PARENTAL IDENTIFICATION FACTORS AND CAREER COMMITMENT IN COLLEGE SUBJECTS

by

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Abstract

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Career commitment (C C) is a complex process for many young college age adults, some of whom are able to decide upon a career and some who cannot choose one as yet. These differences in the degree of C C among college Ss, were related to the parental identification variable within the theoretical frameworks of Erikson and Lynn. From the work of Erikson it was hypothesized that the more positive the degree of identification with the parent in an evaluative sense (E-I), the more C C the Ss would be. Thus, a positive correlation was predicted between the variables E-I and C C in hypothesis 1. From Lynn's theory it was hypothesized that the moderate amount of perceived parental and subject similarity (S-I), would be related to high degrees of C C. Thus, a curvilinear (an inverted U) relationship was predicted between S-I and C C in hypothesis 2. Minor hypotheses also related C C to SE level and age of S.

After pilot work a revised questionnaire as a measure of C C and identification (via Semantic Differential approach), was completed by 100 males and 150 females at a community college. The C C items and the Semantic Differential descriptions of self, father and mother were factor analyzed for males and females separately. The factor scores for C C I (present C C) and C C II (future C C) were related via correlation coefficients and an ANOVAR to the factor scores for self, and parental evaluative descriptions. Erikson's position (hypothesis 1) was in part supported, as the higher the mother E-I scores the more C C the males were in a future sense, and the higher the summary E-I scores the more C C in a present sense either males or females became. Using the D score technique, S' ratings for self and each parent became the S-I measure, and were associated with C C I factor scores. From inspection of the plotted graphs, no curvilinearity was evident with the exception of S-I father and C C I in females, to support hypothesis 2. E-I and S-I were found to be different measures of identification, not related to each other. No relationship was found between C C and either SE level or age of S.

Partial support for Erikson's position and generally no support for Lynn's position was demonstrated in this study. This could be due in part to the difficulty in measuring identification. It contains at least two aspects - the evaluative identification and the similarity identification. For future studies it is suggested that a wider range of career commitment (especially more of the non-committed Ss) be used to re-evaluate these hypotheses.

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No important work can be achieved by one person alone. For other people must first inspire an initial interest, then direct procedures for applying these ideas, then encourage persistence during times of delay, and finally evaluate the worth of the results obtained. In each of these ways I am a debtor to the many people who have filled these roles to inspire, direct, encourage and evaluate my efforts.

Initial inspiration of the interest in career commitment came from many sources, the most important and consistent of which was my sponsor Dr. Harold Wilensky. Direction of the procedures involved in testing this interest came principally from the committee members, Dr. Wilensky, Dr. Emma Spaney and Dr. Leonard Simon, as well as from the factor analyst Dr. W. A. Gibson of Queens College. For the actual testing procedures, I wish to thank my colleagues on the faculty of Queensborough Community College who allowed me to use their classes to obtain the necessary subjects for this study. Encouragement to continue has come from my family, particularly my mother Mrs. Helen Peterson, and from some of the students who served as subjects. Evaluation of the results has been given by the committee members, and will continue to be given by any who choose to read this in the future.

Above all, I want to thank God who gave me the mind to search, the opportunity to learn and the patience (hopefully) to grow as a person through this experience.

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CHAPTER I

PROBLEM

Introduction

One problem common to many young adults is concern over entering a vocation. The process of choosing a career is more than just an economic necessity; it is an awesome, often irrevocable decision which at least in part defines the life style of the individual. The basic premise of this research is that vocational choice involves a personality conflict, which is most intense during late adolescence and early adulthood. This period of development has been characterized by the term "identity crisis" (Erikson, 1968), and is a quest for self-definition in the context of expanding social, personal and vocational commitments. An individual's concept of himself will interact with economic, educational, environmental and chance variables to delimit the area of vocational choice.

Characteristics Associated with Career Choice

A fundamental question behind this investigation would be which factors within the personality are an important part of the process of career choice, particularly why some young people require a period of extended delay and doubt of self before a career decision can be reached. Some of the possible personality characteristics related to the process of career choice may be identified by reference to a survey of the theories of career development (Osipow, 1968). Such a survey of these theories also makes clear that experimental research to date has provided little to substantiate any one approach. One way to identify relevant personality factors and the role they play in

decision making is to study young adults at a period in their life when they are engaged in selecting a vocation. In this way, it may be possible to identify the variables which contribute to either a career choice or a vocational moratorium in young adulthood.

This period of development (young adulthood) for some people does involve delayed decision-making labeled by Erikson a "psychosocial moratorium", or a "second latency period" occurring at the end of adolescence for the purpose of testing some values and goals before a final occupational commitment is made (Erikson, 1968). This time of delay is one manifestation of the need of the young person to develop a sense of identity which includes an occupational identification. A quest for meaningful answers to many questions exists, not just a nebulous 'Who am I?', but 'What do I want to make of myself, and what do I have to work with?'. When this latter question cannot be answered it reflects a disturbing identity confusion which may become a "career inhibition" (Erikson, 1968). Erikson implies, that if a young person is unsure of his own identity, he will not be able to project himself realistically into any future-oriented vocational framework, nor take the steps necessary in the present to reach a specific vocational goal. A psychosocial moratorium regarding a career may then be needed, as the best temporary solution. This moratorium does not necessarily imply the presence of psychopathology, for if it is temporary, a creative vocational decision eventually may emerge rather than a premature one.

Some young people reach college, including a publicly supported junior college, in this state of career inhibition which Erikson has

described (as demonstrated by pilot studies conducted by the author). With a sample size of 60, among males, the data showed that 15% had only a vague idea of a vocation, and 16% had no idea at all; while among females, the percentages were smaller with 8% allotted to a vague idea of a vocation and 6% given to those without any career goal.

These students react to educational opportunities on the basis of their past experiences and personality patterns and expectations. Their present vocational self-image in itself is assumed to be the product of many interacting factors. Yet if they have none (e.g. are without any career goal), or are unable to develop one while in college, the training offered to them may be irrelevant. But the parameters of relevant personality factors influencing this image have not yet been identified empirically. Therefore, an understanding of the relevant personality components of a vocational self-image could begin via an exploratory investigation of <u>one</u> frequently mentioned area of significance.

The focus of this research was to investigate the effects of parental identification on career commitment among a heterogeneous group of community college students. Parental identification, as a distinct variable has been recognized as being significant in the development of personality, (Erikson, 1968; Lynn, 1969) but it is rarely related directly to vocational choice. It is logical to hypothesize that if parental identification may influence personality in general, and if indecision concerning career commitment is in part a personality conflict, then parental identifications will also

influence this process of career commitment. Empirically this hypothesis will be substantiated if the parental identification patterns of the career committed students differ significantly from the parental identifications of the uncommitted students. The exact nature of these expected differences, for males and females, for low and higher socio-economic backgrounds, etc. will be explored in hypotheses based upon current theories of vocational choice and parental identification.

Theories of Vocational Selection

Among theories of vocational choice there has been some attempt to identify the relevant career choice variables. In an eclectic framework, the theory of Ginzberg et al. (1951) assumed that the lower economic group in society will be more passive in choosing a career, but they did not pursue this hypothesis with related research. On the basis of an interview with college age subjects, these same theorists stated that girls will have more uncertainty than boys in choosing a career. Their sample consisted of only ten subjects (Osipow, 1968). The rationale underlying this statement for girls was that they would have to identify with their fathers (not the same-sexed parent) before the career uncertainty could be resolved.

Super's approach to a theory of career development (1960) rested upon the idea that a vocational choice is one manifestation of a self-concept. With a sample of 142 ninth grade boys, he found that the effect of many different variables interacting together was important. These variables included the following: environmental factors (e.g. cultural stimulation); biosocial factors (e.g. intelligence and age);

vocational factors (e.g. career goals); and personality factors (e.g. father identification). But Super has not demonstrated the specific relevance of any of these factors at the time of young adulthood as yet, not has he included any reference to the problems of vocational choice for women.

One of the earliest theoretical explanations of career choice has been that of Anne Roe (1949). Her primary hypothesis, in contrast to Super's was that the emotional interaction between parent and child determines the person's orientation toward work. But the simplicity of this hypothesis has not been confirmed in subsequent research on scientists (Osipow, 1968). Super's approach focused upon many factors and the complexity involved did not allow for prediction based upon his hypotheses; while Roe's approach narrowed the search for relevant factors to but one, and its meaning is uncertain in the related research. There remains then, a genuine need for empirical data on the development of vocational choice which will advance our understanding beyond the confusion cited in the present theories.

Parental Identification and Career Choice

With regard to the variable of parental identification, the theoretical views of two psychologists will be compared in this study. The neo-Freudian orientation of Erik Erikson (1968), with his emphasis on the process of identification will be compared to the recent hypotheses on parental identification proposed by David Lynn (1969). The nature of identifications held by young adults in the context of career commitment is the primary quest of this exploratory investigation.

Erikson's Position

Erikson stated that identity formation in adolescence was the product of the "repudiation and assimilation of childhood identifications plus a search for ideals which are worthy of life-long commitment" (Erikson, 1968). If identity is therefore based upon (at least in part) a resynthesis of childhood identification patterns, it should be possible to demonstrate differences in the pattern of identifications (primarily with parents) between vocationally decided subjects and vocationally undecided subjects. Erikson has referred to such well-known case histories as William James, G.B. Shaw and Martin Luther, to illustrate the role of the family in contributing to the son's prolonged period of doubt and delay over an occupational choice, as a young man.

This psychosocial moratorium during youth represented a needed interruption in the process of identity formation begun in childhood. According to Erikson, there are three steps involved in this process: first, introjection (incorporation) of a sense of trust over mistrust from the consistency of the early relationship between mother and infant; second, identification with the roles of family members and as a school age child somewhat later imitation of people in various occupational groups in play; and third, identity formation in adolescence as a simultaneous synthesis of sexual, ethnic, occupational and cultural demands (Erikson, 1968). The mother established these foundations as ...

> there is a deep relation between the first 'identity' experienced in the early sensual and sensory exchanges with the mother(s) -- the first recognition - and that final integration in adolescence when all earlier identifications are assembled and the young person meets his society and his historical era. Erikson, 1968, p. 312

Identity is however the culmination of many stages of development in his epigenetic approach, including identifications with many significant persons; "in other words, identity formation is really a restructuring of all previous identifications in the light of an anticipated future" (Erikson, in Evans, 1967).

This future for most young people included some type of vocational commitment growing out of early identifications first with the mother and later with the father. It should be expected then that whenever a positive identification with the mother (and later the father) exists, it will play a part in a quicker resolution of the vocational moratorium for the adolescent then if this parent-child relationship were predominately negative.

Lynn's Position

The interaction of vocational choice and parental identification was given another explanation in the theoretical application of Lynn's hypotheses. Identification for both males and females he stated is initially established with the mother during infancy (Lynn, 1969). This early learning changes with time in different ways for each sex. For ...

> it is assumed that the process of learning appropriate identification habituates each sex to a different method of perceiving and learning (cognitive style), which is subsequently applied to learning tasks generally. The little girl acquires a cognitive style that primarily involves: (1) a personal relationship, and (2) imitation rather than restructuring the field and abstracting principles. In contrast, the little boy acquires a cognitive style that primarily involves: (1) defining the goal (2) restructuring the field, and (3) abstracting principles.
>
> Lynn, 1969, p.36

Thus for males a shift in identification occurs via reinforcement of typical masculine-role behavior and punishment for signs of femininity

(rather than by direct imitation of the father). While for females, the same-sexed model is present most of the time producing stronger and stronger mother identifications over time.

According to Lynn, boys generally become superior at problem solving as a result of having to solve the problem of masculine identification from an abstraction of cultural stereotypes of masculinity. These problem solving abilities are highest whenever the father identification is neither too close nor too distant. For a too close identification would imply a large degree of direct imitation of the model, thereby eliminating the need for abstraction of principles; and a too distant identification would imply an absence of the stereotyped reinforcement patterns by which the father defines masculinity. Likewise for a girl, a curvilinear relationship is hypothesized between parental distance (degree of identification with the same-sexed parent) and problem solving abilities.

It is possible to extend Lynn's theory of identification into the context of career commitment. If it is assumed that the ability to choose a career is part of 'problem solving abilities' in general, then the same curvilinear relationship should exist between same-sexed parental identification and career commitment. For males, the vocationally undecided subjects would be those who have had a too distant father identification pattern which included a poorly defined vocational image; and for females, the vocationally undecided subjects would be those who have had a too close mother identification patterns which included a poorly defined vocational model. In both sexes, the most career committed subjects then would be those who have a moderate degree of identification

with the same-sexed parent.

Different explanations emerge of the effect of parental identification upon career commitment depending upon which theoretical framework is chosen as a point of departure for research. But since neither the approach postulated by Erikson nor the theory of Lynn have been tested in the context of career choice, an investigation for this purpose is needed. Nor have the further complications of male versus female, or poor versus rich status been explored in this context. Therefore, this study examined the value of these differences among young adults and their relationship to the interaction of parental identification and career commitment.

History of Relevant Literature

Theories of Vocational Choice

Work is a complex phenomena, the product of physiological abilities, psychological motives, social opportunity and personality development. It is a part of all behavior and yet according to some has some unique contributions to make to one's sense of identity (Neff, 1968). Most of the research on career development has taken one of the following approaches: either vocational interests are studied in the perspective of developmental stages; or current personality structures and/or dynamics are studied as a means of obtaining a retrospective view of the vocational decision-making process. In the former catagory are the theories of Super and Ginzberg; while the latter approach is found in the theories of Holland and Roe.

Super and his associates (1957; 1961; 1963) have used a male only

sample of subjects to develop a theory of vocational choice. Based upon a longitudinal research design, he concluded that a person will make an occupational choice consistent with his picture of himself. Although no data was included on parental identification, one study which explored Super's theory showed that the self-concept develops out of an individual's total life experiences, especially his perception of significant people (Tipton, 1966). These perceptions would logically include parental identification factors, even though Super does not explain the development of the self-concept via such terms as identification.

Ginzberg and his associates (1951) described vocational choice as a product of social, economic, parental and temporal factors. A small sample of 91 Ss provided the basis for this theory. The Ginzberg group stated that the ability to make a good vocational decision is related to emotional maturity. But their evaluation of emotional maturity is not related to parental patterns of identification.

Holland, (1959, 1962, 1963) of the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, studied an intellectually select group of Ss in college environments. His purpose was to determine how their present personalities are congruent with one of the postulated six vocational types (Realistic, Intellectual, Social, Conventional, Enterprising, and Artistic). It is not possible from Holland's theory to easily distinguish one career orientation from another (Stockin, 1962), nor to understand how these six areas develop initially.

Anne Roe (1949, 1953, 1957) in studying specific professions,

e.g. social workers versus engineers, related these different career choices to the affective dimension in parent-child relationships. A strong and positive emotional relationship in childhood (parental identification in Erikson's view?) would produce a person-oriented adult in an occupation dealing primarily with people; while a cold or non-emotional parent-child interaction would later be responsible for an object-oriented adult in an occupation dealing mostly with things. Much of the research based upon this theory has been contradictory (Utton, 1962; Switzer et al., 1962; De Shazo, 1966; Osipow, 1968). Even a revision of the original Roe Parent-Child Relations questionnaire had yielded ambiguous results; for girls with a loving and rewarding relationship with their fathers chose non-person oriented jobs, but those girls with a cold and rejecting relationship with their mothers also chose non-person oriented jobs (Lambert, 1966). This may be an indication that the affective dimension of parent-child relations should be broken down into the various combinations of father-son, father-daughter, mother-daughter and mother-son dyads before specific hypotheses can be made regarding vocational choice. It is also unclear from Roe's theory how significant (if at all) the identification process is in establishing an emotional context within the family unit.

Each of these theories attempts to explain the complexity of vocational choice or the acquisition of an "occupational persona" (Steffire, 1966). Yet none deals directly with the reasons for being unable to develop such a persona during adolescence or early adulthood.

The Vocationally Undecided Student

Within every college population it is reasonable to assume that

many freshmen and sophomores especially are not yet firmly committed to a vocational goal (Tucci, 1963). Yet there is a paucity of relevant research dealing with this group, and almost none which attempts to give reasons for the development of their indecision or of its resolution over time (Trent, 1969; Betz et al., 1969). Some researchers even asserted that the vocationally undecided student is no different from the decided student in his personality characteristics (Williamson, 1937; Sugarman, 1967; Baird, 1969).

Several other studies have suggested specific influences upon the vocationally undecided Ss. These would include the following: (1) peer group influence (Hadley & Levy, 1962); (2) academic interests (Campbell & Johansson, 1966); (3) low self-esteem (Korman, 1967a; 1967b; 1969); (4) poor self concept (Irvin, 1966); (5) fear of failure (Tseng & Carter, 1970); (6) frustrated psychological needs (Murphy, 1969); and (7) even heredity (Vandenberg & Stafford, 1967). One study, by Strahl (1968) suggested a link between parental identification and career indecision. Her results indicated significant sex differences: the vocationally committed males had positive identifications with their parents, especially their fathers; while the career involved females showed no consistent pattern of identifications. As a measure of identification, the Interpersonal Check List was used, with similar responses between parent and S being the operational definition. Another of Strahl's findings was that the Ss from lower socio-economic levels were more vocationally decided.

The Measurement of Career Commitment

Many of the inconsistencies found in the description of a career

committed or uncommitted subject come from the fact that there is no one way of defining this variable for research. Until there is a standardized method of measuring career commitment the ambiguities in the research literature will remain.

At present, there are some six different approaches to an assessment of career commitment. By far the most popular method of defining this variable is via a questionnaire (Thompson, 1966; Korman, 1967a; Sugarman, 1967; Federoff, 1968; Strahl, 1968; Baird, 1969; Trent, 1969). A second means of measuring career commitment has been through a personal interview schedule (Betz et al., 1969; Galinsky, 1962). One researcher (Dolliver, 1969) claims that a verbally expressed career interest is as valid a measure of commitment to a career as a standardized test. As a third means of measuring career commitment or non-commitment one standardized scale, the Indecision Scale, was developed by Holland & Nichols (1964) and criticized for lack of validity by Baird (1968). As a fourth criterion of career commitment, the overt behavior of the Ss has been used. For example, many experimental and control groups are selected on the basis of a declared college major or graduate enrollment (Izard, 1960; Hoffberg & Fast, 1966; Kunert, 1969), or on the basis of present employment (Schaffer, 1953; Tucker, 1967). With the advent of computers in psychological research has come the fifth method of assessing career commitment - namely statistical validation via factor analysis (Astin & Nichols, 1964; Anderson et al., 1966; Baehr & Williams, 1967), multiple discriminant analysis (Vacchiano & Adrian, 1966), or cannonical correlation analysis (Gribbons & Lohnes, 1964). Finally, career commitment has been

measured via a longitudinal validation of the original measure (Super & Overstreet, 1960; Gribbons & Lohnes, 1964; Werts, 1967a; Trent, 1969). From among these six related means of measuring 'career commitment' no one approach emerged as best.

Vocational Choice In Women

Our society is without doubt in an era of change, one aspect of which is the conflict over appropriate sex-role behavior (Brown, 1958). Some psychologists reaffirm the traditional view of females being different from males either inherently (Beach, 1969; Erikson, 1964) or as the result of distinct social and/or familial patterns (Anastasi, 1969; Leventhal, 1970; Psathas, 1968; Appleton & Hansen, 1969; Bailyn, 1964). One researcher claimed that these differences are so great that whenever the career aspirations of women are investigated the data demands a different means of measurement than can be used with male Ss (Farnsworth, 1969).

In reaction to these projected sex differences in our culture is an emerging, almost militant feminism, which belittles the sex discrimination in wages and vocational advancement (Bailyn, 1964; Bird, 1968). This feminist movement contends that the only differences between the sexes in the area of vocations are due to remnants of culturally conditioned attitudes; e.g. girls are expected to be inferior when in competition with boys. Vocational achievement is one area of competition in which the female is placed in a double-bind situation (Horner, 1969). Some women (with strong career aspirations) were found to have expressed this ambivalence by developing a poorer self concept and more of a feeling of being alienated from their parents than other women without

these career dominate goals (White, 1959; Lewis, 1968; Helson, 1969).

What the relationships between parental identification and emotional adjustment should be for females remains unclear. In fact, for adolescent females a paradox exists: the daughter who models herself after a masculine father was found to have a more developed feminine sex-role identity than if she had chosen her mother as the primary model (Heilbrun, 1968). But the degree to which this identity included or was separate from a career commitment was unclear from Heilbrun's research. Lewis (1968) and Paulsen (1968) referred to the fact that the work experiences of the mother were significantly associated with the professional achievement of the daughter.

The Parental Identification Variable

In the literature, this variable is examined most in the context of either sex-role development (Lynn, 1959; Mussen, 1961; Heilbrun & Fromme, 1965), or the child's abnormal identifications and maladjustment (McCord et al., 1962; Siegman, 1966; Van Manen, 1968; Lipsig, 1968). There are but few references to the effect of identification with a parent upon vocational choice (Cava & Raush, 1952; Kahn, 1968). In these two examples, the design entailed a comparison of father's and son's scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) with a measure of identification (Blacky Pictures and an Attitude Scale respectively). Both studies found that the greater the degree of identification the greater the amount of similarity in vocational interests.

When different patterns of identification develop in childhood

they may be investigated at an early age level (Sears, 1963). In nursery school Ss, if the father was observed to be non-nurturant and rejecting of his son, there would be greater dependent behavior manifested in the child. But would such a rejected male as a young adult seek to remain more dependent by delaying the choice of a job and its consequent economic independence? Sears research did not even speculate about such a possibility.

In a study by Beier and Ratzeburg (1953) sex differences in identification were found to be significant. Girls who had low levels of maternal identification saw their fathers as more masculine than did girls with higher maternal identification; while boys with low parental identifications (especially with the father) saw their mothers as more feminine than did boys with higher paternal identification. Apparently identification is facilitated by certain complex interactions of both the sex of the model and the subject (Lynn, 1959).

From the references already cited it is apparent that identification has many distinct connotations and inter-relationships. McCandless (1967) stressed the importance of distinguishing among such meanings as sex-role preference, sex-role adoption, imitation and incorporation. A review of the problems inherent in any attempted definition must include reference to the work of Stoke (1950), Sanford (1955) and Miller et al. (1968).

Freud first employed the term identification in an analysis of melancholia (1917) and later (1924) as an explanation for the resolution of the Oedipal conflict. These different sources led to a definition of two forms of identification: anaclitic (primary) and defensive

(secondary). Anaclitic identification involved the child's imitation of his parents for the gratification of his dependency needs; while defensive identification was an identification with the aggressor in an Oedipal context. One constant theme in all these approaches was that identification is primarily based upon an emotional tie with the model (Bronfenbrenner, 1960).

Learning via identification was defined by Whiting (1960) as a general process of acquiring the role of another by interaction, and this involves both trial and error learning and indirect unconscious aspects. Often this identification occurred first in fantasy, where it was reinforced vicariously and then later manifested in overt behavior in the absence of reinforcement. Whiting admitted that this approach combines the Freudian and Behavioristic views together. It constitutes in fact a synthesis of the terms identification and imitation, and would be sanctioned by others as well (Gewirtz & Stingle, 1968).

The term 'imitation' has had a long history of inconsistent use in the writings of psychologists such as McDougall, Woodworth, Watson, Guthrie, Freud etc. (Miller & Dollard, 1964). For another review of the use of the term Flanders (1968) should be cited.

The effect of sex differences on imitation is directly relevant to this research since each parent represents either a masculine or a feminine model for the subject. However, the literature showed directly contradictory results, sometimes by the same experimentor (Bandura & Kupers, 1964; May, 1966; Bandura et al. 1961; 1963; Hetherington & Frankie, 1967).

Concerning the amount or pattern of imitation of boys versus girls, the evidence is somewhat more consistent. Whenever the dependent response measure was aggression, males imitate more than females (Bandura, 1965; Bandura et al. 1963; 1966). However, when a non-aggressive response was used, no consistent sex differences emerged (Bandura, 1962; 1969; Bandura & Husten, 1961; Bandura & Kupers, 1964; Bandura & Menlove, 1968; Bandura et al., 1966; Hetherington, 1965; May, 1966).

More relevant in the context of this research would be the fact that imitation is rarely linked to vocational choice. The only indirect reference in the literature linking imitation to vocational choice would be a superficial survey showing that sons tend to choose their father's occupation above any other (Jensen & Kirchner, 1955).

Sometimes in the research literature 'identification' means imitation and sometimes it means identity. The words appear to be used inter-changeably. This is especially true when the consequences of an adolescent's behavior is referred to as identity formation (Erikson, 1969). Or modern man in general may be said to be seeking a new 'identity' (Wheelis, 1958). This is true for females in the masculine world of work, and for all young adults in an often stereo-typed adult world.

The problem of understanding the term identity is compounded by the fact that there is no one consistent meaning for the concept itself. One connotation given is that it respresents a cluster of roles leading to a pattern of interaction with others, which provides gratification and self-esteem (DeLevita, 1965). These role representations may be

based upon a person's conscious image of himself, indicating that identity is a by-product of role involvement. Such roles may logically include a vocational role. Erikson's use of the term identity was different: he linked it to the developmental stages from infancy to maturity. A psychosocial self-definition thus emerged through the years with the following characteristics:

> Its most obvious concomitants are a feeling of being at home in one's body, a sense of knowing where one is going, and an inner assuredness of anticipated recognition from those who count. Erikson, 1968, p. 165

According to Erikson, when a combination of experiences occur, each demanding simultaneous commitment (e.g. marriage and a career), indecision in one or more may be the most immediate response. In this way a 'work identity' becomes a part of a psychosocial moratorium. This approach has been criticized on the basis of a lack of coherent (operational) definitions and an absence of systematically gathered data to test the hypotheses (Gergen, 1969).

The Measurement of Identification

Depending upon the theoretical context, the terms identification, imitation, and identity, may be the same, related to one another, or distinct from each other. Typically different operations have been used to define these terms.

For an operational definition of 'identification' the following measurement procedures have been used: (1) a similarity in responses between a subject and a model on a project test (Cava & Raush, 1952; Bieri et al., 1959), a personality test like the MMPI (Sopchak, 1952; Beier & Ratzeburg, 1953) or the Allport-Verson Study of Values (Gray &

Klaus, 1956), a vocational test like the SVIB (Roff, 1950; Kahn, 1968), a Q Sort (Stewart, 1959), or the Semantic Differential technique (Dignan, 1965); (2) a heightened autonomic arousal in the subject when the model is presented on a film (Kagan & Phillips, 1964); and (3) an 'inferred identification' when the meaning systems of the individual and possible significant identificatory models are compared by the subject on a Semantic Differential (Lazowick, 1955; Crites, 1962; Shell, et al., 1964; Gardner, 1968). Occasionally, the term identification has been freely substituted for the term imitation in research, especially when both an overt response and an implied evaluative similarity are present (Yelen, 1969).

The more common behavioral definition of 'imitation' would be the copying by a subject of a model's responses, so that overt behavioral indices become the means of measurement (Baer et al., 1967; Bandura, 1969; Bell, 1969). For example, children have been observed watching a film of a model being aggressive to a bobo doll, and then when brought into another room where a similar doll was found the Ss' aggressive (imitative) responses under different reinforcement conditions were measured (Bandura, 1965). Most research on overt imitation has involved young children, so there is need for other means of measuring this variable with more sophisticated adult Ss (May, 1966).

For the use of the term 'identity', its psychosocial definition has been incorporated into extensive case histories of Luther and Gandhi by Erikson (1958; 1969). Or if identity has been included in the concept of identification, some of the means for measuring it are variations of the Semantic Differential approach (Jabury, 1968).

From the references cited an apparent dichotomy emerges: identification may be defined as an unconscious process and measured via projective and/or cognitive indices; or imitation may be defined as an overt modeling process and measured via behavioral indices. Two studies have attempted to compare these different measures of identification/imitation, and both concluded that there is no measureable distinction between these two aspects of identification (Bieri et al., 1959; McAllister & Neuringer, 1969).

The rationale for measuring identification via the Semantic Differential technique has been developed by Osgood (Osgood, 1952; Osgood et al., 1957; Osgood, 1969). It is a means of comparing the connotative meanings of concepts through the subject's ratings on a series of bipolar adjectives. According to Osgood, the words represent in man some replica of the actual behavior of which they were signs, and any sensitive instrument should be able to indicate both the direction and the intensity of each representational sign or word. Via a factor analysis of early data Osgood defined the number of orthogonal dimensions of semantic space: principally they were the factors labeled Evaluation, Potency, Activity (Osgood, 1952; Rosenberg, 1968; Carroll, 1969; Kuusinen, 1969; Miron, 1969).

The Semantic Differential has generated much research in an attempted validation and/or application of its method in psychological investigations (Snider & Osgood, 1969). Its stability or repeat-reliability has been found to be an r of .66 (over a four weeks period of time), with factor scores having even more stability than single scales (Norman, 1969). According to one investigator, the Semantic

Differential may even have possibilities for interpreting unconscious aspects of identity (Miller, 1963). Lazowick (1955) stated that identification measured via the Semantic Differential is itself the learned similarities of mediating processes (specific S-R connections) between subject and model. By an application of the 'D score' statistic (Cronback & Gleser, 1953) the perceived similarity between son/daughter and parent has been measured by summing the squares of the differences between their individual responses (Lazowick, 1955; Gray & Klaus, 1956; Shell et al., 1964; Fitzgerald & Roberts, 1966; Hunt, 1967; Gardner, 1968). A few studies related the D score specifically to identification in the context of vocational choice (Crites, 1962; Jabury, 1968). In spite of the psychometric problems inherent in any self-rating technique, one reviewer concluded that the use of the Semantic Differential still seems warranted after more than ten years of studies (Heise, 1969).

Definitions Of The Major Variables

Identification

Identification is too complex a variable to assume it is a unitary process, therefore two distinct aspects of the term will be used in this study. For each subject then two identification scores were used, entailing the evaluative and similarity aspects of this term.

First, identification is defined as an emotional/cognitive evaluation of the model by the subject. This would be the way in which the young adult S perceives his parent in a positive, neutral or negative way through evaluative semantic terms. Strong identification between S

and model is indicated by a high positive parental evaluation; and conversely, weak identification is indicated by a low positive parental evaluation. Based upon the value system of the S, evaluative-identification thus becomes the expression of the degree to which the S judges the model (in this case the parent) to be worthy of emulation or imitation.

Second, identification is defined as the perceived emotional/cognitive similarity in personality traits, values and attitudes between the subject's memory of the model and himself. It is by analogy a predisposition to see the world through a similar set of glasses as the model's. At times this similarity in perspective may be quite conscious for the S, who is aware that his attitudes or behavior are the same as the model's; and at other times this type of similarity in perspective or characteristics may be below the level of either awareness of direct manifestation, when the S would react on the basis of internalized values that have not been implimented as yet. Nevertheless, similarity identification is inferred from overt expressions of similarity, e.g. the S' understanding of how close his personality is to the model's. Thus, a strong similarity identification occurs whenever the S and parent share the same traits; while a weak similarity identification occurs whenever the S and parent are seen to have different personality characteristics.

It is quite possible for a young person to manifest different combinations of evaluative identification (E-I) and similarity identification (S-I), toward one or both parents. For example, a young man may have a high positive regard for his mother (high E-I) and yet not see

himself as close to her in specific characteristics (low S-I). Or a young woman may not value her father as a model to emulate (low E-I) and yet see herself possessing some of the same qualities as he has (high S-I).

Career Commitment

The variable of Career Commitment is likewise a difficult one to define because of its complexity. However, it too may be broken down into several dimensions as follows: (1) the specificity of occupational choice(s); (2) the concreteness of steps known to lead to that occupation; (3) the desire to delay or not to delay making such a choice; (4) the percent sure that the S is that any choice is 'right'; and (5) the anticipated involvement of future time and/or interests in pursuing that occupation(s). Various degree in each of these dimensions are possible, producing the S' unique level of career commitment (C C).

Hypotheses

This research undertook to investigate patterns of child-parent interaction (the independent variable) and their relationship to vocational commitment in young adults (the dependent variable). Thus the primary hypothesis was as follows: Vocationally decided Ss will have a different pattern of identification toward their parents than will vocationally undecided Ss. The specific nature of these differences for males and females was predicated upon the theories of Erik Erikson (1968) and David Lynn (1969).

1. Those Ss with a higher degree of evaluative identification with one or both parents will be more career committed than those Ss with a low evaluative identification. A positive relationship is thus

postulated to exist bewteen E-I and C C.

According to the personality theory of Erikson (1968) the specific hypothesis relative to vocational decision making emerges: if in early childhood a warm (positive) relationship of trust with the mother figure existed, then the foundation for a positive self concept will be laid enabling the young adult to make a realistic vocational choice. This hypothesis grows directly out of Erikson's concept of identity formation in late adolescence. For this identity includes a vocational commitment; and if it is delayed the psychosocial moratorium would include vocational indecision. 'Identity' and 'identification' for Erikson are related terms relevant at different developmental stages, as the quality of early identification patterns with the parents have a part in determining the type of identity formed years later.

Although a longitudinal study of great magnitude would be needed to first quantify and then trace the effects of a close mother-child relationship upon young adult behavior, it is consistent with Erikson's thought to predict (in this context) that these early emotional identifications do shape later significant ego-choices. Exactly how this shaping occurs is somewhat ambiguous, as is the necessary interaction of other factors in identity formation. For example, Erikson stresses the early mother-child relationship without clarifying the contribution of the father or the direct influence of the environment. He does not believe that identity is simply the result of mother-child interaction, yet the cumulative effects of other variables in its development are not made explicit.

Therefore, this investigation of vocational identity had the same

focus as Erikson's theory, that the perceived parent-child identification (in an evaluative sense) will help to determine vocational thinking. Specifically, a high evaluative identification (E-I) with the mother for career committed Ss (males and females) would be expected. A high E-I with the father would also be predicted for C C Ss, although with less theoretical support from Erikson. The degree of E-I for each parent was determined by the S from descriptive semantic terms. Based upon the Semantic Differential approach, these personality traits of the parent were scored and represented statistically as a factor score. In operational terms, the C C Ss are predicted to have higher E-I factor scores of their parents than the non C C Ss.

2. Those Ss with a moderate degree of <u>similarity identification</u> with the same-sexed parent will be career committed in contrast to either a low or high degree of <u>similarity identification</u> for non-career committed Ss. Thus a curvilinear relationship (an inverted <u>U</u>) is postulated between S-I and C C.

This hypothesis is an application of the views on parental identification held by Lynn (1969). In essence Lynn postulates the development of different 'cognitive styles' of reacting for males and females as a result of their different patterns of sex-role identifications in the family. For a male child, the mother-child identification weakens with age, and more and more problem solving ability is developed in an attempt to implement abstract principles of masculinity from cultural ideals and from one infrequent model (his father). For a female child, the early mother-child identification continues via direct imitation of the model, and this makes abstraction of female

principles by problem solving methods unnecessary.

It is possible to extend Lynn's theory of identification to vocational choice as follows: (1) problem solving abilities include the capacity to make a vocational choice; and (2) in our culture, career commitment is a part of the whole masculine role orientation for either sex. For male Ss this would mean: (1) too close a father S-I will indicate that there is a large degree of imitation leading to inferior problem solving abilities and ambivalence or low C C; and (2) too distant a father S-I will mean a poorly defined masculine role and vocational image leading to lowest C C. For female Ss the hypotheses would be: (1) too close a mother S-I will mean there is much direct imitation of the feminine role and poor problem solving abilities leading to lowest C C; and (2) too distant a mother S-I will mean there is a poor model who is detached from the daughter leading to difficulties in establishing a feminine role identification and low C C.

For both sexes then, according to Lynn a moderate degree of same-sexed parental identification (S-I) will lead to the highest degree of C C.[1] Since S-I will be operationally measured via the 'D score' technique (Cronback & Gleser, 1953), this hypothesis could be restated in statistical terms to predict that when the 'D scores' are grouped into classes with increasing degrees of S-I, the C C Ss will be found in the middle groups.

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1. Hypotheses substantiated in a personal communication from Dr. Lynn

3. The most career committed Ss will come from a middle class socio-economic background.

Socio-economic level and its relationship to career choice is a relatively minor consideration in this research. For in order to test such a relationship a widely diverse population (from many socio-economic backgrounds) would have to be utilized. Nevertheless, within the population of one community college student body it is expected that the Ss from a middle class background will be most committed to a career. This is because the lower class Ss may not have the educational guidance or family encouragement to choose a relevant college related career; while the upper class Ss may consider attendance at a public junior college a sign of failure and be poorly motivated to use their college experience as training for a career.

4. Career committed Ss (both males and females) will tend to be older than non-career committed Ss.

It is hypothesized that a positive correlation will exist between age and the degree of C C. The 'psychosocial moratorium' (Erikson, 1968) must be related to a specific developmental stage of late adolescence and/or young adulthood, so that as the S matures the personal and/or economic demands of living usually preclude continued vocational indecision. By limiting this research to a narrow age range, smaller differences would be expected, as the 21 year old Ss should be slightly more C C than the 18 year old Ss.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Pilot Studies

Pilot studies on parental identification and vocational choice were conducted during 1969. The Ss were all introductory psychology and abnormal psychology students, with a wide age range (17 to 56) and varying degrees of career commitment. Techniques for measuring identification were investigated: incomplete sentences, early childhood memories, and several attitude scales of vocational values. In addition, information was obtained as to the present vocational choice (if any) of the S, and the age, sex, economic background. The elimination of items (such as early memories and direct imitation memories which were often left blank) was determined during this pilot period. Copies of these early questionaires are included in the Appendix.

Thirty structured interviews were also conducted with individual students in order to ascertain their career plans and their reactions to parental shaping of a career commitment. The Ss were asked to describe their parents in semantic terms and then evaluate each parent and their perceived similarity to them. (For a copy of the specific questions asked the Ss, see the Appendix.) These Ss were selected from two distinct student groups: one group was assumed to be more vocationally uncommitted, selected from introductory psychology and sociology classes; while the second group was assumed to be semi-committed to a career, selected from first year nursing classes. Both groups were contacted by telephone for the half-hour interview after they had signed a sheet in class indicating that they were interested

in being subjects for a research project on vocational choice and were respectively, either not committed to any career, or semi-committed to a career.

From these thirty interviews and the responses to the pilot questionnaires, a final form of the questionnaire was designed which included direct questions on parental identification, percentage ratings on the degree of vocational commitment, future interests if related to a specific career, and a set of bi-polar adjectives used to describe each parent (which were incorporated into a Semantic Differential section).

Subjects

The Ss were day session students at Queensborough Community College of the City University of New York. During the Spring 1970 semester selected faculty members at Queensborough were contacted in person and asked to allow their students to participate in this research project. Their classes could be categorized as either semi-committed to a career (these Ss were taking required courses in a career program), or generally uncommitted to a career (liberal arts basic courses). In the semi-committed group were second semester nursing, business, electrical technology, and accounting Ss; while the presumably non-committed group were introductory psychology, philosophy, and sociology Ss. However, the degree of career commitment was measured by the subject's self-evaluation on the questionnaire. These specific class groupings were chosen to provide a wide range of career commitment and a balanced sex ratio.

For the semi-committed group a total of 13 classes participated -

5 business (males and females), 5 nursing (mostly females), and 3 electrical technology (all males). In the potentially non-committed group 16 classes participated - 5 sociology, 8 psychology, and 3 philosophy (all with males and females). Approximately 675 copies of the questionnaire (20-25 per class) were distributed, and of these 250 were returned in a completed form (100 male Ss and 150 female Ss). Unfortunately the campus became politically active and the semester ended in ferment, which precluded the returning of more questionnaires.

Each S identified himself on the questionnaire only in terms of age (all had to be between 18 and 21 years), sex, socio-economic level (from the occupation and education of the parents), race, marital status, and degree of career commitment (if any). The mean age of the Ss was 19 years, with a SE class of III on the Warner Scale (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958), and predominantly white. (See the Appendix for a summary table of the subject characteristics.)

Instruments

The modified questionnaire served as the only source of data for this study. It had several sections as follows:

1. Measure of Subject's Background

On the front of the questionnaire the S was asked to indicate his age, sex, SE level and race (but never his name). Each of these factors were quantified. For age, no further scoring was necessary as the raw data of 18, 19, 20, or 21 years was used. No rating was given for sex either, since the data from the male and female Ss were always treated separately. The occupation and education given for the parents was used to determine the socio-economic level according to the Warner Scale.

For the specific rating procedure of the Warner Scale see the Appendix.

2. Measure of Career Commitment

Six separate questions attempted to measure C C in the following aspects: (1) Specificity of Vocational Goal(s); (2) Percent Certain of a Vocational choice(s); (3) Delay Desired or Not (before making a choice); (4) Concreteness of Steps Known toward that Goal; (5) Future Interests five years from now; and (6) Future Interests ten years from now. An outline of the scoring procedure for each item appears below.

(a) Specificity of Vocational Goal(s)
- (3) Single well defined goal e.g. teaching in high school
- (2) Two well defined alternatives e.g. teaching in high school or social work
- (1) A well defined area or areas of interest e.g. teaching
- (0) No vocational choice

(b) Percent Certain of a Vocational Choice(s)
- (3) 90% or more
- (2) 80% -89%
- (1) 70% -79%
- (0) 0% -69%

(c) Delay in Choosing a Vocation
- (2) No delay wanted
- (1) Delay wanted

(d) Concreteness of Steps Toward a Vocational Goal(s)
- (3) Concrete steps known for obtaining goal(s) e.g. educational requirements, experience, licensing, etc.
- (2) Major steps known, other steps vague e.g. college major only
- (1) Vague idea about entering a specific area e.g. college only
- (0) No idea about process of obtaining a vocation

(e) Future Interests: in 5 and 10 years
- (2) Working on a specific job indicated in goal
- (1) General statement e.g. working or making money
- (0) Don't know or irrelevant remarks e.g. being happy

A factor analysis of these six aspects of C C yielded factor scores for each S which then became the individual's unique C C rating.

3. Measure of Parental Identification

The Semantic Differential was used to assess evaluative identification (E-I) and similarity identification (S-I). Six concepts, MY FATHER (ideal), MY FATHER (real), MY MOTHER (ideal), MY MOTHER (real), MY SELF (ideal), MY SELF (real),[1] were selected to define the relationship between the S and each parent. A seven point rating scale (from 0 low to 6 high) was used to score these concepts.

For each concept twelve bipolar adjectives were chosen to describe the characteristics of the person indicated in the concept. The order and positive-negative dimension of the adjectives were varied for each concept to avoid a response set. Half of these adjective pairs came from previous studies of identification: 'good-bad', 'masculine-feminine', and 'complex-simple' came from the work of Osgood et al. (1957); and 'successful-failure', 'worthless-valuable', and 'happy-sad' from the work of Gardner (1968). Factor analyses of these pairs have been done by Osgood et al. (1957) for the first three and given the factor names (respectively) of Evaluation, Potency, and Activity; while the last three were factor analized by Smith (1960; 1962) and given the factor name of Evaluation. In addition, six new adjective pairs were included because they were the most common terms used by the Ss in the interview phase as being descriptive of their parent's personalities. These were: 'nervous-calm, 'sociable-shy', 'even-tempered-moody', 'domineering-submissive', 'angry-loving', and 'stubborn-flexible'.

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1. The data for the three ideal situations (Father, Mother & Self) was often incomplete so it was not used.

Each adjective pair was scored separately in the following way:

'masculine-feminine' 6-0 if person (concept) is male
0-6 if person (concept) is female
'successful-failure' 6-0
'happy-sad' 6-0
'worthless-valuable' 0-6
'angry-loving' 0-6
'stubborn-flexible' 0-6
'complex-simple' 6-0
'nervous-calm' 0-6
'even-tempered-moody' 6-0
'good-bad' 6-0
'domineering-submissive' 6-0
'sociable-shy' 6-0.

A factor analysis for the concepts REAL SELF, REAL FATHER, and REAL MOTHER determined the underlying relationships among these pairs of adjectives. The Evaluative factor was then identified by the evaluative item factor scores as the measure of E-I.

The measure of S-I, or similarity between S and parent was obtained from the Semantic Differential data by the 'D score' method (the square root of the summed squared differences between the SELF concept and REAL FATHER or REAL MOTHER concept scores on the same adjective pairs) from Cronbach and Gleser (1953). Thus, the lower the D score for S and father or S and mother, the higher the degree of perceived similarity (S-I) between them.

4. Measure of Vocational Attitudes

A third section of the questionnaire consisted of a Vocational Attitude Scale (VAS) assessing career-oriented values. However, the VAS was not used because of the lack of clarity inherent in some of the items. Every other item was worded positively or negatively to avoid a response set, yet many Ss did not answer opposite items in the consistent direction.

Procedures

Approximately 675 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to Queensborough students during the Spring 1970 semester; the Ss were requested to fill them out at home and return them to their respective instructors. A five minute motivational introduction covering the purpose of the research was given the class first, and then their cooperation as potential Ss was asked. (See the Appendix for a copy of the exact statement.) Two safeguards were included in this instructional speech: first, all Ss were assured of the complete anonymity of their responses; and second, all interested Ss were asked to sign their names and addresses on a separate sheet if they wished to receive a summary of the results of the study. In general, a plea for honest, direct answers to the questionnaire items was made, especially to the career items where if they had no present vocational goal they were asked to say so rather than to make-up an idealized goal. They were also asked to read carefully the instructions inclosed in each questionnaire before completing it. Then copies were given to all interested students between the ages of 18 and 21.

Through-out the remainder of the Spring term periodic contacts with the participating faculty members yielded completed questionnaires. With the growing political unrest on campus and a temporary closing of the college, the ratio of returned questionnaires was approximately 37%. In the end, 100 males and 150 female students completed enough of the items to become the sample for this research.

All of the completed questionnaires were scored according to the procedures outlined previously. These raw scores were transferred to

IBM cards for the appropriate computer analyses. After factor scores were obtained for the different variables, these too were punched on IBM cards.

The several factor analyses were performed by an IBM 1130 computer at the Graduate Center of the City University of New York. An IBM stock program with a Varimax Rotation was utilized for this, with the Principle Components method of extracting factors. A Xerox Data Systems Sigma 7 computer at Queens College of the City University of New York was used for the rest of the statistical analyses.[1]

1. Some routines used were from the Numerical Subroutine Package for the Xerox Data Systems Sigma 7 computers. These programs are essentially the same as the IBM Scientific Subroutine Package for System 360. Other routines, e.g. the D score analysis were programmed separately.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Career Commitment

1. Population Characteristics

A χ^2 was performed on each of the six Career Commitment (C C) items to compare the male and female populations. The males and females were significantly different (at the .01 or .001 level) in their responses to C C items 2, 4, and 6 (see Table 2 in the Appendix). Regarding an immediate career commitment, the males were less certain and did not know the steps involved in obtaining a career; while in regard to a future career commitment, the males were more definite about their jobs. No significant χ^2 differences appeared for the other items (Specificity of Goal(s), Delay, and Five Years in the Future).

Examination of the means and standard deviations for each of the six C C questions (see Table 2 in the Appendix) revealed that for items 1-4 females were consistently more career committed than males, while males demonstrated more variability in their responses than females. The data for the last two items were more complex, as a career choice extending 5 versus 10 years into the future has distinct meanings for each sex. These differences imply that females know more about how to obtain a career at age 19 (the mean age for both sexes), but are unsure how to incorporate that career into a possible marriage at age 29; while the males know less about how to obtain any career at age 19, but anticipate a greater career commitment at age 29. The generally higher level of career commitment for the female Ss could be reflective of the higher number of nursing students (mostly females) who returned the questionnaire.

2. Factor Analyses

The inter-relationships between each of the six C C questions were determined by a Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient. In Table 3 (for males) and Table 4 (for females) quite similar patterns of results are found, with high positive inter-item correlations among any of the first four C C items and between the last two items.

To determine the underlying dimensions of career commitment, the six C C items were factor analyzed using the Principle Components method. Characteristic roots greater than one determined the number of factors extracted; in this case two factors were extracted for both males and females. From these factor analyses, factor scores were also obtained which became the numerical representation of C C for each S. Because of the rotation procedure in this analyses, the low minus factor scores represented the highest degree of career commitment.

Summaries of the factor analyses are recorded in Table 5 for males and Table 6 for females. The C C I factor included the first four items; and C C II factor was composed of the two future interests items. This first factor, C C I, from an inspection of the items of which it was composed became the primary measure of career commitment for this study; and was the main factor as it accounted for 52.6% (in males) and 62.5% (in females) of the total variance. The second factor, C C II, concerned future items and was used as another measure of career commitment. C C II accounted for 43.1% (in males) and 31.2% (in females) of the total variance. Factor score frequency distributions comparing males and females are found in Figure 1 for C C I and Figure 2 for C C II in the Appendix.

Table 3

Correlation Matrix for Six Career Commitment Items for 100 Male Ss.

C C Item	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Specificity		.43*	.48*	.65*	-.14	-.13
2 % Sure of Goal			.44*	.45*	.00	.03
3 Delay or Not				.52*	-.01	.02
4 Steps Known					-.13	-.09
5 Future: 5 Years						.94*
6 Future: 10 Years						

* sig. at .01 level

Table 4

Correlation Matrix for Six Career Commitment Items for 150 Female Ss.

C C Item	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Specificity		.42*	.51*	.62*	.08	.06
2 % Sure of Goal			.54*	.48*	.19	.11
3 Delay or Not				.42*	.20	.11
4 Steps Known					.15	.10
5 Future: 5 Years						.61*
6 Future: 10 Years						

* sig. at .01 level

Table 5

Factor Analysis Matrix of Six Career Commitment Items for 100 Male Ss.

C.C. Item	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth Factor Matrix		Factor Score Regression Coeff.	
			I	II	I	II
1.	2.18	.61	-.77	-.12	-.34	.01
2.	1.79	.38	-.01	.04	-.18	.01
3.	.14	.47	-.68	.03	-.23	.01
4.	.05	.63	-.79	-.09	-.38	.01
5.	.01	.94	.05	.97	.03	.49
6.	-.02	.94	.01	.97	-.09	.51

Factor I - first four variables with 52.6% of total variance
Factor II - last two variables with 43.1% of total variance

Table 6

Factor Analysis Matrix of Six Career Commitment Items for 150 Female Ss.

C.C. Item	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth Factor Matrix		Factor Score Regression Coeff.	
			I	II	I	II
1.	2.21	.58	-.76	-.00	-.34	-.07
2.	1.11	.47	-.67	.13	-.23	.01
3.	.24	.49	-.68	.13	-.24	.01
4.	.07	.56	-.75	.07	-.32	-.02
5.	-.01	.61	-.13	.77	.01	.49
6.	-.08	.60	-.05	.78	.05	.48

Factor I -first four variables with 62.5% of total variance
Factor II - last two variables with 31.2% of total variance

From the factor scores for C C I the 20 most career committed Ss were compared to the 20 least career committed Ss via a t test, which was significant for both sexes at the .01 level. Thus there was a wide range of difference with respect to the degree of career commitment in the sample population (see Table 7 below). The greatest differences in career commitment occurred within the female population.

It is interesting to note now that although approximately equal numbers of questionnaires were distributed to males and females, the female Ss returned the questionnaires at a greater rate. It is possible that the motivation to be a subject in a research project interacted with the degree of career commitment. The motivation to participate or not should not be overlooked in any study (Carlson, 1971), yet in this research context it cannot be measured.

Table 7

The t Test Results Comparing the C C I Factor Score Means of the Most Career Committed and the Least Career Committed Ss.

	df	t
Male Ss	38	28.2*
Female Ss	38	85.4*

*sig. at .01 level

Evaluative Identification

Hypothesis 1 states: Those Ss with a higher degree of evaluative identification (E-I) with one or both parents will be more career

committed than those Ss with a low evaluative identification (E-I). Using the C C factor scores as the operational measure of career commitment for each subject, it would follow that those Ss with higher scores (e.g. more career committed) should also have higher evaluative identification scores for each parent derived from the Semantic Differential. It would be predicted then that the higher the C C scores the higher the E-I scores should be for each subject.

The means and standard deviations for the Semantic Differential adjective-pairs on the REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER concepts are presented in Table 8 for males and Table 9 for females. From these Semantic Differential data two approaches to an operational measure of E-I were used. First, a factor analysis via the Principle Components method yielded factor scores for the concepts of REAL SELF, REAL FATHER, and REAL MOTHER; second, an evaluative summary score from the raw data was formed from the sum of five adjective-pairs.

1. Factor Analyses of REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER concepts- The specific data are found in Table 10 for males and Table 11 for females. For REAL SELF, <u>one</u> factor emerged accounting for 61% (in males) and 60% (in females) of the total variance.[1] The REAL FATHER concept yielded <u>two</u> factors: factor I was the major one as it accounted for 72.7% (in males) and 69.6% (in females) of the total variance. This first factor had face validity as an evaluative factor as it was composed of the three strongly evaluative items (good-bad, worthless-valuable, successful-failure) as well as other adjective pairs.

1. The criterion for extracting the number of factors was a characteristic root greater than one in each of these analyses. In this case the number of characteristic roots equaled the number of items.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of the Twelve Adjective-Pairs in the Semantic Differential Concepts of REAL SELF, REAL FATHER, and REAL MOTHER for 100 Male Ss.

	REAL SELF		REAL FATHER		REAL MOTHER	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. Masculine-Feminine	4.82	.97	5.06	1.23	1.75	1.79
2. Successful-Failure	3.83	1.02	4.17	1.50	4.09	1.53
3. Happy-Sad	3.78	1.45	3.90	1.56	3.70	1.61
4. Worthless-Valuable	4.00	1.34	4.59	1.55	4.83	1.36
5. Angry-Loving	4.09	1.46	3.83	1.75	4.35	1.67
6. Stubborn-Flexible	3.10	1.73	2.15	1.95	3.14	1.93
7. Complex-Simple	4.37	1.43	3.61	1.60	3.00	1.70
8. Nervous-Calm	2.66	1.73	2.97	1.90	2.53	1.89
9. Even-Tempered-Moody	3.11	1.63	3.05	1.97	3.25	1.88
10. Good-Bad	4.32	1.29	4.65	1.62	4.77	1.73
11. Domineering-Submissive	3.46	1.41	3.82	1.79	3.52	1.67
12. Sociable-Shy	3.71	1.75	4.09	1.71	4.42	1.51

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of the Twelve Adjective-Pairs in the Semantic Differential Concepts of REAL SELF, REAL FATHER, and REAL MOTHER for 150 Female Ss.

	REAL SELF		REAL FATHER		REAL MOTHER	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. Masculine-Feminine	1.14	.90	5.13	.89	1.17	1.43
2. Successful-Failure	3.75	1.03	4.33	1.48	4.07	1.40
3. Happy-Sad	4.24	1.37	4.21	1.42	4.11	1.45
4. Worthless-Valuable	4.23	1.14	4.91	1.39	4.97	1.24
5. Angry-Loving	4.74	1.20	4.45	1.69	4.80	1.36
6. Stubborn-Flexible	2.94	1.68	2.15	1.76	3.28	1.86
7. Complex-Simple	3.97	1.43	3.80	1.47	3.26	1.61
8. Nervous-Calm	2.61	1.57	3.12	1.80	2.39	1.89
9. Even-Tempered-Moody	2.83	1.47	3.06	1.92	2.99	1.69
10. Good-Bad	4.52	1.09	4.81	1.41	5.11	1.15
11. Domineering-Submissive	3.25	1.33	3.70	1.60	3.30	1.62
12. Sociable-Shy	3.65	1.70	4.30	1.59	4.50	1.41

Table 10

Factor Analyses of Twelve Adjective-Pairs on the REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER Concepts on the Semantic Differential for 100 Male Ss.

	REAL SELF				REAL FATHER						REAL MOTHER					
	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth. Factor Matrix	Factor Score Regression Coefficient	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth. Factor I Matrix	Orth. Factor II Matrix	Factor Score Regression Coefficient I	Factor Score Regression Coefficient II	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth. Factor I Matrix	Orth. Factor II Matrix	Factor Score Regression Coefficient I	Factor Score Regression Coefficient II
Item 1	3.07	.04	-.20	-.03	4.88	.65	-.26	.76	.10	.41	3.78	.16	-.08	-.39	-.06	-.12
2	.84	.44	-.66	-.19	1.09	.53	-.52	.51	-.07	.13	1.18	.61	-.31	.72	.03	.36
3	.58	.44	-.66	-.19	.59	.58	-.69	.32	-.19	.00	.88	.56	-.62	.43	-.14	.10
4	.46	.38	-.61	-.16	.35	.61	-.63	.46	-.14	.10	.39	.61	-.33	.71	.02	.35
5	.41	.44	-.67	-.20	.24	.57	-.74	.15	-.24	-.10	.23	.55	-.66	.33	-.18	.04
6	.20	.10	-.32	-.06	.12	.45	-.67	.03	-.19	-.11	.15	.68	-.82	.05	-.40	-.19
7	.15	.02	-.16	-.03	.03	.35	-.27	.53	.02	.14	.08	.15	.17	.35	.07	.11
8	.04	.07	-.27	-.05	-.02	.25	-.46	.20	-.07	-.00	-.03	.41	-.63	-.07	-.18	-.12
9	-.06	.16	-.40	-.08	-.09	.51	-.71	.07	-.22	-.11	-.06	.53	-.72	.11	-.23	-.08
10	-.14	.29	-.54	-.12	-.11	.52	-.63	.36	-.14	.04	-.11	.45	-.41	.54	-.03	.17
11	-.23	.17	-.41	-.08	-.17	.49	.08	.69	.17	.32	-.19	.06	.24	-.04	.04	.01
12	-.29	.52	-.72	-.24	-.19	.45	-.46	.49	-.04	.11	-.25	.20	-.19	.40	.00	.09

Table 19

Factor Analyses of Twelve Adjective-Pairs on the REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER Concepts on the Semantic Differential for 150 Female Ss.

	REAL SELF				REAL FATHER						REAL MOTHER			
	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth. Factor Matrix	Factor Score Regression Coefficient	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth. Factor Matrix I	Orth. Factor Matrix II	Factor Score Regression Coefficient I	Factor Score Regression Coefficient II	Char. Roots	Communalities	Orth. Factor Matrix	Factor Score Regression Coefficient
Item 1	2.76	.32	.56	.15	4.48	.45	-.64	.20	-.16	.21	3.31	.00	.05	.01
2	.33	.32	-.56	-.15	1.08	.54	-.73	.06	-.19	.17	.85	.38	-.61	-.15
3	.70	.39	-.62	-.18	.55	.56	-.70	-.25	-.14	-.04	.65	.44	-.66	-.18
4	.37	.55	-.74	-.30	.24	.67	-.81	-.12	-.25	.09	.27	.47	-.69	-.19
5	.28	.42	-.65	-.20	.19	.72	-.74	-.41	-.19	-.23	.23	.51	-.72	-.22
6	.18	.02	-.16	-.03	.12	.45	-.28	-.61	.01	-.30	.13	.21	-.46	-.09
7	.09	.00	-.07	-.01	.10	.07	-.03	.27	-.03	-.09	.08	.03	-.17	-.02
8	.05	.04	-.19	-.04	.04	.41	-.39	-.51	-.00	-.25	.03	.20	-.45	-.08
9	-.04	.07	-.27	-.05	-.01	.58	-.52	-.55	-.03	-.30	-.02	.30	-.55	-.12
10	-.14	.32	-.56	-.15	-.10	.52	-.70	-.18	.14	.01	-.05	.49	-.70	-.21
11	-.21	.05	-.21	-.04	-.11	.18	-.14	.40	-.06	.17	-.16	.00	.04	.01
12	-.24	.27	-.52	-.13	-.20	.41	-.64	.32	-.13	.10	-.22	.27	-.52	-.11

REAL FATHER factor II which accounted for 16.2% (in males) and 16.8% (in females) of the total variance was not utilized as its factor structure tended to include the more emotional items such as domineering-submissive or stubborn-flexible which did not appear in other studies using an evaluative factor (Osgood, 1957). These items were used later in a more general comparison of personality characteristics for the S-I hypothesis. The REAL MOTHER concept differed most in its factor structure when male and female Ss were compared. For males two factors were present; Factor I accounted for 62.5% of the total variance and had its highest loadings on the more emotional items (stubborn-flexible, moody-even-tempered, angry-loving). Factor II accounted for 20% of the variance with its highest loadings coming from the more evaluative items (successful-failure, worthless-valuable, good-bad). Because of these factor loadings, Factor II became the evaluative measure of the mother for the male Ss. For females, one factor for the REAL MOTHER concept was revealed which accounted for 65% of the total variance.

From the factor structures of these Semantic Differential concepts it is evident that the Ss described themselves (REAL SELF) and their fathers (REAL FATHER) in similar patterns from the adjective-pairs. However, male Ss characterized their mothers (REAL MOTHER) via emotional adjectives primarily and then in more evaluative terms too. Female Ss did not describe their mothers according to this two factor pattern, but like the males did describe their fathers in this way. Perhaps the opposite sexed parent is perceived in a more complex way by each sex. But why males reversed the pattern to see their mothers

predominately in an emotional and to a lesser extent in an evaluative perspective is unclear.

2. Correlational Analyses between C C and E-I - Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients were computed between the factor scores (from the Semantic Differential data as a measure of E-I) and the C C I and C C II factor scores. Table 12 reveales that no significant correlations (at the .05 level) emerged between C C I factor and REAL SELF, REAL FATHER, or REAL MOTHER factor scores for either sex. Table 13 shows one significant correlation (at the .01 level) in male Ss between C C II and REAL MOTHER, while the relationship between C C II and either REAL SELF or REAL FATHER was not significant. Thus the more positive (in an evaluative sense) the males saw their mothers, the more they realized some career commitment would be evident in their futures. For males the degree of future C C was influenced by their present E-I with the mother, which is one of the relationships expected from hypothesis 1.

Erikson's theory of the primary role of the mother figure may be partially substantiated by this finding. Yet the degree of the mother's E-I did not have any significant effect upon the female Ss' C C, which would have been expected from Erikson's theory too. With this one exception, these correlational data failed to support hypothesis 1. Because it was possible that the self evaluation was significant in the development of C C in the Ss, this explanation for the above inconclusive results was explored.

3. The Relationship between REAL SELF and C C I Factor Scores - As a further investigation of the correlational data for hypothesis 1,

several analyses were performed between the REAL SELF factor scores and C C I. First, the means for the REAL SELF scores were found when grouped according to the degree of career commitment (see Table 14). For males, C C1, and for females, C C2, (with negative factor scores indicating the highest raw scores) had the highest self evaluation mean score as measured by the REAL SELF factor scores. Because of this possible trend between high self evaluation and C C I, a one way analysis of variance (randomized groups design) for the five groups of C C Ss and REAL SELF factor scores was performed. For males, an obtained F value of .266 was non-significant (at .05 level); and for females, an obtained F value of 3.52 was significant at the .01 level (see Table 15). Thus, females tended to evaluate themselves more positively the more committed to a career they became.

A positive self concept for the females interacted significantly with career commitment in this sample as would have been predicted by Super (1960), Korman (1969) and Irvin (1968); but this finding does not support the Eriksonian position of the primary role of the parental over the self evaluation (identification) factors. Yet if the self concept variable is indeed the relevant factor in developing career commitment, it should have been demonstrated in regard to the male Ss too. Although the meaning of C C may be distinct for each sex.

4. The Relationship between an Evaluative Summary Score and C C I - The E-I factor scores suffered from a lack of invariance (consistency) across stimulus items. These scores reflected the contribution of all 12 items according to their loadings. Before rejecting hypothesis 1, five evaluative items with unrotated factor loadings of .50 or above

were used to operationally define the E-I measure. These items also had face validity as evaluative items in all six stimulus situations (REAL SELF, REAL FATHER & REAL MOTHER for males and females). These summed scores from the five adjective-pairs (Successful-Failure, Happy-Sad, Angry-Loving, Worthless-Valuable & Good-Bad) were used as an E-I measure also.

Via a Pearson Product-Moment correlational analysis, these evaluative sums were related to the C C I factor scores. The results are found in the correlation matrices, Table 16 (males) and Table 17 (females). For males, significant correlations occurred between C C I and real self (.05 level) and C C I and real mother (.01 level), and between real mother and real self (.05 level) and real mother and real father (.01 level). For females, significant correlations occurred between C C I and real self (.05 level) and C C I and real mother (.01 level), and between real mother and real self (.05 level) and real mother and real father (.01 level).

The data showed that in males the higher the degree of C C the higher the degree of self-evaluation and mother evaluation. This latter finding is consistent with Erikson's prediction. Although males evaluated their parents in a similar way, their strikingly higher mother evaluation if career committed is strong substantiation for the Eriksonian position. The more career committed females had high evaluations of themselves, their fathers and especially their mothers, supports the role of the mother as Erikson had emphasized in identity formation. Career commitment as one part of identity formation is also influenced by the role of the mother, for either males or females, according to this data.

Table 12

Correlation Coefficients for C C I Factor Scores and REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER Factor Scores for 100 Male and 150 Female Ss.

	Males	Females
C C I & REAL SELF	-.052	.040
C C I & REAL FATHER	.095	.021
C C I & REAL MOTHER	.192	.078
		all N S

Table 13

Correlation Coefficients for C C II Factor Scores and REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER Factor Scores for 100 Male and 150 Female Ss.

	Males	Females
C C II & REAL SELF	-.158	.023
C C II & REAL FATHER	.006	.044
C C II & REAL MOTHER	.217*	.043
		* sig. at .01 level

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations of REAL SELF Factor Scores When Put In Order from Most C C (group 1) to Least C C (group 5) for 100 Male and 145 Female Ss.

		C C1	C C2	C C3	C C4	C C5
Males	$\bar{X}$s	-.34	-.06	.02	.21	.16
	SDs	1.04	.55	.93	.69	.86
Females	$\bar{X}$s	-.20	-.47	.06	.44	.18
	SDs	.90	.81	1.07	.79	.97

Table 15

One Way Analyses of Variance of the Degree of C C Upon REAL SELF Scores.

Ss	Source of Variation	df	MS	F	p
Males	Total	99			
N 100	Among Groups	4	.1975	.2666	N.S.
	Within Groups	95	.7422		
Females	Total	144			
N 145	Among Groups	4	3.0624	3.518	> .01
	Within Groups	140	.8706		

Table 16

Correlation Matrix of Five Summed Evaluative Items on the Semantic Differential (Raw Data) and the C C I Factor Scores for 98 Male Ss.

	C C I	∑r Self	∑r Fa	∑r Mo
C C I		-.201**	-.145	-.510*
∑r Self			.151	.311**
∑r Father				.419*
∑r Mother				

* sig. at .01 level
** sig. at .05 level

Table 17

Correlation Matrix of Five Summed Evaluative Items on the Semantic Differential (Raw Data) and the C C I Factor Scores for 149 Female Ss.

	C C I	∑r Self	∑r Fa	∑r Mo
C C I		-.222**	-.287**	-.774*
∑r Self			.383*	.292**
∑r Father				.422*
∑r Mother				

* sig. at .01 level
** sig. at .05 level

Similarity Identification

Hypothesis 2 states: Those Ss with a moderate degree of similarity identification (S-I) with the same-sexed parent will be more career committed in contrast to either a low or high degree of similarity identification (S-I) for non-career committed Ss. Different degrees of S-I with the same-sexed parent are also predicted to have an influence upon the strength of career commitment which will vary depending upon the sex of the S. For males, the lowest degree of C C will be expected when the father S-I is too distant; and for females, the lowest degree of C C will be expected when the mother S-I is too close. The general prediction from Lynn's theory would be a curvilinear relationship (inverted U) between the C C factor scores and the S-I D scores for both sexes.

The similarity of specific personality traits listed in the Semantic Differential concepts, e.g. between S and father and S and mother, was measured via the D score technique. Five D score groups with approximately equal N's (for males and females separately) were formed which represented the degree of S-I with each parent. Thus, D1 group was most like and had the lowest D or difference score, and D5 group was most unlike and had the highest D or difference score.

1. ANOVAR - An analysis of variance (randomized groups design) was performed separately for males and females to determine whether the D groups differed in C C I. Summary data of means and standard deviations for the four different D groups (S-Father, S-Mother for males and females) are found in Table 18. The ANOVAR data are summarized in Table 19 for males and Table 20 for females, and reveals

that for both sexes all of the obtained F values are insignificant. Therefore, no relationship was indicated between S-I and C C I by this analysis.

2. Plotted C C Group Means Based Upon the D Scores - In order to test the curvilinearity of the C C - S-I relationship, the C C I factor scores were grouped according to their corresponding D score. Thus, C C1 represented the degree of C C present in those Ss who were most like their fathers or mothers, and C C5 represented the degree of C C evident in those Ss who were least like their respective parents. The means and standard deviations for each of these CC D groups are found in Table 21 for both males and females.

Each of these five CC D group means were plotted, for S-Fa and S-Mo, and the graphs appear in Figure 3 (p. 57). By visual inspection of these curves, it is evident that only one plot, S-Fa for female Ss, approaches the inverted U curve. All of the other graphs, for S-Fa males, S-Mo males, and S-Mo females, showed no consistent pattern.

As a further exploration of hypothesis 2, the CC D group means were classified according to high, medium and low degrees of career commitment (see Figure 4, p. 55). Again the only curve approaching an inverted U would be S-Fa for female Ss. In females then there is a suggestion of support for hypothesis 2, as the most C C Ss are also moderately similar in personality traits to their fathers. The trend that the group most similar to their fathers (D1) had the lowest degree of C C is not directly relevant to hypothesis 2, which dealt only with same-sexed parent. The possibility that such a relationship exists should be investigated in future research.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for the Five D score Groups (where D1 is most like the parent and D5 is least like the parent).

	S-Fa Groups					S-Mo Groups				
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5
Males N of 100										
$\bar{X}$	3.63	5.09	6.19	7.52	10.30	4.47	6.50	7.27	8.29	10.0
SD	.48	.36	.44	.46	1.34	1.58	.38	.30	.33	.98

	S-Fa Groups					S-Mo Groups				
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5
Females N of 150										
$\bar{X}$	5.12	6.47	7.32	8.17	9.89	3.33	4.87	5.83	6.97	8.88
SD	.46	.45	.21	.53	1.28	1.12	.31	.38	.46	.80

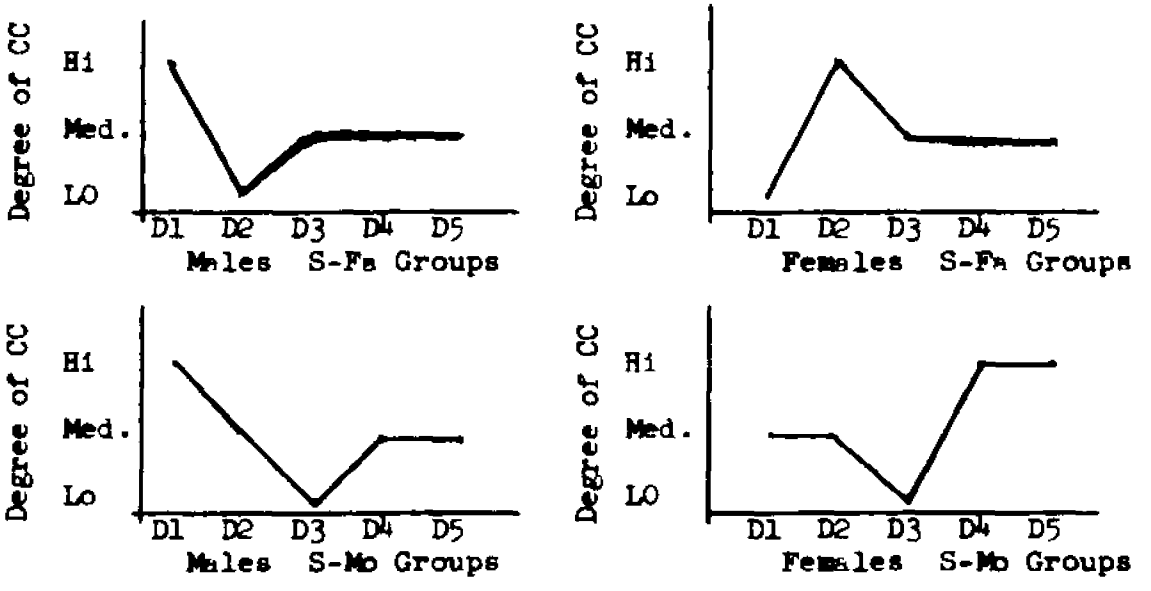


Figure 4. The plotted C C means when grouped into high, medium, and low classes of career commitment. The range of the factor scores for high C C range from -.30 to -.15; the range of medium C C factor scores is from -.14 to .09; and the range for low C C factor scores is from .10 to .25.

Table 19

One Way Analyses of Variance of S-I (D groups) and C C Factor Scores for Male Ss.

Item	Source of Variation	df	MS	F	p
S-I Father	Total	97		.568	N.S.
	Among Groups	4	.486		
	Within Groups	93	.943		
S-I Mother	Total	98		.339	N.S.
	Among Groups	4	.248		
	Within Groups	94	.732		

Table 20

One Way Analyses of Variance of S-I (D groups) and C C Factor Scores for Female Ss.

Item	Source of Variation	df	MS	F	p
S-I Father	Total	140		.668	N.S.
	Among Groups	4	.535		
	Within Groups	136	.801		
S-I Mother	Total	145		.519	N.S.
	Among Groups	4	.425		
	Within Groups	141	.818		

Table 21

Means and Standard Deviations for Five C C groups Based Upon D Scores (where D1 is most like parent and D5 is least like parent).

	S-Fa Groups					S-Mo Groups				
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5
Males N of 100										
$\bar{X}$	-.25	.16	.03	.10	-.04	-.18	-.07	.17	-.06	.09
SD	.99	.80	1.07	.73	.95	.82	.81	1.07	.90	.94
	S-Fa Groups					S-Mo Groups				
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5
Females N of 150										
$\bar{X}$	.12	-.18	-.11	.08	-.04	-.27	-.05	.25	-.15	.03
SD	1.05	.75	.87	.88	.85	.82	.83	1.09	.82	.93

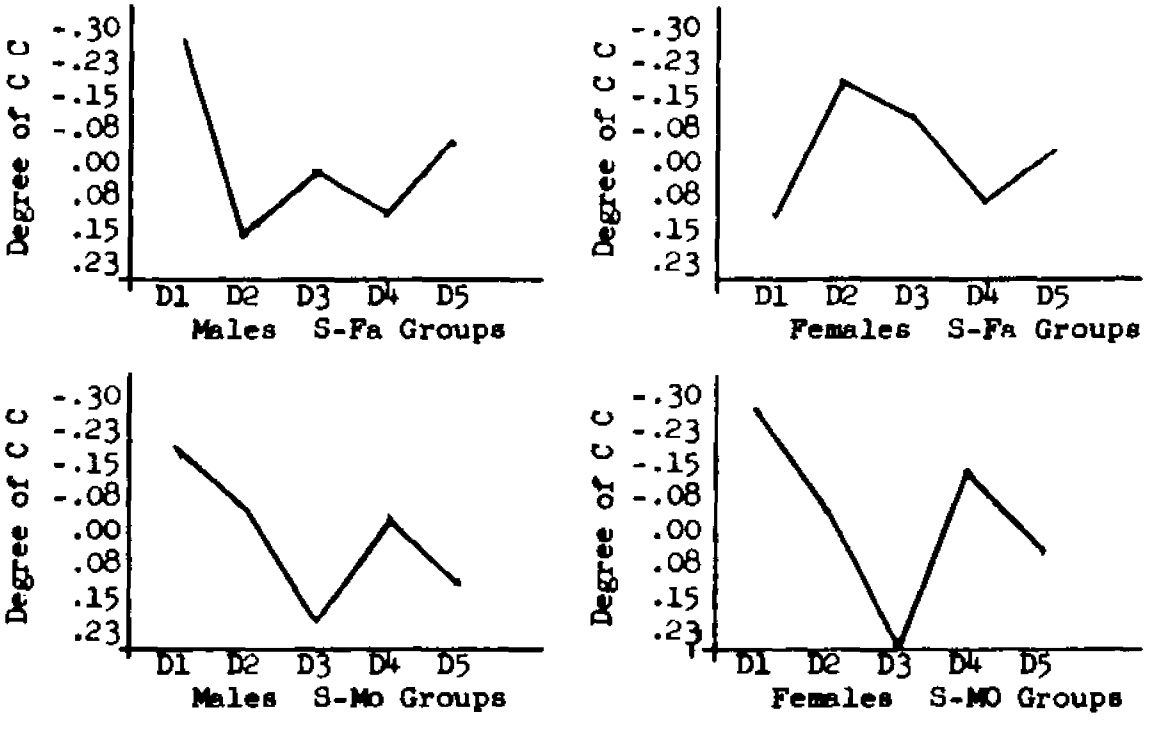


Figure 3. The plotted means for the C C I groups based upon the D score analyses for 100 male and 150 female Ss. The D1 groups are most like the parent and the D5 groups least like the parent; and the minus factor scores are the highest degree of C C and the positive factor scores the lowest degree of C C.

In summary S-I and C C tended to have the following relationships: (1) For males, lowest C C was associated with moderate similarity to the parent (D2 for father and D3 for mother); low C C (medium) was grouped with the least similar D groups for either parent; high C C was related to highest similarity to either parent. (2) For females, lowest C C was associated with most similarity to fathers and moderate similarity to mothers; low (medium) C C was grouped with moderate similarity to the father and least similarity with mothers; while high C C was related to moderate similarity to fathers and least similarity to mothers. However, none of these S-I and C C interactions were shown to be significant statistically, but were inferences taken from the plotted data.

By extension of these inferences it would appear that for males the more similar they saw themselves in personality characteristics to either parent the more C C they became, which is what hypothesis 1 would have predicted in an evaluative rather than a similarity context. These two meanings of identification need to be defined via more research. If a young male must first see himself like his parents rather than approve of what they may be (in an evaluative sense) before he can achieve an identity which includes a vocation, it would give support to the Eriksonian position. For females, the S-I - C C data were so different for each parent as to suggest again that career choice needs more specialized measuring procedures for women (Farnsworth, 1969).

Another reason for these inconclusive results in regard to hypothesis 2, might be that the CC D groups were too small, e.g. not sufficiently different from each other as to reflect differences in C C. Hence a series of t tests were performed to investigate this possibility

(see Table 22 in the Appendix). None of the D groups differed from each other in the degree of C C.

3. Correlation Coefficients between S-I and CC D Groups - Since hypothesis 2 (curvilinearity) was not supported by an inspection of the plotted data, correlations were calculated. Thus the total D score (for father S-I) and the total D score (for mother S-I) were correlated with the C C I factor score (see Table 23). A distinct sex difference in the pattern of correlations was found. A correlation ($p < .01$ level) was found between S-I for father and C C I, and a negative correlation ($p < .05$ level) was shown between S-I for mother and C C I in males.

Some relationship was demonstrated between the degree of similarity to the parent and the degree of C C, but only within the male sample. The more similar the men consider themselves in personality traits to their fathers the more career committed they are. The more similar they consider their personalities to be to their mothers, the less career committed they become. When the opposite sexed parent is perceived to be too similar to the S, it has a negative effect upon his degree of career commitment (which would be a slight modification of Lynn's predictions). It should be noted that overt similarity between S and parent rather than perceived subjective similarity between S and parent, may lead to different results.

The E-I and S-I Relationship

Since two distinct measures of parental identification (E-I & S-I) were used in this study, the relationship between these measures was determined. Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients were

computed between E-I (based on factor scores) and S-I (based on D score groups) for each parent separately. None of these correlations listed in Table 24 were significantly different from zero at the .05 level of significance. Thus, E-I and S-I would appear to be distinct measures of identification, or the variable of 'identification' is so complex that there are at least two independent aspects within it. Based upon this evidence of its complexity, it is essential that identification as used in personality theories be explicitly defined.

Table 23

Correlation Coefficients for S-I (D score groups for father & mother) and C C I Factor Scores for 99 Male and 145 Female Ss.

	Males	Females
S-I (D group for Father)	.272*	.051
S-I (D group for Mother)	-.242**	.030

* sig. at .01 level
** sig. at .05 level

Table 24

Correlation Coefficients Between E-I (Factor Scores for REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER concepts) and S-I (D scores for Father and Mother).

	Males (N of 99)	Females (N of 145)
E-I & S-I for father	.189	.134
E-I & S-I for mother	.073	.039

all r's N.S.

Socio-economic Level and C C

Hypothesis 3 states that: The most career committed Ss will come from a middle class socio-economic (SE) level. To test this hypothesis Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficients were found for SE and relevant variables for both males and females separately (see Table 25). No significant correlations emerged in support of hypothesis 3, perhaps because the range of SE level within the sample was too small.

Table 25

Correlation Coefficients between Socio-economic Level and Relevant Career Commitment or Semantic Differential Data.

	Males (N of 100)	Females (N of 150)
SE Level & C C I factor scores	.11	.01
SE Level & C C II factor scores	.15	.09
SE Level & REAL FATHER scores	-.12	.09
SE Level & REAL MOTHER scores	.21	-.02
SE Level & REAL SELF scores	.01	.02
		all r's N.S.

Age Level and C C

Hypothesis 4 states that: The career committed Ss will tend to be older than the non-career committed Ss. This was tested via relevant correlational analyses using the Pearson Product-Moment method. In Table 26 these correlations are found, none of which were significant. Hypothesis 4 was not confirmed, as age within the range of 18 to 21 years had no significant influence upon career choice. If a larger range were used, or a different sample population (such as a four year college not a community college) this might have been shown to be different.

Table 26

Correlation Coefficients between Age and Relevant Career Commitment or Semantic Differential Data for 100 Male and 150 Female Ss.

	Males	Females
Age & C C I factor scores	.188	-.104
Age & C C II factor scores	.099	-.020
Age & REAL FATHER scores	.035	.042
Age & REAL MOTHER scores	.035	.004
Age & REAL SELF scores	.088	.012

all r's N.S.

Implications

Career commitment is a variable which must change according to the cultural and/or attitudinal context in which it is measured. It becomes necessary then to assess the findings of this study within the perspective of the changing culture of 1970.

On college campuses, that Spring Term brought student dissent to a sharp focus after the Kent State tragedy. Apathy and disillusionment turned to anger and action for many Queensborough students; the larger issues of political commitment overshadowed learning in an academic sense as a result of Kent State. All units of the City University were closed, and when they reopened attendance dropped and finals became optional for most students. Within this context, the collection of the last of the completed questionnaires occurred. Therefore, many of the more politically active students did not return to school or complete their questionnaires. However, the more non-political student did return to be included in this sample, and this may account for the high

proportion of career committed Ss within this population. Also, those with a lower level of C C (even prior to Kent State) may have been less willing to participate and thereby admit their lack of a vocational goal. If a hand count of Ss who were committed and non-committed had been taken when the questionnaires were distributed, this ratio could have been checked against the ratio of C C Ss found in the sample. Without doubt these two issues, the initial level of career commitment and the level of political involvement, interacted to produce a particular motivational set in the Ss. However, to what extent the results were distorted by these factors cannot be known.

Career commitment is a concept dependent for a definition upon the broader context in which this generation of young adults finds itself today. The Women's Liberation movement, as part of that context, is changing the traditional values attached to the role of women, especially working women. C C II, which was found to be lower for females, may indeed become higher as more college girls see themselves involved in a career whether married or not. The number of young radical students (Keniston, 1968) or consciousness III students (Reich, 1970) on college campuses will also help to redefine the values of youth today. Many of these students bring to their own generation ideas inherent in a word like 'non-career', for ...

> What is beginning to evolve is the concept of a "non-career" or "vocation." The old way of choosing a career was to find what one was "best fitted for." That is, the individual reviewed the list of all the functions that society wanted filled and was prepared to pay for, then tested his own abilities, and finally fitted the two together as best he could. Finding a noncareer requires a better knowledge of self to start off with; a decision, necessarily tentative, about what one would find most satisfying and fulfilling. ...He must continually remake his definition as he learns more about himself and about his world. Reich (1970), p. 368.

Since American society is in a state of change, there must also be a changing concept of the purpose of a career, from a means of making money to a means of self-discovery. If so, according to Reich (1970), commitment to a career will continually change as new aspects (aptitudes) of the self are discovered. When and if this 'consciousness III life-style' becomes dominant in our society, career commitment (in the traditional sense) will be an obsolete concept. Yet the results of this study show that C C is (in part) related to positive self concepts (especially for females) and positive evaluations of the mother for both males and females. But can self-discovery occur in a vacuum? Or is it not plausible to assume that self-discovery (Reich) and/or identity formation (Erikson) must grow out of the security of emotional relatedness to people at an early age? Even Keniston (1968) reported that the politically committed youth he studied had in common a positive emotional relationship toward their mothers and an ambivalent relationship toward their fathers. Perhaps the close mother-child relationship is necessary for commitment (as a young adult) to either a political cause or a career.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY

Problem

Based upon the premise that vocational choice involves a personality conflict in young adults, the process of vocational decision making was related to one aspect of personality development -parental identifications. Delayed decision making when it occurs in late adolescence or early adulthood had been labeled by Erikson (1968) as a "psychosocial moratorium" and includes an absence of any vocational identity. Thus, the non-career committed college age subject is in a state of identity confusion according to Erikson.

The development of a person's identity is a complex process involving many variables, yet one which is often linked in a causitive manner to identity is the variable of parental identification (Erikson, 1968; Lynn, 1969). If this connection be valid, then there should be a manifestly different pattern of parental identifications for those Ss who have achieved some degree of C C and/or vocational identity as opposed to those Ss who are non-career committed.

Pilot studies with a community college subject population revealed that about 30% of the males and 14% of the females were not C C. In spite of the many theories of vocational choice (Osipow, 1968), none have attempted to explain the relevant variables leading to such career indecision. Ginzberg et al. (1951) referred to the socio-economic status of the person seeking a career; Super (1960) stated that vocational choice is the product of the individual's self-concept; Anne Roe (1949) focused upon the emotional interaction between parent and child;

and Holland (1959) attempted to distinguish six different vocational orientations which would lead to a specific career choice.

Each of these approaches deals with career choice rather than career choice and career indecision. In fact, the research on the vocationally undecided subject population (Tucci, 1963; Trent, 1969; Betz et al., 1969) rarely compares this group with the C C at all. When such a comparison was made (Strahl, 1968; Baird, 1969; Sugarman, 1967) the results in such studies are inconsistent. Different means of measuring C C may account for some of these inconsistencies, as well as the failure to treat the males and females separately (Farnsworth, 1969). Or perhaps the variable differentiating these two groups has not yet been isolated.

Occasionally parental identification has been investigated in the context of C C (Cava & Raush, 1952; Roff, 1950; Jensen & Kirchner, 1955; Kahn, 1968) but not C C and non-C C. These studies revealed no consistent relationship between parental identification and C C, reflecting perhaps the effects of different research designs and different indices of identification.

One approach to an operational measure of identification has been via the Semantic Differential (Osgood, 1952; Lazowick, 1955; Gardner, 1968). Specifically, by an application of the 'D score' statistic (Cronbach & Gleser, 1953) researchers have objectively measured the 'perceived similarity' between subject and parent in the context of vocational choice (Crites, 1962; Jabury, 1968). However, further research (of which this study was a part) is needed in an attempt to

relate parental identification via the Semantic Differential technique to C C or career indecision.

Definition of Variables: The major independent variable in this study was parental identification, and the dependent variable the degree of C C.

1. Identification - was considered in two separate aspects: first as an emotional/cognitive evaluation of the model by the subject and labeled evaluative identification (E-I); and second, as the perceived emotional/cognitive similarity in personality traits between the subject's memory of the parent and himself and called similarity identification (S-I).

2. Career Commitment - was defined in terms of the dimensions of the specificity of career choice, concreteness of steps known toward that choice, desire to delay the choice or not, and anticipated future involvements in that choice.

Hypotheses: The general hypothesis was that C C Ss will have a different pattern of identification toward their parents than non-C C Ss at the college age level. By implication then, the pattern or quality of parental identifications will be one variable in the complex process of vocational choice or vocational indecision.

Based upon the theory of Erikson (1968), the existence of a warm, positive evaluation of or identification with the parent (E-I) will result in greater identity formation part of which is a career commitment. With the use of evaluative bipolar adjectives in the description of parents on the Semantic Differential, the subject indicated his subjective evaluation of each parent. When these evaluative scores were factor analyzed, the factor scores for each concept

became the specific measure of E-I. Thus, the hypothesis was that there should be higher evaluative factor scores for the subject's description of each parent if he (she) is C C.

Based upon the theory of Lynn (1969), parental identification involves the degree of closeness or similarity (S-I) between subject and parent growing out of direct imitation of a present model (such as the mother) and/or the abstraction of principles of masculinity or femininity (from cultural steriotypes in the absence of a close relationship to a model). This process is different for each sex, as more direct imitation of a female model for girls usually exists and more abstracting of masculine ideals for boys usually occurs. The more abstraction necessary the more the process of cognitive decision making develops for either sex. If it be assumed that career choice is a part of a decision making ability, a moderate degree of similarity with each parent will facilitate the choice of a career. Too close an identification to the parent of the same sex would mean too much direct imitation and little abstraction or problem solving ability; and too distant an identification to the same sexed parent would mean too much abstracting and little sex-role identity. Thus, a curvilinear relationship is postulated in C C Ss: for males, the more C C Ss will have a moderate degree of similarity to their fathers; and for females, the C C Ss will have a moderate degree of similarity to their mothers. From the Semantic Differential D scores for each description of parent and self (on each bipolar adjective) an objective measure of S-I was obtained. Each D score represented the degree of similarity between S and parent, and those representing a moderate similarity (S-I) should be the most C C.

Minor hypotheses also included the following: (1) those Ss from a middle class SE level should be the most C C; and (2) there should be a positive correlation between age and degree of C C for both sexes.

Method

A questionnaire was devised and revised on the basis of pilot studies done at Queensborough Community College. The final form of the questionnaire contained four sections: (1) background data, such as age, sex, SE level etc.; (2) career commitment questions; (3) Semantic Differential descriptions of such concepts as REAL SELF, REAL FATHER and REAL MOTHER; and (4) a Vocational Attitude Scale, representing attitudes toward a career as held by the S, and as the S estimates each parent's attitude. (The data for the Vocational Attitude Scale was later eliminated from the results of this study.)

The Ss for both the pilot work and this study were day session students at Queensborough Community College, Bayside New York. Some 675 copies of the revised questionnaire were distributed to the students during a class session in the Spring 1970 semester. After a short motivational introduction, the questionnaires were distributed in their classes and those students in the 18 to 21 age bracket were asked to fill them out and return them to their respective instructors. Only 251 questionnaires were returned in a completed form (101 males and 150 females).

These completed questionnaires were scored and the raw scores transferred to IBM cards for subsequent computer analysis. The factor analyses were performed by the computer at the Graduate Center CUNY, while the other analyses were done at the Computer Center of Queens College during 1970 and 1971.

Results and Discussion

Career Commitment - The males and females differed significantly in several aspects of C C. The females were more C C in an immediate sense, because they were more certain about a specific choice and knew the steps involved in obtaining that choice; but the males were more C C in a future sense (10 years ahead), when they anticipated a definite career commitment. These differences not only reflect the sex differences inherent in C C (as demonstrated throughout this study), but also the distinction between present versus future C C for each sex.

Factor analyses of the six C C items substantiated this present (which became C C I factor) versus future (which became C C II factor) divisions of C C which were factors extracted from the data for both males and females. There was a significant difference within this sample between most C C and least C C Ss (for both males and females), but because all the Ss were from a common community college population the scope (and hence the validity) of the results would have been strengthened if additional samples with known differences in C C were also included. However, this C C scale was a measurement developed which could be used as an index of C C for future research. It would be of interest especially to investigate how this same index of C C would be scored by different subject populations.

Evaluative Identification and Career Commitment - The hypothesized positive correlation between E-I and C C was supported using a simple summation of the E-I items. Attempts to demonstrate a relationship using scores based on a factor analysis were not successful. The E-I factor scores were computed using weighted scores for all 12 Semantic Differential items. The basis for this difference in findings between

factor scores and summation scores is not clear.

Using factor scores, the only significant relationship was between C C II and REAL MOTHER, which showed the positive influence of the mother in the future career commitment (for the males only). With the use of the summation scores, it was shown that the more career committed males have higher evaluations of themselves and their mother's; while the more career committed females have higher evaluations of self, father and especially their mothers. This evidence for the positive role of the mother in influencing the career commitment of both sons and daughters is what Erikson would have predicted as a part of the identity formation occurring in young adulthood.

Similarity Identification and Career Commitment - The predicted curvilinear relationship between S-I and C C was not supported in all possible situations with the tentative exception of one. The S-I for father and C C I in female Ss showed some signs of curvilinearity.

An ANOVAR revealed no significant relationship between C C I factor scores and S-I D scores in either males or females. The means from the CC groups (according to degree of difference from parent in D scores) were plotted for S-I father and S-I mother. From a visual inspection of these data, only one plot (S-I father & C C in females) approached curvilinearity. In male Ss, the more similar they were to either parent the more C C they became, which is what Erikson rather than Lynn would have predicted. No pattern of S-I and C C was consistent in the females.

Assuming linearity between S-I and C C, correlations were performed. These indicated that the males were more C C as they considered their

personality traits to be similar to their fathers and dissimilar to their mothers. No significant relationship emerged for the female Ss.

The E-I and S-I Relationship - Correlation coefficients obtained between E-I (based on factor scores) and S-I (based on the D scores) were found to be insignificant. The two measures of identification were independent. Therefore any theory using identification should take into account this difference.

Socio-economic Level and C C - No significant correlations emerged between SE level and relevant C C or Semantic Differential data. Perhaps the range of SE levels present in a community college subject population was too small to test hypothesis 3 adequately.

Age Level and C C - No significant correlations were obtained between age of S and degree of C C or evaluation of self or parent, which failed to support hypothesis 4. With a wider age range, this finding may have been different.

In retrospect it is always easy to see problems inherent in any research design. Yet in spite of the difficulties in operationally measuring the variables, and in obtaining an adequate sample return of the questionnaires, the Eriksonian hypothesis was partially supported. The C C scale developed for this study gives a measure of both present and future aspects of career commitment which were shown to be different for each sex (which may change with an expansion of the women's liberation movement). This study did partially support the role of the parental identification factors (especially with the mother) in career choice; as well as to demonstrate the complexities in identification measurement (evaluative versus similarity).

APPENDIX

Questions Used For the Structured Interview Phase of This Study

(On the basis of these answers the questionnaire was revised.)

1. Career Commitment

a. Do you now have any type of a career (job) choice?
b. How sure are you that this choice is 'right' for you?
c. How long have you been interested in this career?
d. What person's or situations were or are important in helping you to decide upon a career?
e. What steps are necessary that you know of if you are to achieve your chosen career?
f. Would you really perfer to wait before deciding upon a career? If so, how long?
g. What would you like to be doing 5 years (10 years) from now?

2. Parental Identification

a. Can you think of some words (adjectives) which would describe what you are like, e.g. to give me an idea of what your personality is really like?
b. Can you use some words (adjectives) to describe the personality of your father, and then your mother?
c. Which parent do you see yourself being more similar to? Do you want to think of yourself as being like either parent? If so, why?
d. Has either of your parents had a part in your vocational planning? If so, what specific ways has he (she) helped you in vocational decision making?

STATEMENT GIVEN TO EACH CLASS PRIOR TO THE FILLING OUT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1.Motivational -

a. Many young adults like yourself are faced with the same problem_ what vocation or career do I really want? The process of vocational decision making is both important and difficult for many young people today. And part of the problem is that not enough research has been done in this area, so that counselors can advise college students adequately.

b. Some college students are quite sure about what specific vocation they want to enter, and know exactly how each step necessary to obtaining that career will be taken by them; other students have some commitment toward a vocation or vocations but they also have many doubts about their tentitive choice; while still other students have little or no idea about any specific vocational choice. This research is essentially an investigation into why these differences in career commitment exist, so your cooperation in answering these items honestly is vital.

c. All of your responses to these items will be strictly confidential, and your name is not required on the questionnaire.

2. Instructional -

a. Vocational Choice - item #1 - please put down your realistic not fantasy goal for a job or career if you now have such a goal, if not, then say so (for there is nothing wrong with that). Next, list the steps or requirements known by you which must be met first if you are to enter a vocation or career. If you have no specific job in mind, then this might be left out.

b. Semantic Differential items - you will be asked to describe different people from different points of view. For example several of the items ask for 'ideal' descriptions, e.g. the person as you wish he was minus all the aspects of his personality which you dislike in him. Other times you will be asked to describe a person (like your parent or even yourself) in terms of a 'real' point of view, with all the positive & negative qualities seen in the person. Each of these personality descriptions are done via a rating scale where you check the degree to which the person is more sociable as opposed to shy etc. Thus it can be done very quickly.

c. Vocational Attitude Scale - Your opinion or attitude toward different aspects of a job is asked for, in terms of how you would evaluate the importance of college preparation, status, satisfaction, salary, etc. in any job you would consider entering. Then you are asked to answer these same opinion statements as if your father's and then your mother's attitudes toward these ideas were being expressed. Pretend that for this part your father and then your mother were answering the questionnaire. These comparisons will be helpful in understanding some of the things which have been important in shaping your own thinking about a job or career. THANK YOU for your help.

d. Please read the enclosed instruction sheet, and if you would like to know the study's results fill out your name & address for mailing.

Table 1

General Characteristics of the Subjects in the Sample

Characteristic		Males N of 100		Females N of 150	
		N	%	N	%
Age	18 years	11	11%	43	29%
	19 years	51	51%	65	43%
	20 years	25	25%	26	17%
	21 years	13	13%	16	11%
	Mean	19.4		19.1	
SE Level	Mean (class III)	61.30		58.42	
	Standard Deviation	15.65		16.03	
		N	%	N	%
Ethnic Background	Black	1	1%	13	9%
	White	95	95%	129	86%
	Oriental	0		3	2%
	Undeclared	4	4%	5	3%

Table 2

Responses of 100 Male and 150 Female Ss to Six Career Commitment Items

Item		Males N	Males %	Females N	Females %	χ^2
Specificity of Goal	Specific Goal	52	52%	85	57%	
	Two Goals	22	22%	39	26%	5.59 N S
	General Area	9	9%	10	7%	
	No Goal	17	17%	16	11%	
	Mean	1.89		2.29		
	Standard Deviation	1.09		.99		
		N	%	N	%	χ^2
Percent Certain	90-100% sure	31	31%	67	45%	
	80-89% sure	7	7%	28	18%	11.35
	70-79% sure	19	19%	22	15%	sig. .01 level
	0-69% sure	43	43%	38	25%	
	Mean	1.41		1.84		
	Standard Deviation	1.68		1.39		
		N	%	N	%	χ^2
Delay	No Delay	43	43%	53	35%	
	Delay	57	57%	97	65%	4.79 N S
	Mean	.56		.65		
	Standard Deviation	.50		.48		
		N	%	N	%	χ^2
Steps Known	Concrete Steps	33	33%	80	53%	
	Major Steps	23	23%	44	30%	23.85
	Vague Idea	30	30%	13	9%	sig. .001 level
	No Idea	14	14%	13	9%	
	Mean	1.74		2.26		
	Standard Deviation	1.06		.94		
		N	%	N	%	χ^2
Future Interests	Five Years					
	On Job	53	53%	70	51%	
	Working	26	26%	35	23%	8.22 N S
	Irrelevant	17	17%	42	28%	
	Mean	1.64		1.35		
	Standard Deviation	1.51		1.39		
	Ten Years					
	On Job	51	52%	48	32%	
	Working	20	20%	20	13%	16.80
	Irrelevant	25	26%	77	51%	sig. .001 level
	Mean	1.56		1.20		
	Standard Deviation	1.57		1.95		

Table 22

The t Test Values Between Means of C C groups Based Upon the D scores for 99 Male and 145 Female Ss. (About 20 Ss in each Male D group and about 29 Ss in each Female D group.)

Male Ss	S-Father	S-Mother
D1 vs D2	1.44	.13
D1 vs D3	.93	1.15
D1 vs D4	1.26	.80
D1 vs D5	.66	.95
D2 vs D3	.38	.82
D2 vs D4	.26	.02
D2 vs D5	.45	.06
D3 vs D4	.16	.68
D3 vs D5	.06	.25
D4 vs D5	.50	.46

Female Ss	S-Father	S-Mother
D1 vs D2	.29	.20
D1 vs D3	.92	.78
D1 vs D4	.15	.70
D1 vs D5	.38	.14
D2 vs D3	.31	.16
D2 vs D4	1.20	.50
D2 vs D5	.71	.33
D3 vs D4	.82	1.34
D3 vs D5	.57	.62
D4 vs D5	.25	.79
		all t's N.S.

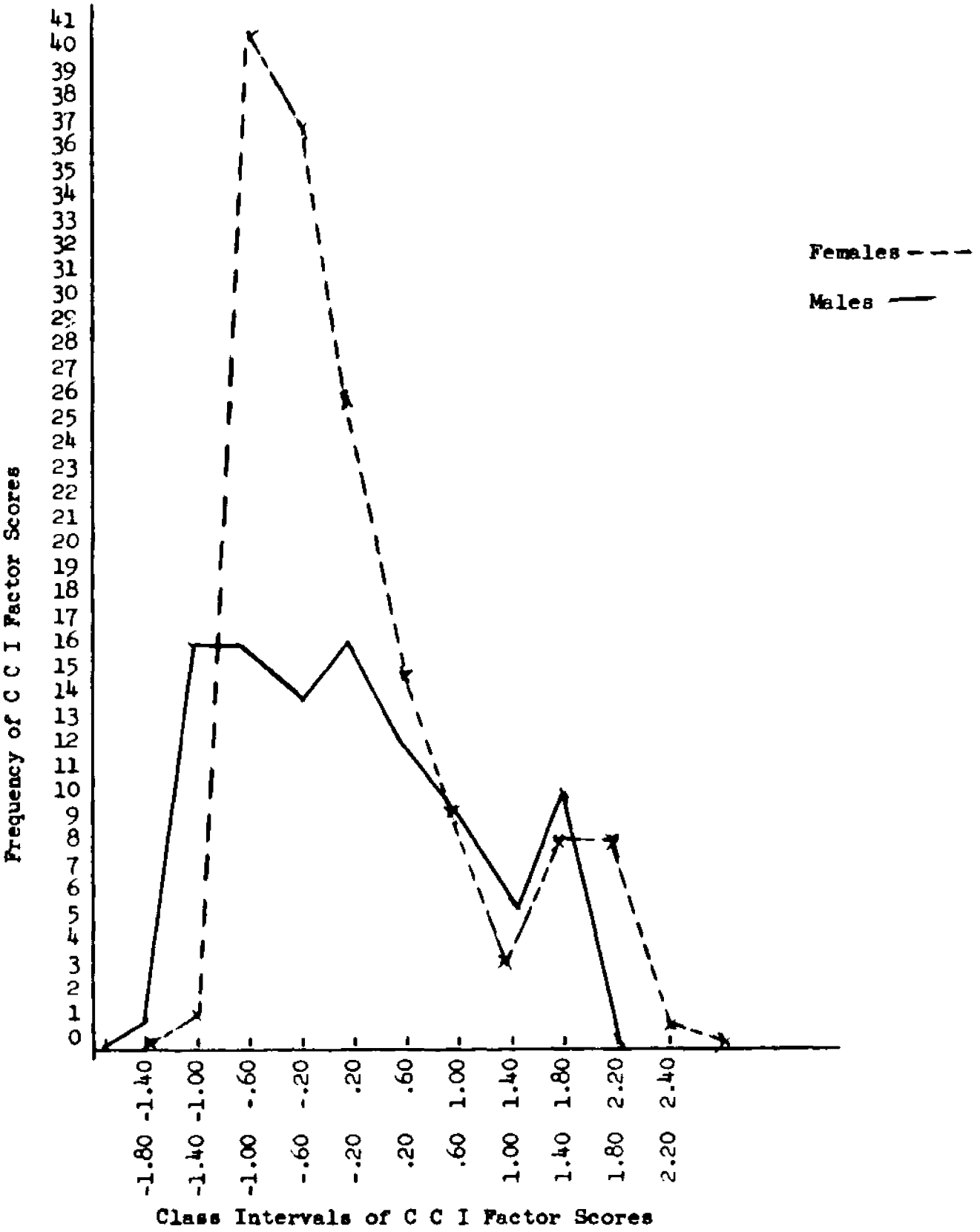


Figure 1. The distribution of C C I factor scores for 100 male and 150 female Ss.

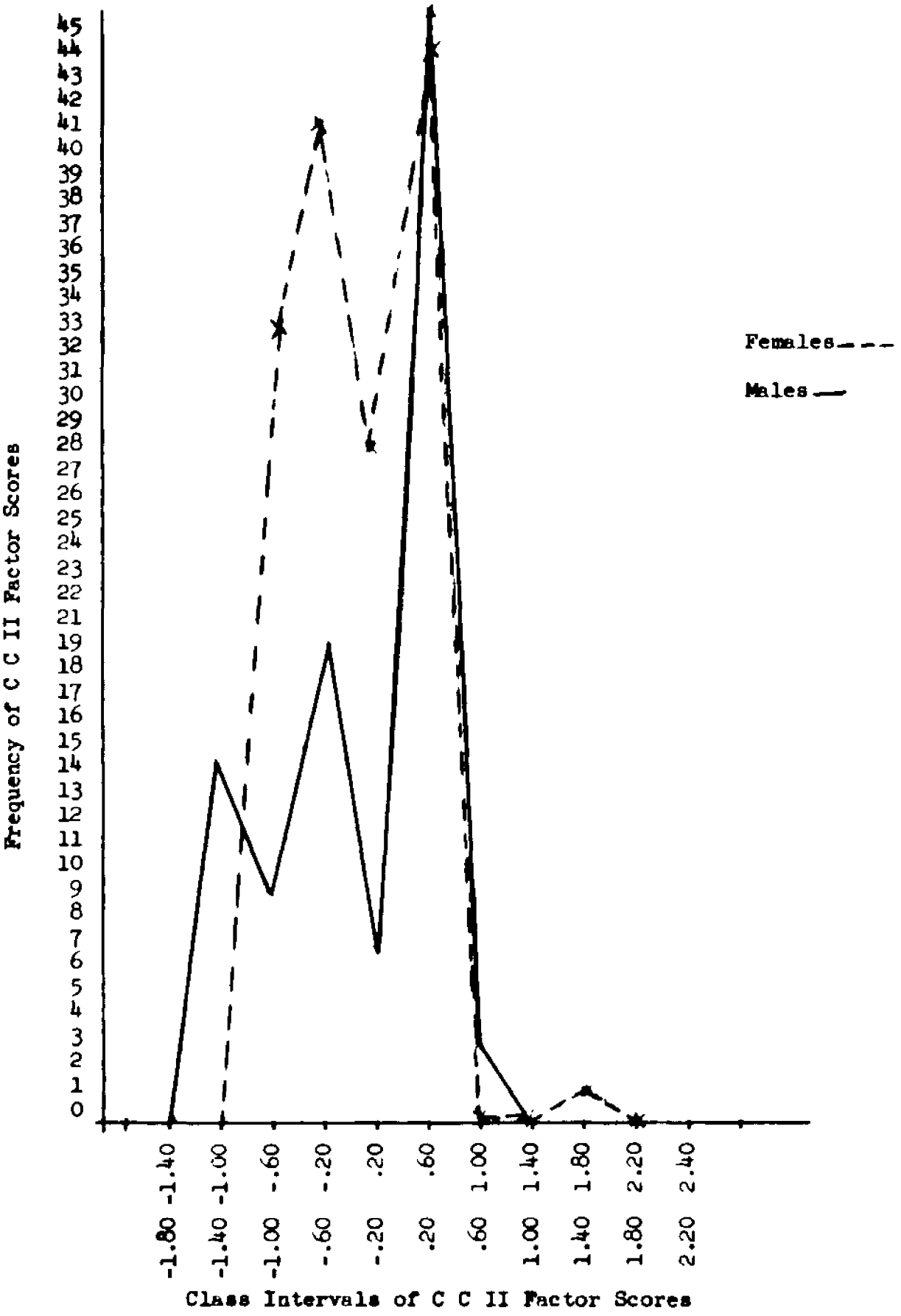


Figure 2. The distribution of C C II factor scores for 100 male and 150 female Ss.

The Scoring Procedure Used to Determine the Socio-Economic Level

The 'Warner Scale', according to Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958.

Occupational Level	Educational Level
(1) Executives of large concerns and major professionals	(1) Graduate professional training with a degree
(2) Managers and propriators of medium sized businesses and lesser professionals	(2) Standard college or university graduate, B.A.
(3) Administrative personnel of large concerns, owners of small independent businesses and semi-professionals	(3) Partial college training, at least one year
(4) Owners of little businesses clerical & sales workers, technicians	(4) High School graduation, including trade school
(5) Skilled workers	(5) Partial High School
(6) Semi-skilled workers	(6) Junior High School (grade 9)
(7) Unskilled workers	(7) Less than 7 years of school

Each occupation was scored and then multiplied by 9, and each educational level was scored and then multiplied by 5. These weighted sums became the total SE index for each subject.

Date _____ Sex _____ Age _____

Regarding a specific vocational choice, check below the **one** statement which best describes your present thinking and complete the statement.

___ I have a single well defined occupational choice. It is _____.
___ I have two well defined alternatives, _____ & _____
___ I have a well defined area of vocational interest, _____.
___ I have a poorly defined area of vocational choice, _____.
___ I have no interest in any vocation.

Regarding the knowledge you now have of the steps necessary in obtaining a vocation, check below the one statement which most accurately describes your present thinking, and complete it

___ I know the concrete steps which are necessary to obtain my vocational goal (s), they are _____
_____.

___ I know the major concrete steps in achieving my vocational goal, but I am still vague about other details. For example, _____
_____

___ I know vaguely how to enter and advance in a specific vocational area. For example, I know that my interests are in this area
_____.

___ I know vaguely how to enter a very general area of vocational interest. For example, _____
_____.

___ I have no idea of how to obtain a vocation. For example, _____
_____.

Please check below the adults who lived in your home during the time of your childhood and adolescence.

Father _____	Mother _____
Stepfather _____	Stepmother _____
Grandfather _____	Grandmother _____
Other _____	Other _____

Please check below the highest year of school completed by your parents:

	elementary							High				College			
Father	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Mother	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Indicate below the vocation (job or jobs) held by your parents:

Father _____
_____

Mother _____
_____

Date _____ Sex _____

Complete the following incomplete sentences:

1. The things which my father does _____

2. The things which my mother does _____

3. The things which I do _____

4. The last time I remember imitating my father's behavior was _____

5. The last time I remember imitating my mother's behavior was _____

6. My behavior is often an imitation of _____

7. The ideal woman according to my father is _____

8. The ideal woman according to my mother is _____

9. I think the ideal woman is _____

10. For my father, the ideal man is _____

11. For my mother, the ideal man is _____

12. For me, the ideal man is _____

13. Having a job for my father is _____

15. Having a job for my mother is _____

_____

15. Having a job for me is _____

_____

16. I am proud of my father especially when_____

_____

17. I am proud of my mother especially when_____

_____

18. I am proud of myself especially when _____

_____

19. My father has often told me that a man_____

_____

20. My mother has often told me that a woman_____

_____

21. I intend to tell my children that a person _____

_____

22. In our society a man should _____

_____

23. In our society a woman should _____

_____

24. In our society I should _____

_____

25. My father's expectations for me regarding a vocation _____

_____

26. My mother's expectations for me regarding a vocation _____

_____

27. My own vocational expectations _____

_____

28. For my father, college education is _____

29. For my mother, college education is _____

30. I believe a college education is _____

31. The security of a job, for my father, means _____

32. The security of a job, for my mother, means _____

33. For me, having a secure job is _____

34. The status associated with a job according to my father is _____

35. The status associated with a job according to my mother is _____

36. For me, the status associated with a job is _____

37. My father would like me to earn _____

38. My mother would like me to earn _____

39. I would like to have a salery of _____

40. My father thinks highly of a job which _____

41. My mother thinks highly of a job which _____

42. I think highly of a job if _____

Age_____ Sex_____ Race_____ Marital Status_____

1. List below your present vocational choice(s), or if you have no specific vocational choice or goal, then indicate this. For any goal which you do have now, indicate the percentage to which you feel sure that this choice is right for you and when you decided this.

   Goal_____ ____% sure. When decided_____

   Goal_____ ____% sure. When decided_____

   Would you prefer to wait awhile before making up your mind and choosing a specific vocation?_____ If so, how long?_____

2. List below the steps which you know are necessary in order to obtain your vocational goal(s), for example - include the required training, apprenticeship, experience etc. needed, in as much detail as possible.

   _____

   _____

3. What persons, if any, have had an influence on your vocational decision making? What was the nature of their influence?

   _____

   _____

4. If you were to look into the future, what would you like to be doing, 5 years from now?_____

   10 years from now?_____

5. Do you have any specific characteristics or ways of reacting to situations which are similar to your mother or your father? If so, how would you evaluate your behavior (positive/negative) when you find yourself reacting as they would react?

   Father -how like him_____ Evaluation_____

   Mother -how like her_____ Evaluation_____

6. When it comes to choosing a vocation or job for yourself, whose ideas do you imitate the most?

   Father_____ Mother_____ Other_____

7. Indicate below the vocation (job or jobs) held by by your parents:

   Father_____

   Mother_____

8. Circle below the highest year of school completed by your parents:

Father	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
	Elementary	High	College
Mother	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

9. List all the adults who lived in your home during your childhood:

   _____ _____ _____

   _____ _____ _____

On the following pages you will be asked to describe certain persons from [illegible] points of view. Each person should be described in terms of the [illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]
[illegible]	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	[illegible]

MY MOTHER
(as I see her)

	Strongest	Strong	Moderate	Neutral	Moderate	Strong	Strongest	
Worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Valuable
Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Failure
Happy	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Sad
Sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Shy
Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Flexible
Complex	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Simple
Nervous	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Calm
Masculine	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Feminine
Even-Tempered	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Moody
Angry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Loving
Good	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Bad
Domineering--	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Submissive

MY USUAL SELF
(as I generally see myself)

Masculine	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Feminine
Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Failure
Happy	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Sad
Worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Valuable
Angry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Loving
Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Flexible
Complex	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Simple
Nervous	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Calm
Even-Tempered	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Moody
Good	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Bad
Domineering	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Submissive
Sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Shy

A RESPECTED PERSON AGE_____ SEX_____ OCCUPATION_____
(a person whom my mother admires)

	Strongest	Strong	Moderate	Neutral	Moderate	Strong	Strongest	
Nervous	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Calm
Masculine	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Feminine
Complex	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Simple
Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Failure
Happy	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Sad
Domineering	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Submissive
Sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Shy
Good	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Bad
Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Flexible
Worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Valuable
Even-Tempered	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Moody
Angry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Loving

MY FATHER
(as I see him)

Good	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Bad
Complex	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Simple
Masculine	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Feminine
Even-Tempered	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Moody
Domineering	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Submissive
Happy	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Sad
Sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Shy
Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Flexible
Nervous	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Calm
Worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Valuable
Angry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Loving
Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Failure

MY MOTHER
(as I wish she were ideally)

	Strongest	Strong	Moderate	Neutral	Moderate	Strong	Strongest	
Complex	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Simple
Masculine	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Feminine
Even-Tempered	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Moody
Good	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Bad
Domineering	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Submissive
Happy	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Sad
Sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Shy
Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Flexible
Nervous	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Calm
Worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Valuable
Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Failure
Angry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Loving

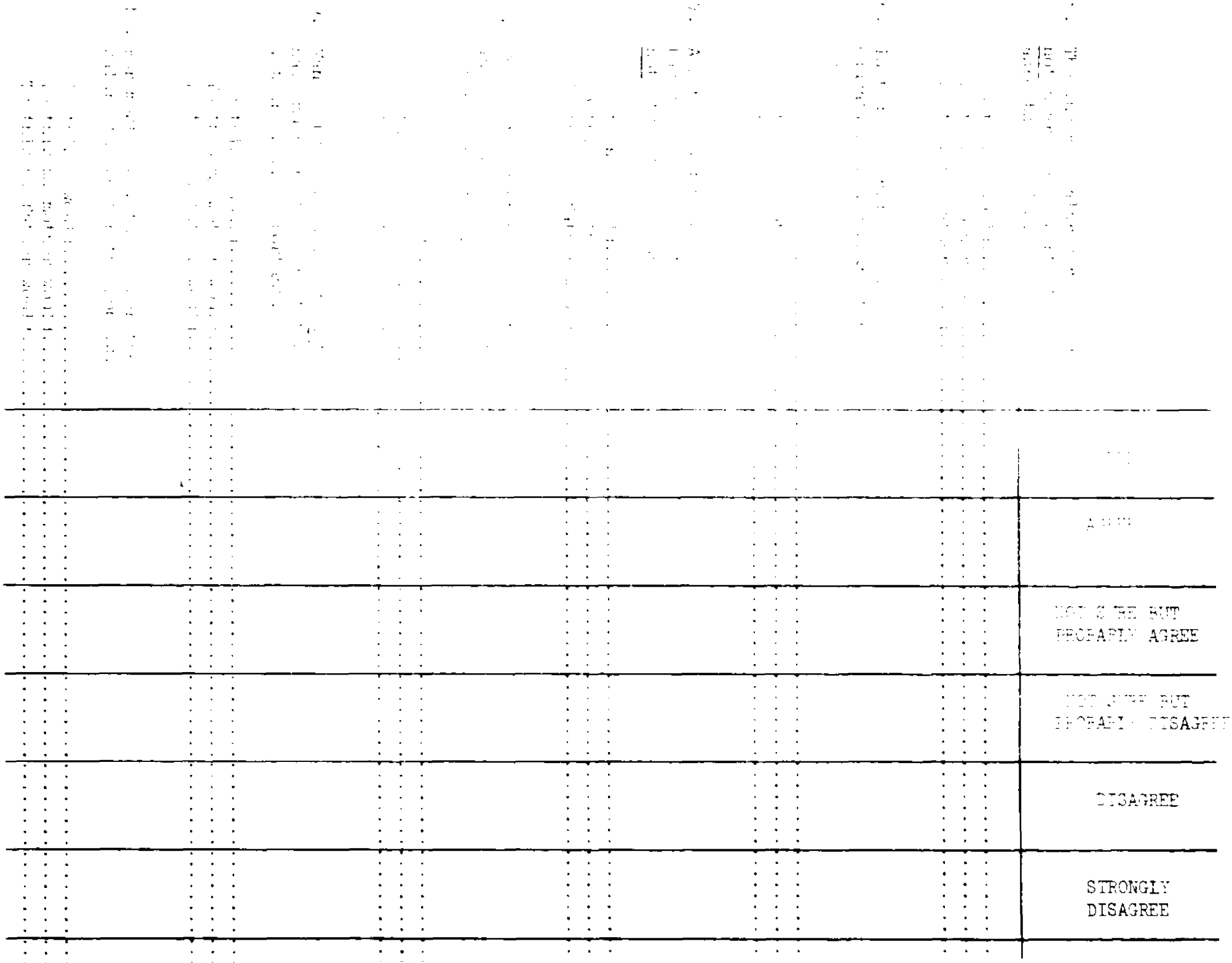
MY IDEAL SELF
(as I would like to see myself)

Domineering	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Submissive
Complex	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Simple
Masculine	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Feminine
Even-Tempered	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Moody
Good	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Bad
Happy	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Sad
Sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Shy
Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Flexible
Nervous	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Calm
Worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Valuable
Angry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Loving
Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Failure

VOCATIONAL ATTITUDE INDEX

An attitude toward a vocation or job is the result of a complex interaction among many ideas concerning the variable of 'work'. Each of the statements below contain one aspect of a vocational attitude, and you must indicate by checking the appropriate column on the right of the item, the degree to which you agree or disagree with it. Then re-read each statement and answer it as your mother and your father would do.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NOT SURE BUT PROBABLY AGREE	NOT SURE BUT PROBABLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	
1. A college education is not as important for a good job as it is generally believed to be.							
To this I would.....							
To this my mother would.....							
To this my father would.....							
2. The best job involves a high level of prestige which gives the person a feeling of status.							
To this I would.....							
To this my mother would.....							
To this my father would.....							
3. Provided that a job has other benefits, the degree to which the work is enjoyable, is really irrelevant.							
To this I would.....							
To this my mother would.....							
To this my father would.....							
4. A good job is one which provides security or a freedom from worry over finding another job.							
To this I would.....							
To this my mother would.....							
To this my father would.....							


STRONGLY DISAGREE
DISAGREE
PROBABLY AGREE

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AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Evelyn Helen Peterson was born on November 15, 1939 in Astoria, Long Island New York. After graduating from Bayside High School, Bayside New York, she became a student at Hunter College of the City University of New York. With a major in psychology and a minor in philosophy she received the B.A. degree from Hunter in 1961. In 1963 she received a M.R.E. degree from New York Theological Seminary; and in 1965 she was given the M.A. degree in Psychology from Queens College of the City University of New York.

While at Queens College, she was a graduate research assistant in psychology working in an animal laboratory. In 1967 she started teaching psychology at Queensborough Community College of the City University of New York in Bayside New York as a part time lecturer. During the Spring term of 1968, she taught Psychology of Religion at Upsala College in East Orange, New Jersey. From September 1968 to June 1970 she was an Instructor in Psychology at Queensborough; and from September 1970 to the present she has been Assistant Professor of Psychology at this same college. Her teaching responsibilities at Queensborough have included the following courses: Introduction to Psychology, Abnormal Psychology, Human Growth and Development, and the Psychology of Personality.