management structure offering few career ladders, the need to achieve a high level of education to advance, and the difficulty of gaining experience necessary for promotion while on the job. These women may perceive advancing up the managerial hierarachy as an unrealistic expectation in this organization, both because of these blockage and because few women have achieved such advancement.

Why only small percentages of women in this sample had Getting Free and Getting High career orientations and that none had Getting Ahead career orientations could be explained by the fact that the sample was not randomly chosen. To insure these women were familiar with organizational employee career development concepts, only women who had participated in the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops between 1980 and 1988, and who were current employees of the university, were asked to participate in this study.

This selection of only women who had participated in the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program as the sample for this study could provide two explanations

as to why no women were identified as having a Getting Ahead career orientation and only a few were identified as having Getting Free or Getting High career orientations. Women participating in this study were likely to have been employees of the state for some time, and it may be assumed they have accepted the limitations of an organization administered by state regulations. Such an organizational environment may be more compatible with Getting Balanced or Getting Secure career orientations than with Getting Free, Getting High career orientations. Although Derr's (1986) suggested continuum of career orientations indicates the Getting Ahead career orientation at the same end of the continuum as the Getting Secure career orientation, this state regulated organizations may actually offer few opportunities for women employed at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy to advance. Women having Getting Free, Getting High or Getting Ahead career orientations may have participated in the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Workshops mainly as a means of preparing for a change of employer. Women having Getting Free, Getting High or Getting Ahead career orientations may have found employment with the state not compatible with their career orientations and consequently may have left employment with the university. Conversely, it is possible women

having Getting Free, Getting High or Getting Ahead career orientations may be so suited with the organizational environment of the state regulated university that they have not been likely to desire to participate in the Virginia Tech Employee Career Development Program and therefore would have had no opportunity to be a member of this sample.

There is support that Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire correctly identified some of the career orientations held by women employed in traditionally female positions at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. The career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire were indicated as being held with strong intensity. That the Getting Balanced and Getting Secure career orientations were correctly identified was supported by responses from the structured interviews which suggested many of the women employed at low levels of the organizational hierarchy wanted to balance their family and work lives, desired stability and security in their jobs, and desired to remain in the geographic locale. That none of the women interviewed stressed desire or motivation to advance up the organizational hierarchy supported the likelihood that none of these women had Getting Ahead career orientations. To be in the sample these women had been employed by the

state for some time and were employed in positions not usually inherently challenging which supported the correct identification of small percentage of women with Getting Free and Getting High career orientations.

When no single career orientation was identified for a woman by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire because of tied intensity scores, they were considered in the career orientation category, "other." Of the women in this sample, 20% fell into this category. As would be expected from the design of Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, this category was characterized by balanced profiles where intensity scores were about equal, by weaker intensity scores and by unconventional pairings of opposing career orientations such as Getting Ahead and Getting Free. Derr (1986) suggested that persons with such profiles may not be career directed or hold work as a central value in life. It also seemed possible that women falling into this category could hold career orientations other than those identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, but which have some the the attitudes, values and motivations toward work associated with the career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire.

Women's Preferences for Organizational Employee Career Development Activities

Both Derr (1986) and Schein (1978) have indicated that persons having differing career anchors/career orientations should prefer different organizational employee career development activities. However, the women in this sample did not indicate significantly different preferences for specific organizational employee career development activities among their different career orientations as identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire. When considered as a group, these women did indicate significantly different preferences among the specific organizational employee career development activities.

Overall, these women's preferences for organizational employee career development activities reflected a non-protean or non-self directed stance toward their career development. The activities they indicated as most preferred were the least threatening, minimized individual risk, and were more organization directed than individual directed. The activities these women indicated they most preferred were activities which would allow them to be passive and not assume personal responsibility for their career development.

These women were most willing to participate in having a personal career path identified, which suggested that rather than retain individual control and direction of their careers, they would like the organization to map out how their careers will progress. Making individual career plans was less preferred than self-assessment or workshop and training events. The fact that these women would rather participate in self-assessment activities and would rather have a career path identified for them than make individual career plans, suggested they may lack confidence in their own knowledge of themselves and what they want from their careers.

Neither self-assessment or workshop or training events necessarily require great initiative from the individual. Both the formation of individual career development plans, and the use of computer aided instruction and information systems, which were preferred less than identification of a personal career path or workshop and training events, may require more initiative from the individual. Also, more follow up from the individual may be implicit in formation of individual career development plans than in self-assessment activities.

Identification of high potential employees, which was the organizational employee career development activity in

which these women indicated they would be the least willing to participate, could also be considered the most threatening activity. These women may have least preferred this activity fearing they risked not being among those high potential employees identified. Or conversely, as none of these women were identified as having a Getting Ahead career orientation, they may, indeed, have no desire for advancement and feared being identified as a high potential employee.

The passiveness these women seemed to have toward their career development may be somewhat rooted in the university's personnel management system and in the management and supervision styles these women have encountered at the university. Women's comments in Chapter IV noted their career advancement was blocked because their jobs did not allow them to obtain the experiences necessary to be considered qualified and competitive candidates for positions at higher levels in the organizational hierarchy. If these women are not permitted to obtain the necessary experience for advancement while on the job, a situation is created whereby it becomes extremely difficult to advance under the current system.

These women's preference for having an individual career path identified for them may reflect the fact that

they can see no way in which they can advance under the current personnel management system. Further, the women interviewed frequently commented that employees were treated like children and not treated like, or trusted to act like adults. This type of condescending attitude from managers and supervisors could inadvertently encourage a childish passivity in lower level employees. Given these two factors, these women's preference for having an individual career path identified for them might be considered as a challenge to university administration to show them how career advancement is possible under the current system.

Or, again conversely, these women may truly not desire career advancement and its additional burdens and responsibilities. With their identified career orientations of Getting Balanced and Getting Secure, they may desire that their work be stable and their jobs be flexible enough to allow them to meet their family obligations. By having an individual career path identified they could lay the issues of career planning to rest for a time. By desiring to have their individual career paths identified, these women could be seeking the sanction of themselves, their employer, and society to implement their personal definitions of what it means to be a success at work.

Women's Attitudes, Values, and Motivations Toward Work

Structured interviews with selected women in the sample indicated women having different career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire, have more in common than have distinct differences in their attitudes, values, and motivations toward work. These women had been identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having the career orientations of Getting High, Getting Secure, Getting Free and Getting Balanced. Women from all these career orientations commented: (a) they best liked job tasks which were important, significant and worthwhile; (b) they most disliked routine or repetitious job tasks; (c) they saw their ability to get along with people as a work strength; (d) they were irritated by co-workers that were inconsiderate; (e) they desired more praise for their work; (f) they were most dedicated to a Christian life and their families; (g) they would prefer to work part time but were restrained by financial obligations; and (h) social contact that the job provided was a motivation to continue working.

It is possible that differences in the attitudes, values and motivations toward work can not be readily distinguished due to the small size of the selected sample

of women interviewed. Also, that these women were employees of the state, had worked for some time in the same organization, and had lived in a conservative, rural area, may have been overriding factors which might make their work attitudes, values, and motivations more alike than different, despite their being identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire as having differing high intensity career orientations.

It appeared that many of these women have values, attitudes and motivations toward work compatible with the new work ethic suggested by Yankelovich (1988). This work ethic is a synthesis of the values of the Protestant work ethic and the desires for self-fullment manifested in the work force since the 1960s. These women place a high value on autonomy and flexibility on the job. They desire challenging work, pride themselves on work well done, and desire recognition and praise from their supervisors which enhances their self-esteem.

It appeared that many of these women are what Schwartz (1989) identified as career-and-family women. These are "women who want to pursue serious careers while participating actively in the rearing of children....Most of them are willing to trade some career growth and compensation for freedom and the constant pressure to work long hours and weekends" (p. 70).

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions which were drawn from this study are as follows:

1. The five career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire are probably not sufficient to explain the attitudes, values, and motivations toward work which are held by women employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies in occupations not usually considered professions. Other possible career orientations might include: (a) family; (b) variety; (c) creativity; (d) technical competence; and (e) social/religious.

2. In this study, women employed at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in occupations not usually considered professions were working largely due to financial need. These women frequently did not view their work as the most important aspect of their career. Their attitudes, values, and motivations toward work were more in keeping with new work ethic trends identified by Yankelovich (1988) and with that of the career-and-family women identified by Schwartz (1989).

3. After the financial gains from working, these women in this study valued social contact with peers on the job. They viewed on the job social contacts and flexibility regarding on the job time requirements as two

important factors influencing their attitudes toward their jobs. They desired flexible working hours, relationships with managers and supervisors characterized by respect between adults, and praise for their work to contribute to their self-esteem.

4. Women in this study employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies in occupations not usually considered professions were likely to prefer career development activities which were organization directed rather than individual directed.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The career anchor/career orientation model of adult career development has not been thoroughly researched and offers many options for further examination. This final section will provide suggestions for individuals who might consider replicating this study and will propose two areas for further inquiry related to this study which might provide greater insight into the notion of career anchors/career orientations.

Individuals who might consider replicating this study might find the following recommended changes to the study design helpful:

1. The study could be expanded to include a broader selection of women employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies. This would include both more

women, and women employed in different occupations which are not usually considered professions. It might be possible to overcome a naive sample's unfamiliarity with organizational employee career development activities by defining each activity and detailing what it would encompass on the survey format. Or a sample could be selected which would include both women familiar with and women unfamiliar with organizational employee career development activities.

2. To avoid any confusion regarding whether the time a woman had been paid for working included part or full time work, the survey format should be modified to specifically indicate if it were full or part time work when a respondent stated she had been paid for working.

3. Considering the lack of norming for assessment instruments intended to measure career anchors/career orientations, it might be beneficial to compare the results of two such instruments, such as Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire and DeLong's (1984) Career Orientation Inventory. Greater numbers of women from each career orientation identified by these instruments might be chosen for structured interviewing. For the structured interview, the biographical interview format devised by Schein (1978) could be used beneficially.

4. The structured interview format might be expanded to include additional questions. It might be beneficial to ask the interviewee's whether they agreed with the career orientations identified for them by the assessment instruments and if they did not agree, what they would identify as their career orientations. Other questions of interest might include if the interviewee was married, if she had children and their ages, whether she was happy with her employment, if she had a specific career plan, and whether she intended to remain with the organization. Women for whom the assessment instruments used could not identify a single career orientation should also be included in the selected sample for structured interviewing.

5. Longitudinal studies using the same assessment instruments would allow: (a) the reliability of the instruments to be determined and (b) help determine if career orientations do remain fairly stable over extended periods of time.

Other possible areas of inquiry into career orientations are numerous. Two suggestions for further study which are directly related to this study are proposed as follows:

1. Determining if women's career orientations differ depending on whether they are employed in an occupation

which is commonly considered a profession or in an occupation not usually considered a profession. In this study, the career orientations identified by Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire for women employed at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy in occupations not usually considered professions, appeared to have an inverse relationship with the career anchors identified for women employed in occupations usually considered professions (Appendix A) in the studies by Grzywacs (1982), Huser (1980), Janes (1982) and Kanto (1982). For the samples of women employed in occupations usually considered professions, the greatest percentages were identified as having managerial career anchors which can be equated to the Getting Ahead career orientation. Of women employed in occupations usually considered professions, the smallest percentage were identified as having a lifestyle career anchor which could be equated to the Getting Balanced career orientation. Career anchors of security (Getting Secure) and autonomy (Getting Free) did seem to be more equally represented among women employed in both occupations usually considered professions and those not usually considered professions.

Both the passage of time between these studies or the different techniques used to identify career orientations could account for these results. However, this disparity

of results does suggest there may be inherent differences in the career orientations of women employed in occupations considered professions and those employed in occupations not usually considered professions. A comparison of the career orientations of women in occupations usually considered professions and of women in occupations not usually considered professions is an area recommended for further study.

2. Another area recommended for further study would be to determine if career orientations of women employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies in occupations not usually considered professions differ from the career orientations of men employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies in occupations not usually considered professions.

SUMMARY

Several important uses can be made of the results of this study. Better understanding of the career orientations of women employed at lower levels of organizational hierarchies in occupations not usually considered professions could help retain female employees by showing managers and career counselors how to better match the organizational environment to women's attitudes, values, and motivations toward work. The results of this study suggested that flexitime on the job, a management

style that recognizes and respects the importance of the work of the women employed in occupations not usually consider professions, and praise or feedback from management which builds self-esteem, were powerful factors in influencing these women's attitudes toward their work. These results also suggested these women needed help in learning how to take individual responsibility for and how to be self directed toward their career progress. This would include coming to terms with meshing family and other obligations they consider important with their work and developing a personal definition of what being a success at work means to them.

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APPENDIX A

Frequency of occurance of different career anchors in different groups

Group Studied	Anchor category (percentages)								
	Managerial	Autonomy	Security	Challenge	Life-style	Technical/ Functional	Entre-preneurial	Service	Identity
1961, 1962, 1963 Sloan School Alumni Panel (N44) (Schein, 1978)	18	16	9	0	0	43	14	0	0
Alumni of Sloan Fellows Program 5-10 years out (N40) (Anderson & Sommer, 1980)	25	10	25	0	0	25	15	0	0
MIT Senior Executive Program 1976 (N20) (Hopkins, 1976)	30	0	0	0	0	70	0	0	0
Sloan School Alumnae, 5 or more years out, 1980; 1980 (N40) (Grzywacs, 1982; Huser, 1980)	32	5	10	0	5	8	12	8	20
High potential women middle managers, 5-20 years out (N20) (Janes, 1982)	35	35	0	0	0	0	15	5	10
Upper middle managers in one Bell System Co. (N20) (Albertini, 1982)	50	10	5	0	0	35	0	0	0
Field service managers who started in 1969 (N20) (Senior, 1982)	60	0	25	0	0	10	0	5	0
Aerospace Program Managers in 5 large companies (N28) (Hall & Thomas, 1979)	14	4	29	0	0	39	14	0	0

(Continued next page)

Frequency of occurance of different career anchors in different groups

Group Studied	Anchor category (percentages)								
	Managerial	Autonomy	Security	Challenge	Life-style	Technical/ Functional	Entre-preneurial	Service	Identity
Data processing professionals in one large company (N23) (Liebesny, 1980)	26	0	13	0	0	48	4	0	9
Sloan School graduates in finance jobs, 4 years out (N15) (Crowson, 1982)	0	0	7	0	7	67	0	20	0
Female bank vice-presidents in one large bank, 5 years out (N20) (Kanto, 1982)	28	0	20	0	0	35	0	5	0
Senior management consultants in one firm (N20) (Applin, 1982)	25	30	5	30	0	0	0	10	0
Strategy & management consultants, several companies (N20) (Burnstine, 1982)	5	10	0	10	25	15	5	15	25
Physicians who had left traditional medicine to go into management (N14) (Heller, 1982)	0	36	0	0	0	21	29	14	0

Note. From "Individuals and careers" by E. H. Schein, 1987, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Appendix B

Career Orientation Inventory

The 41 items which are found on the questionnaire are listed below. How important is each one of the following statements for you?

	Of no Importance					Centrally Important
1. To build my career around some specific function or technical area of expertise is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The process of supervising, influencing, leading and controlling people at all levels is...	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The chance to pursue my own lifestyle and not be constrained by the rules of an organization is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. An organization which will provide security through guaranteed work, benefits, a good retirement program, etc. is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. The use of my interpersonal and helping skills in the service of others is...	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Being identified with and gaining status from my occupation is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. An endless variety of challenges in my career is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. To be able to create or build something that is entirely my own product or idea is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6

9. Remaining in my specialized area as opposed to being promoted out of my area of expertise is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Of no Importance				Centrally Important	
10. To be in a position of leadership and influence is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. A career which is free from organizational restrictions is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. An organization which will give me long term stability is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The process of seeing others change because of my effort is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. To be recognized by my title and status is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. A career which provides a maximum variety of types of assignments and work projects is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The use of my skills in building a new business enterprise is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Remaining in my area of expertise rather than being promoted into general management is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. To rise to a position in general management ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. A career which permits a maximum of freedom and automony to choose my own work, hours, etc. is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6

20. Remaining in one geographical area rather than moving because of a promotion is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Being able to use my skills and talents in the service of an important cause is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Being identified with a powerful or prestigious employer or organization is ...	1	2	3	4	5	6

How true is each one of the following statements for you?

	Not at all true					Completely true
23. The excitement of participating in many areas of work has been the underlying motivation behind my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I have been motivated throughout my career by the number of ideas or products which I have been directly involved in creating.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I will accept a management position only if it is in my area of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I would like to reach a level of responsibility in an organization where my decisions really make a difference.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Not at all true					Completely true
27. During my career I have been mainly concerned with my own sense of freedom and autonomy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. It is important for me to remain in my present geographical location rather than move because of a promotion or new job assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I have always sought a career in which I could be of service to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I like to be identified with a particular organization and the prestige that accompanies that organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. An endless variety of challenges is what I really want from my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. To invent something on my own and create a new idea are important elements of my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I would leave my company rather than be promoted out of my area of expertise or interest.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I want to achieve a position which gives me the opportunity to combine analytical competence with supervision of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Not at all true			Completely true		
35. I do not want to be constrained by either an organization or the business world.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I prefer to work for an organization which provides tenure (life-time employment).	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I want a career in which I can be committed and devoted to an important cause.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I want others to identify me by my organization and my job title.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I have been motivated throughout my career by being able to use my talents in a variety of different areas of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I have always wanted to start and build up a business of my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. I prefer to work for an organization which will permit me to remain in one geographic area.	1	2	3	4	5	6

From DeLong, T. J. (1984). A comparison of the career orientation of rural and urban educators, Educational Review, 36(1), pp. 72-74.

APPENDIX C

The following is the survey format which was used in the pilot study:

Survey Format

You know that for career planning activities to be successful, they must be appropriate for the participants' work values and goals. We are trying to determine what career planning activities will be most helpful for classified female employees at Virginia Tech. I am going to ask you ten questions which I would like you to answer in terms of your work life.

1. What kinds of work assignments or tasks do you like best?
What kinds of work "turns you on?"

2. What kinds of assignments "turn you off?" What tasks or events do you dislike the most?

3. What do you see as your major professional strengths or talents?

4. When you compare yourself to other female employees at Tech who are in positions similar to yours, in what job requirements do you see yourself excelling in? In what work areas do you think you do better than your peers?

5. All of us have some qualities that help us on the job and some qualities that hinder us or hold us back. What would you consider some of your weaknesses effecting your job at Tech?

6. To what degree do these weaknesses effect your job?

7. During the ECD Workshop we ask you to state your life's motto or to write what you would like on your tombstone. If I were to ask you that today, what would you answer?

8. To what causes, people, or tasks are you most dedicated?

9. Everyone has a pet peeve, something about their work situation that "bugs" them. What sorts of things at work offend or irritate you the most?

10. What is the single thing about your work-life about which you are proudest?

APPENDIX D

Appendix D contains:

1. The cover memorandum was sent to 156 female past participants of the VA Tech Employee Career Development Program (ECDP) asking them to complete the Demographic Questionnaire and the Career Success Map Questionnaire.

2. The Demographic Questionnaire

3. Derr's (1986) Career Success Map Questionnaire

4. The format for structured interviews with selected participants from each of the career orientations

MEMORANDUM

TO All Past Participants of the VA Tech ECD Workshop

FROM Deb Hedrick and Gale Watts

RE Finding Your Career Orientation

We need your help to make next year's Employee Career Development Program more responsive to your career development needs. You know keeping in touch with yourself is the first step in career planning. We know for career planning activities to be meaningful, they have to be appropriate to the participants' career values, career attitudes and career needs. We believe identifying your Career Orientation can help your career planning and will help us in tailoring the VA Tech ECDP to better meet your needs.

What's really important to you at work? Take five minutes to discover your Career Orientation now. Attached you will find a Demographics Questionnaire and a Career Success Map Questionnaire for you to complete. You can identify your Career Orientation using this Questionnaire by simply adding up your scores (see instructions) or return it to us and we will score it for you.

Return the completed Demographics Questionnaire and Career Success Map Questionnaire in an inter-campus envelop to: Deb Hedrick, Employee Relations, UCOB not later than May 20th. We will keep any information you send us confidential. However, we need you to complete the Demographics Questionnaire, because later this spring we will interview select participants from each of the five Career Orientations.

Your completion of these Questionnaires is essential to our effort to insure the VA Tech Employee Career Development Program meets your needs.

So, take five minutes, have a mint, and get a new perspective on your career. Remember to send us you results by May 20th. Thank you.

EMPLOYEE CAREER DEVELOPMENT DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME:_____

AGE:_____

POSITION TITLE:_____

DIVISION:_____

CAMPUS ADDRESS:_____

_____

CAMPUS TELEPHONE NUMBER:_____

EDUCATION LEVEL:

_____ Less than high school graduation

_____ High school graduation only

_____ Vocational or business school after high school

_____ Attended some college courses

_____ Completed a two year college degree

_____ Completed a four year college degree

_____ Completed a graduate degree

RANK CAREER DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES (Rank the activities 1 - 6, with 1 being the one in which you would most like to participate)

_____ In-depth Self-Assessment through testing

_____ Identification of a personal Career Path

_____ Computer aided instruction and information systems

_____ Workshop and training events

_____ Individual career development plans

_____ Identification of high potential employees

CAREER SUCCESS MAP QUESTIONNAIRE

by
C. Brooklyn Derr

CAREER SUCCESS MAP QUESTIONNAIRE

Basic talents, values, and motives have an impact when decisions are made about careers. The following survey is designed to help you understand your career orientation. You cannot fail this test; there are no right or wrong answers.

Each item contains two statements. Choose the one you feel most accurately describes you or is more true of you. You must choose one of the statements, even though you may not like either or you may like both of them. Do not skip any pair of statements or circle both alternatives in one set. Circle the letter corresponding to the one sentence you select as the most reflective of you. Do not spend a lot of time weighing your answers.

Circle one letter in each pair.

1.	(A) I like to organize myself and others to win.	V
	(B) I like to do my own thing in an organization.	X
2.	(A) Work must be balanced by time for leisure and the development of significant relationships.	Y
	(B) Personal needs must be subordinated for me to get ahead.	V
3.	(A) I would like to work in an organization which rewards hard work, loyalty, and dedication.	W
	(B) I like setting my own goals and accomplishing them at my own pace and in my own way.	X
4.	(A) I am aggressive and have good analytical and people skills.	V
	(B) I am able to keep a good perspective between the needs of my work and the needs of my family.	Y
5.	(A) I want to work independently.	X
	(B) I like being a company person.	W
6.	(A) I enjoy working as a consultant or "trouble shooter" and getting turned on by an exciting project.	Z
	(B) I enjoy working in a situation where I am the leader and am responsible for achieving certain objectives.	V
7.	(A) My spouse/partner is as important to me as my career.	Y
	(B) My spouse/partner takes a back seat to my work when I am in the middle of a very exciting project.	Z
8.	The most important thing to me is:	
	(A) Freedom	X
	(B) Maintaining work/life perspective	Y
9.	(A) I am competent, loyal, trustworthy, and hardworking.	W
	(B) I am politically skillful, a good leader, and a good administrator.	V

I can be described as:

10.	(A) Self-reliant	X
	(B) Balanced	Y
11.	(A) One who gets "turned on" by exciting projects.	Z
	(B) One who likes to be his/her own boss.	X
12.	(A) In equilibrium but divided.	Y
	(B) Imaginative, enthused.	Z
13.	(A) Self-reliant, self-sufficient.	X
	(B) Imaginative, enthused.	Z
14.	(A) Stable and tenacious.	W
	(B) Independent and self-directed.	X
15.	(A) One who plans and organizes extremely well.	V
	(B) One who analyzes situations and develops creative, new solutions.	Z
16.	(A) An expert in my field.	Z
	(B) A solid citizen.	W
17.	(A) Able to modify my own goals to accommodate to organizational goals and leaders.	W
	(B) Intent on finding a way to make the organization's goals and my own "personal" goals converge.	Y

A Personal Goal is to:

18.	(A) Control my own destiny.	X
	(B) Not let work interfere with the needs of my personal life.	Y

It is important to:

19.	(A) Have a job where there is security and a sense of belonging.	W
	(B) Be able to devote time to family and other personal activities.	Y

I prefer:

20.	(A) A career with potential for promotions.	V
	(B) The opportunity to tackle challenging problems or tasks.	Z

21.	(A) I like being at the center of influence.	V
	(B) I value long-term employment, acceptance, and being valued by the organization.	W
22.	(A) I view knowing the right people and making the right friends as important to career advancement.	V
	(B) I view being able to develop my career along my own areas of interest as the critical factor.	X
23.	(A) The bottom line for me is gaining a sense of balance between work and private life.	Y
	(B) The bottom line for me is stability, appreciation, and having a secure place in the organization.	W
24.	(A) I would like a position with maximum self-control and autonomy.	X
	(B) I would like to be in the inner circle.	V
25.	(A) The bottom line for me is stability, appreciation, and a secure place in the organization.	W
	(B) The bottom line for me is advancing up the organization.	V
26.	(A) I view financial success and increased power and prestige as important measures of career success.	V
	(B) I view success in my career as having equal time for work, family, and self-development.	Y

I would rather:

27.	(A) Excel in my field.	Z
	(B) Be considered dependable and loyal.	W

I prefer:

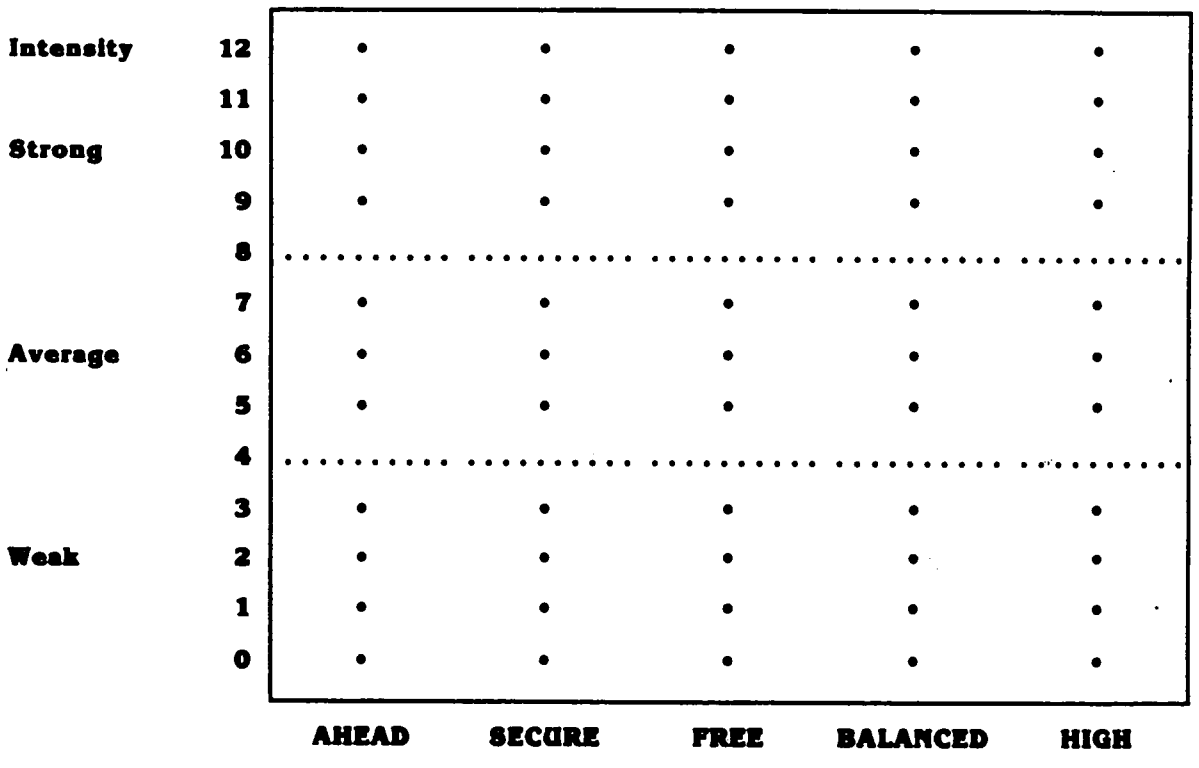
28.	(A) Working with a team on a long-term and steady basis.	W
	(B) Working with a task force or project group on a fast-paced and short-term basis.	Z
29.	(A) Professional development and continued training are important for their own sake.	Z
	(B) Professional development is important as a means to the end of becoming an expert and gaining more flexibility and independence.	X
30.	(A) The bottom line for me is to seek an equilibrium between personal and professional life.	Y
	(B) The bottom line for me is excitement and stimulation.	Z

SCORING

Once you have completed the test, go back through it, and add up the number of times you circled the letter "V." Then do the same with each of the other letters, writing the number in the space provided below. If you have completed the test accurately up to this point, the grand total will be thirty(V + W + X + Y + Z = 30).

	AHEAD	SECURE	FREE	BALANCED	HIGH
SCORE	V= _____	W= _____	X= _____	Y= _____	Z= _____

CSM PROFILE



DESCRIPTION OF ORIENTATIONS

GETTING AHEAD

This upwardly mobile career orientation is usually associated with advancing up a hierarchy of positions or a status system. More influence. Prestige and financial remuneration are usually bestowed with each upward move. Individuals pursuing such a strategy are most often found in large organizations or professional associations. Many executives and status-conscious professionals follow this Career Success Map.

GETTING SECURE

Some persons are driven by the need for job security, organizational identity, and the desire for a sense of order and placement. In return for loyal, dedicated hard-working service, they seek long-term employment, benefits, recognition, and appreciation from the employer. In the best situations, mutual respect, reciprocity, and loyalty characterize the relationship. These people often seek steady promotions and advances as a symbol of their value and worth. Many who pursue careers in large and secure organizations are pursuing this internal career orientation.

GETTING FREE

Instead of moving upward in career direction, the careerist following this strategy seeks to move out towards the margin. The emphasis is on gaining personal autonomy, "space," loose supervision, and responsibility for outcomes rather than be bound by another's process, norms, and rules. Individuals are willing to work very hard, often as professionals or small businesspersons, for conditions assuring more independence and self-control. Interesting and exciting work is important and usually accompanies such an orientation, but individual freedom is the ultimate objective.

GETTING HIGH

Some careerists are driven by the need for excitement, challenge, and the engaging process of work. In such a career one seeks to move, often laterally, to the centers of action, adventure, and creativity. The organizational setting may be large or small but bureaucracy tends to be a constraint. These craftspersons, technicians, entrepreneurs, and artists, like those opting for a getting-ahead and getting-free orientation, find it difficult to separate themselves from their work. While autonomy may be an important component of getting high, the bottom line is exciting work.

GETTING BALANCED

Some people seek to balance their work, relationship, and self-development lives. Balance is a consideration for most individuals but it is seldom their basic orientation. For these individuals, however, work is just one important dimension of a total life-style orientation, even though such careerists may emphasize different dimensions at different seasons and given different pressures. Like the getting-free strategy, this career orientation requires considerable flexibility. Unlike getting-free, it seeks balance and these careerists try to separate themselves from their work. Many talented two-career couples, geographically bound persons, and growth-oriented individuals fall into this category.

Survey Format

You know that for career planning activities to be successful, they must be appropriate for the participants' work values and goals. We are trying to determine what career planning activities will be most helpful for classified female employees at Virginia Tech. I am going to ask you several questions which I would like you to answer in terms of your work life, but remember in the ECD Workshops we take the perspective that your career is more than you 8 to 5 job here at Tech.

This will take about 20 - 30 minutes. I will write down your answers so I can remember then, but your identity will be kept confidential. No one will tell you boss or your co-workers your answers and your answers will never be identified with your name. We will speak of the results generally as common concerns of female employees at Tech we have identified, but we will never use your name. I ask everyone who has been chosen for an interview the same questions, so sometimes it may seem as if you have already answered a question. So it is not that I am not listening, but I have to ask everyone the same questions.

1. What kinds of work assignments or tasks do you like best? What kinds of work "turns you on?"

2. What kinds of assignments "turn you off?" What tasks or events to you dislike most?

3. What do you see as your major professional strengths or talents?

4. Here at Tech we have to work within kind of rigid structure. There are the pay grades and steps and you have to work a 40 hour week and you get an hour off for lunch. But we see across the different department or division on campus that there are different interpretations of these rules. Some places give liberal compensation time, some are on sort of an informal flexi-time, in some places they put a lot of emphasis on building their people's morale and have social committees and give parties and such. If all restrictions were eliminated and none of the rules applied, what would be the best reward that your supervisor could give you? What would motivate you the most?

5. When you compare yourself to other female employees at Tech who are in positions similar to yours, in what job

requirements do you see yourself as excelling in? In what work area(s) do you see yourself as doing just a little better than your peers?

6. All of us have some qualities that help us on the job and some qualities than hinder or hold us back. What would you consider some of your weaknesses effecting your job at Tech?

7. During the ECD Workshop we ask sometimes ask you to state you life's motto or to write what you would like in your obituary--what you would like to be remembered for. Sort of to state your life's philosophy on the head of a pin. If I were to ask you that today, what would you answer?

8. What is the single most important thing to you in your career? What keep you working overall?

9. What are the things--the causes, people, or tasks--to which you are most dedicated?

10. Everyone has a pet peeve, something about their work situations that "bugs" them. What sort of things at work offend or irritate you most?

11. If you could go on a sort of ideal life flex time, what percentages of your time would you give to the things--like family, work and leisure--that are important to you? You can make up your own things, but remember: if you work 8 hours a day that's one third or 33% of your day and if you sleep for the recommended 8 hours a night that's about another 33%, so you are probably spending about 60% of your time now either at work or sleeping. If you could divide that pie any way you wanted, what percentages of your time would you spend on what? What percentages of your time do these things get now?

12. Of what single thing in your work-life you are most proud?

APPENDIX E
Answer Categorization

1. What kinds of work assignments or tasks do you like best? What kinds of work "turns you on?"

2. What kinds of assignments "turn you off?" What tasks or events do you dislike most?

3. What do you see as your major professional strengths or talents?

4. All of us have some qualities that help us on the job and some qualities than hinder or hold us back. What would you consider some of your weaknesses effecting your job at Tech?

5. Everyone has a pet peeve, something about their work situations that "bugs" them. What sort of things at work offend or irritate you most?

6. If all restrictions were eliminated and none of the rules applied, what would be the best reward that your supervisor could give you? What would motivate you the most?

7. What are the things--the causes, people, or tasks--to which you are most dedicated?

8. Of what single thing in your work-life you are most proud?

9. Comments employees made about their desire to work.

10. Comments employees made about positive aspects oftheir jobs.

11. Comments employees made about their relationships with their supervisors/managers.

12. Comments employees made about their career advancement.

APPENDIX F

Summary ANOVA Tables

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 1

Women's Occupations by Age

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	88.13	3	29.38	0.39	.763
Within Groups	8428.24	111	75.93		
Total	8516.38	114			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Occupation	n	M	SD
Secretary	71	37.8	1.03
Computer Operator	6	34	3.56
Laboratory Technician	10	36.7	2.75
Accounting & Auditing Clerk	28	37.43	1.65

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 2

Women's Occupations by Length of Time in Paid Work Force

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	88.81	3	29.60	0.72	.539
Within Groups	4535.07	111	40.86		
Total	4623.88	114			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Occupation	n	M	SD
Secretary	71	16.4	.76
Computer Operator	6	13.42	2.61
Laboratory Technician	10	16.7	2.02
Accounting & Auditing Clerk	29	17.53	1.18

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 3

Women's Occupations by Salary

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob
Between Groups	2.81	3	9.35	13.77	.000
Within Groups	7.61	112	6791867.00		
Total	1.04	115			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Occupation	n	M	SD
Secretary	71	17339.71	309.29
Computer Operator	6	22101.16	1063.94
Laboratory Technician	10	21707.77	824.13
Accounting & Auditing Clerk	29	18964.79	483.94

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 4

Women's Length of Time in the Paid Work Force by Salary

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2.84	29	9785216	1.15	.303
Within Groups	7.22	85	8501203		
Total	1.00	114			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Years in Paid Employment	n	M	SD
3	1	15507.54	2915.68
4	1	18731.28	2915.68
4.5	1	19731.28	2915.68
6	3	14021.81	1683.37
6.5	1	17405.73	2915.68
7	2	19988.37	2061.69
8	3	15873.61	1683.37
9	4	15793.95	1457.84
10	2	16794.50	2061.69
11	3	19988.35	1683.37
12	5	20300.27	1303.93
13	7	20454.32	1102.02
14	7	18461.45	1102.02
15	12	18255.17	841.68
16	11	18190.43	879.11
17	5	20395.25	1303.93
18	9	18826.06	971.89
19	5	17202.98	1303.93
20	10	18281.77	922.01
21	3	16822.10	1683.37
22	4	18991.21	1457.84
23	3	19452.64	1683.37
24	2	20108.49	2061.69
25	4	17719.74	1457.84
29	1	18366.21	2915.68
31	1	16794.50	2915.68
32	2	18208.87	2061.69
33	1	25589.31	2915.68
34	1	17337.00	2915.68
35	1	17794.50	2915.68

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 5

Women's Occupations by Education Levels

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	13.63	3	4.55	5.09	.002
Within Groups	100.05	112	.89		
Total	113.69	115			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Occupation	n	M	SD
Secretary	71	3.88	.112
Computer Operator	6	4.5	.385
Laboratory Technician	10	4.9	.298
Accounting & Auditing Clerk	29	3.65	.175

Education level scale: 1 = High school graduation
2 = Vocational or Business school
3 = Some college courses
4 = Completed a college degree
5 - Completed a graduate degree

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 6

Women's Salary by Education Levels

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	1.06	3	3.55	4.25	.007
Within Groups	9.34	112	8346633		
Total	1.04	115			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Education level	n	M	SD
High School	17	18219.61	700.70
Business or Vocational School	9	18432.15	963.02
Some College Courses Completed	53	17484.03	396.84
College Degree Completed	57	19689.37	474.96

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 7

Women's Intensity of Career Orientations

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	34.18	4	8.55	7.89	.000
Within Groups	120.26	111	1.08		
Total	154.44	115			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	27	9.33	.200
Getting Free	18	9.28	.245
Getting Balanced	40	9.73	.164
Getting High	7	8.57	.393
Other	24	8.29	.212

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 8

Women's Ages by Career Orientations

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	528.03	4	132.00	1.82	.130
Within Groups	7988.35	110	72.62		
Total	8516.38	114			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	27	40.96	1.64
Getting Free	18	37.61	2.00
Getting Balanced	39	35.59	1.36
Getting High	7	34.57	3.22
Other	24	37.20	1.73

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 9

Women's Education Levels by Career Orientations

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	7.29	4	1.82	1.90	.115
Within Groups	106.39	111	.95		
Total	113.68	115			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	27	1.62	.188
Getting Free	18	4.33	.230
Getting Balanced	40	4.1	.154
Getting High	7	4	.370
Other	24	3.75	.199

Education level scale: 1 = High school graduation
2 = Vocational or Business School
3 = Some college courses
4 = Completed a college degree
5 = Completed a graduate degree

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 10

Women's Years Paid for Working by Career Orientations

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	308.23	4	77.058	1.96	.105
Within Groups	4315.65	110	39.23		
Total	4623.88	114			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	27	17.07	1.20
Getting Free	17	15.94	1.51
Getting Balanced	40	15.81	0.99
Getting High	7	12.14	2.36
Other	24	18.93	1.27

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 11

Women's Preference for
Indepth Assessment
by Career Orientation

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	14.99	4	3.74	1.27	.028
Within Groups	289.19	98	2.95		
Total	304.19	102			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	24	3.45	.350
Getting Free	14	2.28	.459
Getting Balanced	36	3.27	.286
Getting High	6	3.66	.701
Other	23	3.086	.358

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 12

Women's Preference for
Identification of a Personal Career Path
by Career Orientation

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	6.95	4	1.738	.68	.61
Within Groups	257.29	100	2.57		
Total	254.24	104			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	25	3.24	.320
Getting Free	15	3.26	.414
Getting Balanced	36	3.38	.267
Getting High	6	2.66	.654
Other	23	1.78	.334

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 13

Women's Preference for
Computer Aided Information Systems
by Career Orientation

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	15.61	4	3.90	1.26	.291
Within Groups	306.99	99	3.10		
Total	322.61	103			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	24	3.20	.359
Getting Free	14	3.85	.470
Getting Balanced	37	3.45	.289
Getting High	6	4.83	.718
Other	23	3.82	.367

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 14

Women's Preference for
Workshops and Training Events
by Career Orientation

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	12.06	4	3.01	1.18	.323
Within Groups	252.69	99	2.55		
Total	264.75	103			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	25	2.88	.319
Getting Free	14	3.42	.426
Getting Balanced	36	2.97	.266
Getting High	6	4.	.652
Other	23	3.56	.333

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 15

Women's Preference for
Developing Individual Career Plans
by Career Orientation

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	1.64	4	.411	0.18	.946
Within Groups	220.02	98	2.24		
Total	221.66	102			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	24	3.25	.305
Getting Free	14	3.35	.400
Getting Balanced	36	3.33	.249
Getting High	6	2.83	.611
Other	23	3.39	.312

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 16

Women's Preference for
Identification of High Potential Employees
by Career Orientation

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	17.09	4	4.27	1.42	.232
Within Groups	294.65	98	3.00		
Total	311.74	102			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Getting Secure	24	4.83	.353
Getting Free	14	4.64	.463
Getting Balanced	36	4.55	.288
Getting High	6	3	.707
Other	23	4.346	.361

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE 17

Women's Preferences Among
Career Development Activities

ANOVA Summary

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	140.18	5	28.03	10.22	.000
Within Groups	1689.23	616	2.74		
Total	1829.42	612			

Mean Levels and Standard Deviations of Groups Appearing in the ANOVA

Career Orientation	n	M	SD
Indepth Assessment	103	3.16	.163
Personal Career Path Identified	106	3.17	.161
Computer Aided Instruction	104	3.61	.162
Workshops & Training Events	104	3.20	.162
Developing Individual Career Plans	103	3.30	.163
Identifying High Potential Employees	103	4.49	.163

Preferences ranked on a scale of 1 - 6, with 1 as the most preferred

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