

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CAREER DRIFTING PATTERNS
OF RURAL AND URBAN YOUTH AND YOUNG ADULTS
IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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Variables Associated with Career Drifting Patterns
of Rural and Urban Youth and Young Adults
In Newfoundland and Labrador

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Master of Education

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Abstract

This study focused on the variables associated with the career drifting pattern of a sample of youth and young adults in the province of Newfoundland. Career drifting, based on the research surrounding career indecision and career indecisiveness, was defined as a combination of three career changes since completing high school. The sample consisted of 85 persons between the ages of 21 to 30 years, who previously had held jobs and had attended post-secondary institutions. Using the survey method, the study examined as variables the personality traits of anxiety, locus of control, self-esteem, parental and community factors, employment background and the meaning of work, post-secondary efforts, quester characteristics, person\environment fit, personal aspirations and self-ratings of ability. Analyses suggested that the personality traits of high anxiety and low self-esteem have a relationship with career drifting, however in contrast with previous research, external locus of control was not a variable evident in this group. Results indicated a moderate relationship between parental and community factors and career

drifting. Findings suggested that the post-secondary environment and an individual's effort were a greater influence on non-completion of post-secondary programs than that individual's self-rated ability and marks in previous programs. Results revealed that while rating themselves highly as risk-takers, this sample displayed an reluctance to enter into academic and employment situations which they perceived as having a high level of difficulty. Differences between gender and community size were presented for these variables. Finally recommendations for future research are suggested.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to the study

This study was part of a larger research project conducted by Cahill at The Centre for the Development of Distance Career Counselling, Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland. This larger research project had three main purposes:

- (1) to establish a profile of the career drifter;
- (2) to develop, field test and evaluate a counselling program to enable youth who fit the drifter pattern to successfully establish themselves in educational and/or vocational training programs and to integrate themselves into the labour force with or without this post-secondary training.
- (3) to utilize the information gathered in this study and to integrate it into a preventive program for future career drifters. (Cahill, 1991).

Career change is not unusual. Cahill (1991), in her study, addressed the paradoxical nature of the literature on change. Kanchier (1988) indicated that while flexibility and adaptability are valuable traits

in an individual, career change has often been viewed as a negative phenomenon. The term "career drifting" does not appear in the literature. Other descriptors have been used: (a) career indecision and career indecisiveness (e.g., Hartman, Fuqua and Jenkins, 1986); (b) career changers (e.g., Kanchier and Unruh, 1988); (c) questers and traditionalists (e.g., Kanchier, 1988); and (d) career undecided (e.g., Salomone 1983).

Cahill (1991) wrote that there is a wealth of research that has examined the situational/external and personal/internal factors as they relate to career changing. Many variables are factors in career decision-making, with the influence of significant others, work and leisure activities, educational attainment and status of the labour market being important for people (Admundson, 1989). The focus of individual factors on career decision-making has included personality traits and career maturity, while the situational factors have focused on variables of economic, institutional and organizational elements.

Before examining the research literature on comparable constructs, it is worthwhile to examine the

context in which drifting occurs. A description of the Newfoundland economy and labour market will be presented along with the relationship of education to economic growth and the economic cost of career drifting. The theoretical background and a review of the literature will follow with an emphasis on career indecision and career indecisiveness. Finally, a summary of the research results as they relate to career drifting are presented.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was (a) to identify the personality traits, family and community characteristics, work experience and economic factors that make-up the profile of youth and young adults who are indecisive in career and occupational choices, and (b) to profile the occupational and career drifting of youth and young adults in Newfoundland and Labrador.

Significance

Economic Profile of Newfoundland Youth

The importance of "career drifting" among Newfoundland youth and young adults may be revealed by examining the economic situation in Newfoundland and Labrador. The Economic Council of Newfoundland and

Labrador, (1990) reported that this province had the nations's highest seasonally adjusted unemployment rate, 19.2%, (The Labour Force, August 1991), the lowest seasonally adjusted participation rate 54.7% (Labour Force Information, August 1991), and lowest education attainment rate (10.9 years) in Canada. The unemployment rate for Newfoundland is unchanged, for July 1993, at 19.6% (Labour Force, 1993).

Hanrahan and Montgomery (1986) provided statistics for the period 1975-1986 on the seasonally adjusted unemployment rate for Newfoundland youth, a period during which many of this sample attended high school. For youth 15-19 years, the rate ranged from 24.4% to 36.2 %, while for the group 20-24 years, the rate ranged from 18.8 percent to 33.5%. This pattern has continued as the youth unemployment rate for July 1993 for the age group 15-24 years is 31.4% (Labour Force July, 1993).

Newfoundland had the lowest adult education attainment of all the provinces in Canada (Economic Council of Newfoundland, 1990). Canada, in 1987, had the lowest level of adult post-secondary education, with the exception of Japan, (34.7%), the lowest Gross

Domestic Product (\$21,241) and the highest unemployment rate (7.8%) of the western industrialized countries. Within this economic situation, we cannot ignore the prospects that a sizeable portion of young adults of this province have not made viable career decisions.

The Newfoundland Economy

Newfoundland's economy is seasonal in nature, with 71% of employed people working in service-producing industries (The Labour Force, August 1991). The sectors that traditionally provide year-round employment; education, public administration, health, mining, and pulp and paper are centred in the urban areas. While subject to economic conditions such as government expenditures, economic and monetary policy and world competition factors, these sectors provide the advantages of union collective agreements, greater job security, job advancement, and higher income levels. In many cases entry into employment in these sectors also requires a higher level of education, especially post-secondary, than the seasonal, resource-based sectors of the economy.

This dependence upon seasonal employment has been further affected by the Northern Cod Moratorium. Since

announced in July 1992, approximately 17,000 to 21,000 fisherpersons and fish plant workers have been unemployed. The ban on fishing will continue until July 1994, but early scientific studies predict the fishery will not re-open for at least two - five years after this date. With affected workers receiving a compensation and training package at least until July 1994, income is protected for the short term. However, government and industry leaders predict a loss of 15,000 jobs in this industry, severely affecting rural Newfoundland (Bennett 1993). Expected job losses in related sectors will also be sizable.

Education and the Newfoundland Economy

The comparison of post secondary education attainment to economic activity is meaningful. The two western nations with the highest level of post-secondary education, West Germany and Sweden, also have the strongest economies (Economic Council, 1990). The Economic Council also stated:

"the strength of the evidence and the consistency of these relationships across countries and provinces highlights the importance of education to economic

performance and development, and lends urgency to implementing policy changes in Newfoundland" (p x1.).

Newfoundland has one of the lowest post-secondary completion rates in Canada. At the trades/technical level, (pre-employment programs), Newfoundland is third behind British Columbia and Nova Scotia in terms of the number of successful completions per 100,000 of the population aged 15-24, and this number is increasing. However, at the community college level, this province awards a significantly lower number of diplomas per 100,000 of the population for the age group 20-29, only 39% of the national average in 1986/87 (Economic Council, 1990). This data suggests a huge level of career drifting, in an economy requiring higher and more technical educational attainment.

Overcoming career indecision is urgent as this province attempts to spur economic development. A labour force that has recurrent job changing, early exit from post-secondary courses and voluntary job terminations as chronic occurrences can not help but increase the cost to the provincial economy.

The Economic Council (1990) also reported that in

1988 Canada spent 98.1% of the \$10.5 billion in Unemployment Insurance on safety net expenditures (job loss costs) and just 1.9% on active funding for training, mobility and education. If the funding expended on active labour-market and institutional training is to be increased, it is essential that participants have the personal awareness, decision-making skills and vocational development programs to make effective career decisions.

Economic Cost of Career Drifting

Jarvis (1990) provided evidence of the cost of career drifting. The median duration of holding a job for new entrants coming from the secondary school system is less than a year and they tend to hold several jobs during the first ten years upon leaving high school. New entrants into the job market invariably require training in workplace requirements and specific occupational skills. Jarvis (1991) stated that it costs approximately \$10,000 to recruit, select and train an individual for productive performance in the workplace. Jarvis also insisted that this cost is duplicated, to get the employee initially trained and to train a replacement worker.

Jarvis (1991) asserted that the greatest cost to the economy is lost productivity because of career indecision, as drifters "browse through the labour market" (p.162). Jarvis argued that few high school graduates have developed clear occupational goals when leaving high school. Jarvis (1990) estimated this drifting type of activity uses 20% of the \$2.4 billion in unemployment insurance benefits paid to claimants between the ages of 16 and 24 years.

This same relationship may be stated for the post-secondary institutions. The cost in unemployment insurance funds, wasted or under-utilized training places in technical and community colleges through dropping-out and poorly planned educational choices is grave (Byrne, 1990). Nationally, 294,000 or 16% of all students aged 15-24 years and attending school full-time in March 1991, indicated they were uncertain or not planning to return to school in September 1991 (Labour Force Information, August 1991). In part this results in \$300 million, or 15% of federally sponsored funding for post-secondary education being lost through voluntarily drop-outs (Jarvis 1990).

Jarvis (1990) also hypothesised on the cost to the

individual, as experiencing one failure after another may be significant as one searches for a satisfying and fulfilling occupation. He estimated individuals may spend 50% of their conscious time in environments they dislike, deriving little satisfaction. This leaves little positive energy to seek growth in personal and interpersonal areas of their lives.

Definition Of Terms

The use of the term "career drifter" in this study was fraught with difficulties. In conceptualizing this term, this investigator examined the literature on the terms career undecidedness, career indecision and career indecisiveness. Of primary concern was which definition accurately described career drifting.

Downing and Dowd (1988) stated "although the history of counselling psychology is rooted in the career guidance movement, surprisingly little has been written about the causes of career indecision" (p.145). These authors maintained the causes of career indecision include variables such as education, abilities, socio-economic background, family and personality traits. These factors directed this study's efforts to profile the career drifter.

Downing and Dowd (1988) developed their research under four broad headings: demographic factors (sex, family influences and socio-economic status); psychological problems (depression and anxiety); social learning experiences; and personal characteristics (self-identity and creativity). The need to adequately understand the concept of career indecision can result from expanding and exploring the component parts of the construct (Cooper, Fuqua & Hartman, 1983). By examining the psychological, environmental, social and behavioral variables that relate to vocational uncertainty, career uncertainty and trait indecisiveness, these authors argued this may provide for the development of a more effective assessment and intervention method for a range of career services.

The literature acknowledged that the terms career undecided, career indecision, and career indecisive have become widely accepted (Hartman, Fuqua & Blum, 1986). The terms career indecision or career indecisiveness is used to define chronic career changing (Hartman, Fuqua & Blum, 1985; Tango & Dziuban, 1984; Salomone, 1982).

Following their earlier work, Hartman, Fuqua &

Jenkins (1986) described a three group typology of career indecision that is empirically useful; the career decided group, the developmentally undecided group and the chronically undecided group. The developmentally undecided group has not had the opportunity or has not acquired the skills to make a career decision. The common interventions of career counselling are usually sufficient for this group to make a decision. Being developmentally undecided is related to state anxiety and is a normal maturational process.

The chronically undecided group displayed traits that were more severe, were more stable across time, and scored relatively high on the Career Decision Scale (CDS.) This group had more trait anxiety, less stable self-perceptions, and a more externalized locus of control. The results of this study (Hartman, Fuqua & Jenkins, 1986) related that these personality traits become more apparent as the inability to make a career decision increased. A recommendation stemming from their research would be aimed at identifying and explaining career indecisive types and toward revealing the role different personality facets have in defining

the construct. These authors, along with Cooper (1983), Seaworth (1987), Newman (1987) and Blum (1988) have conducted the majority of the research into the relationship of personality traits and the constructs of career indecision and career indecisiveness. The term career indecisive was examined as this concept seemed to appropriately describe career drifting as it referred to the Newfoundland population.

A further component of the research was to identify the parental and community factors and their relationship to career decision-making. The influence of the family has long been an important factor in decision-making (Osipow 1983, cited in Lopez & Andrews, 1987). Shoffner and Klemer (1973) cited in Lopez and Andrews (1987) indicated that parents affect their children's career choices by acting as role models, they influence their children's self-concept, they may be occupational models, they provide job information resources and they provide the developmental environment for decision-making. These authors also charged that previous attempts to differentiate family influences from personality and intrapsychic variables alone have not produced consistent results in examining

career indecision. An important consideration for this research was to examine the family as well as personality traits in the study of career indecisiveness.

The recent literature addressed the concept of "job questers", which was developed by observing the mid-career changers. Until recently, changing careers often was seen in a negative manner, people could not decide on the path they wanted their working life to follow (Kanchier, 1987). For the quester, changing jobs was not seen as a sign of being indecisive, but as a calculated decision for professional and personal growth.

Examining the traits of a quester may be valuable in considering career drifting, as frequent job changes have been associated with the career indecisive individual. Quester characteristics also are closely associated with personality traits and add to the literature and research available in this area. Exploring the nature of the quester may preclude identifying individuals who have a purposeful path in seeking new work situations and career goals. Questers are not haphazardly leaving jobs and training courses,

but seeking to improve their work environment and lifestyle. They are individuals who are rational and internalized in their decision-making style and whose previous decisions have been deliberate (Kanchier & Unruh, 1988).

Definition of the "Career Drifter"

The definition of the "career drifter" was developed through research findings in the literature review. The variables of length of time out of high school, age, number of occupational and academic changes were factors considered in developing the definition.

Eigan, Hartman & Hartman (1987) provided support for using a criteria of five years out of the school system and the number of career changes over this time frame. In examining the family systems model and the typology used by Hartman, Fuqua, Blum (1985), these researchers asserted that individuals who changed their original career decision three or more times over the five year period were placed in the chronically undecided/indecisive group. The stability or instability of the career pattern over the previous five years allows for the opportunity of the pattern to

emerge and to be studied.

Salomone (1982) declared that assigning the indecisive category to individuals over the age of 25 years was appropriate and allowed the undecided tag to be used with high school and college aged students. This age range was useful in determining the population that was examined and best described the career drifter, the age group 21-30 years.

While Salomone placed an age limit on the concept of career indecision, Fuqua and Hartman (1983) originally described the indecisive person as one who had made a minimum of three career changes within four years upon leaving high school. This points out the difficulty of arriving at a specific description and age limit for the career indecisive person. Cherry (1976) defined the occupationally unstable person as one who has held four or more jobs with a mean length of less than eight months in each position within the first three years upon leaving high school. Jarvis (1990) stated that pattern of job changing may continue for ten years after high school. This age distinction was important as the study examined youth who drift occupationally and academically in Newfoundland.

While the previous literature cited examined the number of job changes, Kanchier and Unruh (1988) argued that adulthood is not a plateau, but a time of change. Adults move through alternating periods of development and transition. Following the research of Levinson et al. (1978), these authors claimed there are five transition periods, the first two being an Early Adult Transition and an Age Thirty Transition. The writings of these authors supported the determination that age ranges need to be examined in this study and age thirty would be considered as the upper limit.

Considering a minimum three year period out of the secondary school system provided an appropriate time frame for the pattern of career drifting to emerge and is consistent with the few interpretations available in the literature. This definition provided the criteria to identify and eliminate from the study, individuals who are developmentally career undecided. Using an age range of 21 to 30 years in this study was consistent with the explanations provided in the literature.

A person who voluntarily left employment on three occasions over this three year period did not necessarily exhibit the pattern of an occupational

drifter. Seeking new employment may be for job advancement, personal satisfaction and to meet new challenges (Kanchier & Unruh, 1988). Using this concept, the career drifter may be an individual who has voluntarily left a minimum of three jobs since leaving high school, with no discernable career pattern guiding the job changing.

Worthy of investigation was the individual who had completed one or more post-secondary programs, but has never strived to seek employment in that particular occupational field. Hartman (1990) and Pontuis (1990) reporting on Sondra, a university graduate, discovered an interesting pattern in her job search. She had floundered for two years, had periodic efforts at finding unrelated jobs after months of inactivity, and followed a haphazard job search approach. Although having completed a post-secondary degree and despite almost continuous employment in an unrelated field since high school, the career drifting continued.

Since this researcher examined the academic and occupational changes a person experienced that determines a career path, similar constructs are being examined. Serling and Betz (1990) claimed

"although educational and career indecision are not identical constructs, it is likely that educational indecision is a thought process and behaviour pattern that is highly related to career indecision and potentially related to career indecisiveness". (p. 92.)

Occupational and educational activities are the subsets of a person's life that determine the career path that is followed. A series of delayed or avoided decisions in both the educational and occupational areas would relate to the construct of career indecisiveness, or as defined in this study, "career drifting".

In developing the definition, the following factors were deemed to define the "career drifter" as an individual who:

1. has completed the required courses to obtain a Level III diploma in Newfoundland; i.e. a high school graduate, not a drop-out.
2. at the time of completing the questionnaire has been out of the secondary school system for a minimum of three years and a maximum of twelve years.

3. is between the ages of 21 and 30 years and would have attempted and not been successful in a minimum of one previous post-secondary program.
4. may have successfully completed a program, but subsequently returned to attempt other, unrelated post-secondary programs.
5. would have a combination of three voluntary work terminations or incomplete post-secondary programs (career changes).
6. would indicate a pattern of voluntary job moves to unrelated occupations.

Given this operational definition to guide the research, the career drifting pattern of Newfoundland youth and young adults will be examined.

Research Questions

The concepts of career decision-making, career undecidedness, career indecision/indecisiveness, and personal aspirations, were fundamental to the development of the research questions.

1. What influence, if any, do gender, age, and community variables have on the career drifting of the individuals identified in

this study?

2. What contribution, if any, does previous academic and work experience have to career drifting?
3. What influence, if any, do family and community factors have on career drifting?
4. What influence, if any, do personality traits have on career drifting?
5. In what manner do the factors of ability, personal aspirations and future expectations contribute to career drifting?
6. What organizational and institutional factors, if any, contribute to career drifting?
7. Are the personality traits of high anxiety, low self-esteem and external locus of control present in the career drifter. What are the descriptors that emerge from the study?
8. Are there a few explicit variables that explain career drifting or is there a discernable pattern?
9. What variables, if any, influence career indecisiveness and does this concept match

the definition of career drifting?

The study of these questions was approached through the development of a questionnaire that obtained information not available through standardized instruments. Included was information on the following: characteristics of drifters, self-rated personality traits of anxiety, self-esteem and locus of control; influence of parents and community, quester characteristics, person/environment fit, meaning of and experience with work (organizational/institutional factors), personal aspirations and ratings of one's own abilities. The primary focus of this study was relationship of personality traits and personal aspirations to career indecision.

Possible limitations of the study.

1. Since a sample of Newfoundland residents was surveyed, the results may not be generalizable to other settings, considering the unique characteristics of this province's economy, educational systems, and socio-economic development.
2. Nonresponse may be a concern in interpreting the results. Aiken (1988) indicated that the

nonrepresentativeness or inherent bias in some samples may limit the generalizability of results to a larger population. Aiken's response to low return rates in mail questionnaires was the question of "whether it is better to have imprecise knowledge or no knowledge at all of the population."

(p.117). While the results in this research will add to the knowledge base of the concept of career indecision and career indecisiveness, interpretation of the results should be carefully considered.

3. The use of a relatively small sample would limit generalizability in drawing conclusions from this study (Chusid & Cochran, 1989). While generalizability may be limited, the analyses of the data and formation of a profile of a career drifter would assist in developing effective interventions for this population in this province.

CHAPTER 11

Review of the Literature

The purpose of this chapter is to define the concept of career drifting, with a concentration on the personality traits and contextual factors that may be common in persons exhibiting a pattern of career drifting. Examining this concept may show a relationship of personality traits, family and community factors to occupational and academic drifting among Newfoundland youth and young adults (Cahill, 1991).

A number of researchers who have developed career decision-making theories were examined, as well as suggested subtypes of career indecision. The possible influence of personality traits, particularly anxiety, self-esteem and locus of control are presented in this chapter. The literature on family and community variables is then discussed and finally person-environment and previous work experience is explored.

Career decision-making

Super (1983) maintained that decision making is a major component of career maturity, with knowledge and commitment as the major principles of the process.

Commitment includes the basic personality traits, such as autonomy and self-esteem. Super (1983) also maintained that personality traits are fundamental to career decision-making. Needed are a sense of autonomy or an internal locus of control, self-esteem and time or future perspective that are essential to future planning, exploration, and the acquisition of career skills and maturity. These traits are developed in early childhood and are strengthened or weakened during adolescence and early adulthood. These traits are part of the basic personality and may not be viewed as components of career maturity, but as its determinants. Super provided a basis for examining personality traits as important antecedents of decision making behaviour.

Caspi, Elder and Bem (1988) asserted that individual differences at various points in the life course at which transitions are made provide information as to the role of personality in vocational development. For late adolescents and early adults, movement into the labour force and post-secondary institutions are a major life point. These authors claimed that when people doubt their ability to be successful at these transition points, anxiety may be a

consequence. This view supported the belief that while personality traits contribute to career drifting, there may also exist an association of ability to career decision-making.

Career Drifter

The term "career drifter" does not appear in the literature. One of the first steps in this study was to examine other constructs, such as career decided, career undecided and career indecisive, that may identify and validate the use of the term career drifter. This term is not viewed in the developmental sense, as in career undecidedness, but examined as a trait or characteristic of the individual.

Goodstein (1973) cited in Vondracek, Hostetler, Schulenberg and Schmizu (1990), was one of the first to attempt to differentiate between subtypes of career indecision. For Goodstein, one type is an individual who was undecided about choosing a career, while the second exhibited an intractable state of indecision, due to anxiety. This was one of the first references concerning anxiety and personality traits as a component of career indecision.

Slaney (1989) indicated that the initial approach

to examining career indecision was developmental, one that considered career indecision as usual for young adults and not a sign of personality problems. Another approach viewed career indecision as a problem faced by a minority of adolescents and young adults. This may have resulted from the interchangeability of the terms career undecided, career indecision and career indecisive in the literature. There appeared to be some confusion still existing concerning the terms career indecision and career indecisive. Both terms relate to the same construct, with career indecisiveness viewed more as a trait and career indecision being a state characteristic. The indecisive individuals failed to make a decision not from a lack of information, but because they have a basic personality problem that does not allow them to reach a decisional state of mind (Salomone, 1982).

Jones and Chenery (1980) examined the possible subtypes of vocationally undecided students, stating that until the 1970's, vocational indecision had been viewed as a dichotomous phenomenon, with only decided versus undecided. It was at this time that research started to examine if there were multiple subtypes of

career decision-makers. These authors contend that examining career indecision as multiple subtypes rather than as a one dimensional trait may give a clearer picture of the construct. Identifying the various dimensions may help differentiate the distinct subtypes of career indecision and assist in developing different treatments apart from the information-giving and decision-making strategy approaches that were in use until the 1980's.

Personality Traits and Career Decision-making

One of the primary considerations was whether the definitions of career indecision or career indecisiveness accurately described the term career drifter. The outline of the project stated that one of the objectives was to examine the personality traits and decision-making styles that identify career drifters in this province.

There was a important basis for examining the place of personality traits in career indecision. Newman, Fuqua & Seaworth (1989) claimed that personality traits such as anxiety, external locus of control, and self-perceptions correlate with career indecision and is related to a person's cognitive style

and ability levels. Hartman, Fuqua & Blum (1987) also identified these traits, but there was evidence that the order of importance and the interrelated contributions of these traits to career indecision has not been fully explored. A simplified model of career indecision is needed to determine how these traits contribute directly or indirectly to career indecision.

There are standardized scales available to measure the construct of career indecision, My Vocational Situation (Holland) and the Career Decision Scale (Osipow). These scales take a psychological approach to defining career indecision and may not provide for a complete understanding of the construct (Fuqua & Hartman, 1983). The Behaviour Indecision Scale was developed to obtain a behavioral index of career indecision and to examine the relationship between this behaviour index and other psychological measures and correlates of indecision. The CDS focused on the internal, affective experience, the BIS items focus on the observable facts the individual has demonstrated. Though the BIS may not be a viable alternative to measuring career indecision, a single measure of career indecision is unlikely to provide the counsellor with

all the information required to identify, diagnose and treat individuals experiencing career indecision.

Vondracek et al. (1990), in a three year longitudinal study, reported that individuals who scored high on the diffusion scale of the Career Decision Scale showed a greater degree of indecision than any other group of persons. They examined a four factor-based scale which measured the following: (a) Diffusion, a feeling of confusion, discouragement or lacking the experience or information concerning career decision-making; (b) Support, which indicates uncertainty about the process of career decision-making; (c) Approach-approach, which indicates that many possible career options are available to the individual; and (d) external barriers to career decisions and the lack of interest in making a career choice. The use of the Diffusion and Approach-Approach scales of the CDS allows counsellors to identify clients who are undecided because of confusion and a lack of information or those who are considering several occupations.

Using the findings of Hartman, Fuqua, Blum and Hartman (1985), it appeared that the diffusion

measurement may be helpful in differentiating the concept of career indecisiveness and career indecision. Those individuals who scored highest on the Diffusion Scale were likely to have indecision persist and it may be more severe as well (Vondracek et al., 1990). These individuals may also have traits associated with low self-esteem, high anxiety and an unclear sense of self-identity. One issue deserving of attention from this study was the suggestion that career indecision may decrease dramatically once an individual enters the labour market. While the Vondracek et al., study was conducted on high school students, it may be helpful to study if a pattern of indecision remains after students have completed secondary and further post-secondary education.

Vocational Subtypes

Jones and Chenery (1980) continued the early efforts to identify the various subtypes of the vocationally undecided. These authors asserted that an expanded definition was required, career indecision has a field of multiple subtypes rather than a single type. These authors purported that viewing career indecision as comprising many subtypes provided a

clearer picture of the construct.

Hartman, Fuqua, Blum and Hartman (1985) provided results from their study on high school students that assisted in the development of the operational definition for this study. They maintained that individuals who reported no change in their career decision in the four years following completion of high school as career decided, those who changed one or two times were categorized as developmentally undecided, while those students who changed three or more times were categorized as chronically undecided. In the later literature by these authors, the chronically undecided group were labelled as career indecisive.

Slaney (1989) indicated there are a number of observations concerning personality differences in the career decided, these differences reflect more favourably on the career decided person. However, the studies that have examined career undecided versus career decided offered a variety of conflicting and confusing findings. This may have resulted from the simplicity of approaches to the studies, from the fact the studies take place in a shifting historical and intellectual context, and that the statistical methods

used may not be appropriate for the studies (Slaney, 1989).

A view has developed that career indecision is a complex, multidimensional problem that cannot be explained by the previously accepted concept that being career undecided was simply a developmental issue (Hartman and Fuqua, 1983; Lucas & Epperson, 1990; Vondracek et al. 1990). Fuqua and Hartman (1982) suggested there may also be a trait of indecisiveness and a state of indecisiveness, much like the concept of anxiety. Thus high anxiety level may be considered as one of the major factors in explaining the concept of career indecisiveness (Fuqua and Hartman, 1987; Fuqua, Seaworth and Newman, 1987; Tango and Dzuiban, 1984).

The indecisive person fails to make decisions, not from a lack of information, but because they have basic personality problems that will not allow them to reach a decisional state of mind and to take action (Salomone, 1982). These personality traits also seem more stable across time and are not viewed as a developmental problem. Those individuals who were termed developmentally undecided may simply lack the skills needed to make a career decision, while those

who are career indecisive may not benefit from the traditional career intervention strategies and have underlying personality deficits that prevent them from making any career decision (Hartman, Fuqua & Blum 1985; Serling & Betz, 1990). These authors contended that the trait of indecisiveness has its etiology in the personality trait of anxiety.

This evidence provided support for the examination of personality and environmental factors as influencing career decision-making. Examining these two factors may provide information as to the antecedents of career indecisiveness (career drifting) among Newfoundland youth. The chronically indecisive individual needs specialized attention and may need long-term counselling to resolve personal/emotional issues before effecting personal and vocational change (Haag-Muller, 1986). Should such factors be found to influence the decision-making process of youth and young adults in this province, these findings would support the need to develop new approaches to career education and counselling for this population.

Tango & Dziuban, (1984) reported that the relationship of personality traits such as trait

indecisiveness and interpersonal characteristics would provide support for the concept that career indecision is a complex, multidimensional problem requiring inclusion of a trait of career indecision (Cooper, Fuqua & Hartman, 1983; Van Matre & Cooper, 1984).

Serling and Betz (1990) expressed a view that most individuals go through a stage of career undecidedness, but there is a subset of career indecisive people who are chronically unable to make a decision. A different approach to counselling interventions is needed to help the indecisive individual struggle with career choice, as are the means to distinguish the undecided person from the indecisive person. Attempts to identify subtypes and to differentiate between the terms career undecided and career indecision has received increasing attention (Fuqua, Blum and Hartman, 1988; Hartman and Fuqua, 1983; Hartman, Fuqua and Blum, 1985; Salomone, 1982; Seppich, 1987; Slaney, 1989). Determining the subtypes is important as the relationship of personality traits to career decision-making is examined. Salomone (1982) provided a distinction between the two constructs: "the state of being undecided is a normal, common occurrence for automobile

purchasers, teenagers considering a party invitation list, and college students pondering educational majors." (p. 496). Often the person is undecided because they do not have enough information to make a sound decision. They may be delaying a decision until enough information is available to them or they realize a decision has to be made. The indecisive individual does not lack information, but has personality traits that hinder or prevent decision-making.

Zytowski (1978) as cited in Salomone provided three types of undecided persons:

1. A group which simply does not have to decide yet, and so stays undecided;
2. A group which is mildly anxious, immature, or incompetent;
3. A group which might be described as having a disposition toward indecisiveness.

The third group exhibited a greater degree of trait compared to the state personality characteristics identified with career decision-making.

The relationship between personality and career indecision has become a research question in recent years (Tango & Dziuban, 1984). Osipow, (1987) claimed

the results from the research have revealed few systematic reliable personality or ability factors in determining whether a person is decided or undecided about a career. However, other research has indicated that personality traits have been found to be associated with career indecision (Downing and Dowd, 1988; Fuqua & Seaworth, 1987; Moore, Jensen & Hauck, 1991; Newman, Fuqua & Hartman, 1989; Slaney, 1989). Low self-esteem, high anxiety level and external locus of control have been found to be factors in the level of career indecision in many people. Mooney, Sherman and LoPresto (1991) also contend that locus of control and self-esteem are important predictors in adjustment to college, supporting the importance of considering both employment and educational patterns in career indecision.

Personality traits and career indecision

A wide range of personality traits have been associated with career indecision. Identity and vocational maturity appeared to be important characteristics of undecided and decided individuals (Sepich, 1987). The absence of this positive self-identity (Hartman, Fuqua & Blum, 1983; Serling & Betz,

1990) delays or hinders the development of effective decision-making. Individuals with low self-confidence to develop the skills and accomplish the tasks needed for career decision-making exhibited higher levels of career indecision (Taylor & Popma, 1990).

Low self-esteem, the evaluative view of self, is viewed as a critical component of career indecision (Admunson, 1989). Low self esteem increases negative expectations about future outcomes and reduces the willingness to undertake risk-taking endeavours and lessens commitment to career tasks (Johnson 1990; Kinnier, R. T., Brignan, L. S., & Noble, F. C., 1990; Mooney, Sherman & Lopresto, 1991).

Haag-Muller, (1986) has associated high levels of anxiety with career indecision. The presence of excessive levels of anxiety inhibits the development of career decision-making skills and the acquisition and use of the knowledge necessary to have vocational maturity (Hartman & Fuqua, 1987; Fuqua, Seaworth & Newman, 1987). Persons experiencing high anxiety have little interest or motivation to explore their environment and acquire job knowledge (Moore, Jensen & Hauck, 1991; Tango & Dzuiban, 1991). High anxiety

levels obstructs the use of personal, environmental and occupational knowledge that is essential to career choice.

Hartman, Fuqua & Blum, (1988) asserted that external locus of control contributes to career indecision through the dependence upon other people or external events for career choice. Individuals who rated themselves negatively, avoided problems and expressed little personal control over events, reported lower self-concepts (Larson & Hepner, 1985).

The literature review focuses on the relationship of personality traits of anxiety, self-esteem, and locus of control to career choice and career drifting. The recent number of research articles published indicated the increasing worth of this field of study.

Sabourin and Coallier (1991) stated that finding a relationship between career indecision, vocational certainty and psychological distress was an unexpected result in their research. While they suggest this distress may be non-specific, it does support the work of Fuqua, Hartman and Newman (1983; 1987; 1989). Janis and Mann (1976) cited in Moore, Jensen and Hauck (1990) held that individuals who tend to lessen anxiety in

decision-making may choose "deference avoidance" by rationalizing their decision to delay or constantly change career decisions.

Sharpe and Spain (1991) in examining decision points in transition, demonstrated that this process can be defined in terms of the developmental process; the traits being a sense of security, self-esteem resulting from a positive view of self and relationship with the community, and a sense of fulfilment from using fully one's capacity. This would support the view that the influence of personality traits on career indecisiveness is evident in high school populations. Personality traits and the career indecisive individual

Salomone (1982) was one of the first authors to assign traits to the indecisive individual. His description contained these characteristics:

1. cannot or will not make a decision, even after a long step-by-step, decision-making series of interviews.
2. much repetition of the problem (almost wallowing in it) and many digressions to tangential issues.
3. high levels of ambivalence, resentment and

frustration concerning their vocational-personal situation.

4. wants someone with a different perspective to provide answers--but will demean or ignore such answers. This is speculation--answers were not given in counselling sessions.
5. is very dependant on another person (parent--or parent type) for a clear sense of identity. Apparently, does not have a clear sense of separate identity.
6. is very dependant emotionally and financially and probably wants to remain dependant but sees the real future reality of independent existence and is frightened by it.
7. is very manipulative; has a tendency to whine. Is immature on so many dimensions.
8. motivation to change patterns of behaviour is not very strong.
9. not much self-confidence or self-esteem.
10. tends to have an external locus of control.
11. has a tendency to blame others for current dissatisfactory situation.
12. has probably learned to be helpless and

received much nurturing because of helplessness-type behaviour (Salomone, 1982).

Personality traits formed the basis of his description of the indecisive individual. Salomone asserted that the indecisive individual is also struggling with the issue of independence versus dependence and although independent living may be more fulfilling, it is also frightening. Haag-Muller (1986) asserted that indecisiveness stems from long-standing anxiety that is associated with having to make decisions and Hartman (1990) added that some influence may come from over-demanding parents.

Slaney (1989) debated that Salomone may have feared using a label for high school aged individuals, but a repercussion has been that most studies were conducted on college aged populations and adults. Schumrum and Hartman (1988) affirmed that examining career indecision in high school aged populations may be appropriate when used to identify potentially chronic career indecisive individuals. No studies were identified that used a combination of voluntary job quitting and post-secondary terminations in examining a pattern of occupational drifting in a particular sample

throughout the literature review. Most studies have been aimed at college students, a few at adults and some at high school students. This leaves a large population within this age group that has not been examined in terms of career choice and career indecision.

Anxiety

Hartman, Fuqua and Blum (1985) explored the path-analytic model of career indecision. These authors, building on the work of (Crites 1974), attempted to distinguish between being career undecided and being career indecisive. The former represents a normal developmental process while the latter represents a chronic situation. Career indecision has its etiology in trait anxiety. "It is not the lack of an opportunity, but rather the failure to use available opportunities because of the interfering effects of persistent anxiety" (p.233). The trait anxious individual has a poor sense of identity, is externally controlled and has the inability to decide because of these traits.

Crites (1983) stated some disagreement with Hartman & Fuqua (1983) on their analysis of career

indecision and personality traits. Crites contends there must be a clear distinction between those who are truly not decided to those who have chosen to remain undecided. For students not to have declared a major does not mean they are indecisive, but that they have chosen to enter college with an open mind. Crites (1983) agreed that anxiety is an influence on career undecidedness, but he differed on the degree of that influence. While Crites conceded that self-identity and self-concept have an impact on choosing a career, young adults who enter university have a limited experience with which to develop these characteristics. Crites contended that university is the setting and experience where this self-identity will develop.

While Crites agreed with Hartman & Fuqua's (1983) multidimensional approach for the analysis of career indecision, he reserved his judgement that high school seniors who enter university without a declared major is always indicative of a career indecisive individual. Results from later published research clarify somewhat, the time period and conditions needed to define the career indecisive individual.

Hartman & Fuqua (1983), in their reply to Crites,

accepted that being undecided during college is a normal developmental state, however they disagreed with his concept of decidedness. These authors maintained that attrition rates in colleges make it imperative that counsellors examine career undecidedness in the light of indecisiveness, a complex problem that cannot be separated from personality factors. Expanding on Goodstein's (1967) work, as cited in Hartman & Fuqua (1983), they argued that anxiety is experienced from two perspectives, a failure to have made any vocational choice and anxiety as a consequence of failing to have acquired decision-making skills. The second point is that anxiety is also a cause of the indecision problem, it is not the lack of opportunity to make decision, but that making a decision causes anxiety (Haag-Muller (1986; Hartman & Fuqua, 1983). Anxiety is both an antecedent and consequence of decision-making.

Based on the evidence, Hartman & Fuqua asserted that one of the personality traits to be examined in career indecisiveness/undecidedness should be trait and state anxiety. Understanding the component parts and the antecedents of career undecidedness were indicated to be important activities for future research (Hartman

& Fuqua, 1983).

O'Hare and Tamburi (1986) conducted a study of trait anxiety, coping styles and career decision making. They reported that students who experienced high trait anxiety and did not use Type II coping style, also had state anxiety interfere with making a career decision. Type II coping style for these authors is efficacy. Students who also measured high on the trait anxiety scales used Type IV avoidant coping style and avoided making a career decision. O'Hare and Tamburi categorized the career undecided in this study as those students who had high state and trait anxiety and did not use Type II coping style. This study also confirmed that state anxiety differentiated among career decided and career undecided students. Trait anxiety was also a discriminating variable between the career decided and undecided groups, and high state anxious students also had a higher level of trait anxiety than did moderate and low level state anxious students.

Self-Esteem

Another personality trait suggested to contribute to career indecisiveness is self-esteem (Hartman, 1990;

Johnson, 1990; Robbins, 1987 & Serling & Betz, 1990). Results from The Career Maturity Inventory, Holland & Holland (1977) cited in Hartman & Fuqua (1983), displayed a significant positive correlation between vocational choice and identity for both high school and college students of both sexes. The more explanations an individual gave for not making a decision, the greater the likelihood this person does not have a clear sense of identity.

Self-concept was seen as a collection of elements used to describe and sum up oneself as a person. This description included ones sex, occupation, interests, skills, values and personality (Gecas, 1982). Usually these factors included self-acceptance, self-security, social confidence and self-assertion. Rosenberg (1985) further defined self-concept as the totality of self, the thoughts and feelings that have a reference to self as an object.

Examining the personality trait of self-esteem was meaningful as it has been identified as a contributor to career indecisiveness. Self-esteem was viewed as an aspect of the self-concept, (Chiu, 1989; Gecas, 1982) and deals with the evaluative and emotional dimensions

of the self. This evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to self is an expression of approval or disapproval and demonstrates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, successful and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967).

Chiu (1990) charged that self-concept has an important role in vocational development, which he suggested moves in a continuous, orderly fashion. Vocational preference has to be crystallized, the self-image gradually takes form as the individual evaluates vocational choices. High or low self-esteem may affect the progress of the adolescent's crystallization process. Chui (1990) stated that the adolescent's career decisiveness or career indecisiveness may reflect their feelings of self-worth.

This would suggest that self-esteem and the self-concept of the individual affects career decision-making as early as adolescence and continues on throughout early adulthood. Maier and Herman (1974) cited in Chui (1990) asserted that college students who were certain about their career choices had higher self-esteem levels than their peers who remained

undecided.

Blustein (1987) examined the relationship between the self-concept system and career development. For most school leavers, it is necessary for them to acquire clear perceptions of their attributes, traits and characteristics that are important to vocational and career development. Blustein maintained that the person's salient identity characteristics lie on an internal-external continuum, and individuals attribute their behaviour to internal dispositions or to situational influences.

Stein, Newcomb and Bentler (1990) viewed self-esteem as an influence on the various life choices of people entering young adulthood (i.e., education, career, marriage, family, etc.). Part-time work versus having full-time work was seen as a negative influence on self-esteem. The prior level of self-esteem and work experience were important antecedents of career choice. Vocational decisions have a strong impact on the self-esteem of young adults, especially women. These authors claimed that self-esteem is dependant on the employment or career status of the female, not upon whether they had children or not. Women with or

without children, attain self-esteem from developing a career, women who have not developed a career have lower levels of self-esteem. However this study found that self-esteem differed from the vocational status of people, regardless of gender. Individuals with full-time employment or attendance at post-secondary institutions confirmed higher levels of self-esteem compared to those individuals not attending school or those working on a part-time basis. For young adults, self-esteem is influenced to a greater extent by career status than any other factor. Marriage and the presence or absence of children has a lesser influence on self-esteem, especially for females.

Robbins (1987) included poor self-perceptions as a personality trait that affects career indecision, believing that low self-esteem prevents any career decisions to be reached. Examining self-esteem as a variable of career drifting was significant and it is important to develop a program to assist youth who exhibit this drifting pattern to establish themselves in educational or employment goals. The goal of any intervention by the counsellor would first be to raise the individual's self-acceptance and self-esteem before

attempting career decision-making. This approach may lessen the likelihood of career drifting.

Locus of Control

Locus of control was another personality trait investigated in this study. Rotter (1982) defined locus of control as:

"the degree to which the individual perceives that the reward follows from, or is contingent upon, his own behaviour or attributes versus the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of himself and may occur independently of his own actions" p.171.

Notable differences exist between internal locus of control and other relevant social cognitions as they relate to vocational decisions. Locus of control may be predictive of adaptive vocational behaviour and has a role in decision-making. It is included in this study as many authors have indicated it is a contributing factor in career indecision (Hartman, Fuqua & Blum, 1983; Larson & Heppner, 1985; Slaney, 1989). High self-monitoring and internal locus of control may assist the individual toward positive

career activities as they view this task as potentially satisfying their own personal characteristics.

Rotter (1982) claimed that the belief in fate, luck or chance has long been discussed by social scientists, however, in most situations it has referred to the differences among groups or societies. In developing a profile of career drifters, this investigator aspired to study the relationship of locus of control to career drifting.

Miller (1983) assigned the term "happenstance" in career choice. Miller defined the term as: "(a) a circumstance regarded as due to chance, (b) luck or fortune, (c) without plan or intent, or (4) accidentally" p. 17. It is an unplanned event that measurably changes one's career choice behaviour. Miller contended that many individuals find employment only after a number of 'happenstance' jobs or training efforts. Career planning is not purposeful and may be associated with an external locus of control, where dependence on others and not self, dictates events.

External locus of control is dependent upon sources and events the individual accepts as being beyond his or her control (Rotter, 1982). Friends,

previous employment, the network of acquaintances and chance happenings may rule the prospects of finding a meaningful job (Miller, 1983). The stresses of the environmental or situational circumstances that seem beyond the control of the individual would appear to be a major factor in vocational decision-making.

Rotter (1982) maintained that individuals who perceive the expectancies in new situations as similar to those experienced in other situations, will respond in similar fashion in novel situations. External locus of control individuals may perceive novel or ambiguous situations as having the same generalized expectancies as they found previously.

Rotter (1982) contended that when individuals enter post-secondary institutions the relationship between effort and achievement has been recognized by most students. Yet, internal locus of control persons do not always obtain the highest marks. Motivation appears to be a contributing factor in differentiating the behaviour of students with similar ability.

Rotter (1982) avowed that locus of control scales correlate with self-report scales of anxiety, adjustment, or scales involving a self-description of

symptoms. A caution exists pertaining to the use of questionnaires, internals may repress failures or previous unpleasant experiences and hence they may report less anxiety and fewer symptoms in survey results. Responses to questionnaires may be consciously or unconsciously distorted, regardless if a forced choice or a rating scale is used.

Some individuals may exhibit external locus of control responses on a questionnaire as a defense or rationalization mechanism against an expected failure.

Family and Community Factors

Herr and Cramer (1992) affirmed that family characteristics contribute to the socialization and vocationalization of the young across social classes. These family influences included childrearing practices, socioeconomic level, parents occupations and reinforcements provided to children. These factors may or may not operate in isolation from the individual's personality traits. The development of an individual's personality is heavily influenced by the family.

Family variables and decision-making

Zingaro (1983) examined family variables and their relationship to career decision-making. Zingaro

described the career indecisive client as an individual not undecided about declaring a university major, but anxious about making decisions in and of themselves. Decisions are viewed as movement away from family and not towards a goal or future commitment. The client is undifferentiated and has not established the identity that allows him or her to move away from the comfortable dependence upon others. When indecision stems from the anxiety of making a decision, they avoid anxiety by not making a decision. For some late adolescents making a vocational choice may not mean choosing an occupation or a course of study, but breaking away from family and familiar surroundings. Counselling approaches should attack the underlying issues that are the antecedents of career indecision: Identity, self-esteem and self-confidence, autonomy and interpersonal maturity. Zingaro argued that the fear of making a decision is also a presenting issue for college seniors as they separate from family, the college environment and college friends.

Lopez and Andrews (1987) believed "the young adult's choice or indecision can be alternately conceptualized, not as an individual achievement or

personality but rather as the outcome of a larger set of transactions between the person and family." (p. 304). If there is a failure to establish an adequate identity during adolescence, it may lead to role confusion (Erickson, 1959) as cited in Lopez and Andrews (1987). This may mean the adolescent exhibits anxiety and uncertainty and an external attribution during this period. Although these factors are within the family context, they relate to the personality traits that are attributed to chronically undecided and indecisive individuals.

Eigan, Hartman and Hartman (1987) studied functional and dysfunctional family interactions and their effect on career decision. Their hypothesis was that more chronically undecided individuals would come from families with poor cohesion and adaptability. For these authors, adaptability was defined as "the ability of a family system to change its power structure and relationship roles and rules in response to stress, ..the family's capacity for change" (p.87). "Family cohesion was defined as the emotional bonding family members have with each other" (p.87). Dysfunctional families were those who measured at the extremes on

both dimensions.

Eigan, Hartman and Hartman's (1987) findings indicated that adolescents develop the ability to make career decisions from two forms of family interaction patterns, a flexible structure that also has strong emotional attachments among family members, or an authoritarian structure that does not allow for individual freedom. The development of decision-making skills may come from a family structure that is too loose or too rigid. While the authors failed to demonstrate the usefulness of family typing for diagnostic purposes, they have identified that certain family interaction patterns may contribute to chronic career indecision.

Hoffman and Weiss (1987) in a study of non-clinic, white students whose parents lived together, indicated that emotional problems in college aged students may be the result of a separation from parents. Presenting problems may occur even when students are not physically separated from their parents. Students can be affected negatively by the conflictual relationships in the family structure. The issues of identify formation, separation, and dependence upon the other

sex-parent may not be causal, but reciprocal in nature.

Many family influences have a vital impact on the career development plans of the young adult (Splete & Freeman-George, 1985: Otto & Call, 1985). Reviewing the research, Otto and Call, (1985) maintained that there are social-psychological mechanisms through which parents affect the career aspirations and decisions that young adults make. This influence was seen in the life events that young adults encounter after completing high school.

Primary tasks for the young adult included establishing autonomy, deciding on a career field, and entering the labour force or post-secondary institutions. Splete and Freeman-George (1985) insisted there are a number of family factors that influence these and other career decision-making tasks: (a) geographic location, (b) genetic inheritance, (c) family background, (d) socioeconomic status, (e) family composition, (f) parenting style and (g) parental work-related attitudes all influence the initial and later career development. Of particular interest to this author were the influences of the community, the family background and parent work-related attitudes on the

decision-making style of youth in this province. The contextual factors were seen as important contributors to career indecision. McDaniels (1984) cited in Splete and Freeman-George (1985) declared that adolescents evaluate the lifestyle and orientations of their parents, either accepting or rejecting those positions.

Person-Environment Congruence

Congruence between the individual and the environment was seen as a contributing factor to career drifting (Gottfredson and Holland 1990). These authors claimed that job satisfaction stems from a favourable match between a person's interests, competencies, and the job's requirements and rewards. They further argued that hypothesized outcomes of the person-job congruence included the following variables: interest change, decreased job involvement, counterproductive behaviour, attempts to change jobs, absences, quitting jobs or drug use. These authors maintained that only quitting a job is known to be predictable from interest measures. Examining the person-environment was important in developing the profile of the career drifter. The view that quitting is predictable from interest factors validated the aspect of the definition

that examines the previous work history of the drifter. The literature established that person-environment is essential in job satisfaction and contributed to repeated job changes.

Gottfredson and Holland (1990) also found significant and moderate correlations between an individual's overall job satisfaction and the style of supervision they encountered. Their conclusion was that a person's expected satisfaction with work is the most efficient predictor of overall job satisfaction. If a person realizes the anticipated job satisfaction from employment, prospects are he or she will remain with that job. Another result the authors identified in this study is that there is not a link between interests and job satisfaction. The study did confirm the hypothesis that congruent work environments allowed a person to match their interests and competencies to lead to a satisfying job situation, but they will not change their job structure to make them more compatible with their interests. Job satisfaction comes from the style of supervision, involvement in the decision structure of the employment setting and the work conditions meeting working expectations.

Pervin (1987) explained that congruence in the person-situational context is often a relationship of individual goals, personality characteristics and multiple dimensions of the environment. Examining person-environment congruence as part of the profile of the career drifter would appear to be appropriate when considering the personality and contextual factors that influence career drifting.

Osipow (1987) wrote that person-environment fit is what vocational psychology is all about. While recognizing that vocational choice truly is complex, work adjustment, satisfaction and performance are viewed as the notion of a good match between people and their work. Measurement concerns are evident in testing this construct, how do we measure people, how do we measure the work environment, how do we evaluate the degree of the measure of fit. Identifying the personal and environment factors that are important is the main task of researchers in this area. The main question to be examined; is person-environment fit for what? Osipow suggested three possibilities, needs satisfaction, performance capability and job choice. Job choice included skill variety, task identify, task

significance, autonomy and job feedback. Examining these variables in the profile of the career drifter was appropriate as the person-environment fit has a concrete impact on job satisfaction and a link to the decision process an individual weighs in remaining in or leaving a job setting. Making frequent job changes without examining the environmental and personal factors may well lead to chronic job quitting. An examination of the environmental and behavioral dimensions of human functioning might supplement the psychological elements in explaining career indecision (Fuqua & Hartman, 1983).

Holland (1987) affirmed that many problems exist in the study of person-environment transactions. Holland argued that many studies have had weak designs, inadequate sampling, varied assessment that made it difficult for comparative study. Most studies were lengthy on the data analysis end, but short on the account of the environment. Examining the person's comfort level and satisfaction with work and post-secondary environment may provide a more detailed view of person-environment fit.

Lent, Brown and Larkin (1987) in a study of self-

efficacy, interest congruence and consequence thinking, found that only congruence held significant variance for career indecision after ability had been controlled. The awareness of negative consequences of decisions did not enhance the prediction of career decision variables. Though the results may not be generalizable beyond the high academic, scientific and engineering students in this sample, self-efficacy may be useful in predicting academic success, while interest congruence may be a useful predictor in career indecision. The greater the lack of congruence, the more likely a person may experience indecision in vocational choice.

Previous Work Experience

Cherry (1976) professed there is no easy way to distinguish between trial periods of employment and aimless drifting. Cherry's study examined the effects of job changing before the 18th birthday and the length of time in the first job and the reasons for job changing. The results were unclear as to whether the frequency of job changing contributed to problems for the individual or society as a whole, though Jarvis (1990) and Isakson (1990) reported that emotional

difficulties are related to frequent job changing. In periods of low unemployment levels, frequent job changing may not be viewed as a detriment to securing employment or affecting income. However in the Newfoundland economy, this pattern of chronic changing since leaving high school can be viewed by employers as a liability for the worker and affect hiring decisions.

Cherry (1976) proposed three hypothesis on frequent job changing and personal problems:

1. early job changing may be viewed as developing a pattern of unemployment that places stress on the individual and contributes to personal problems.
2. job changing may be caused by previously exhibited personality or psychiatric problems that become more recognizable to age 25.
3. job changing and poor social behaviour may stem from an unwillingness or inability of the individual to adopt a lifestyle consistent with societal expectations, becoming incongruent and having personality problems.

The consequences of early employment experiences

may determine the value young people place on exploring the long-term consequences of their job changing.

Early job changing may not be viewed by new entrants to the labour market as having any consequences for future employment prospects. From Cherry's (1976) study, by age 25, 1/4 of frequent job changers had experienced serious personality problems.

Warr and Jackson (1987) examining long-term unemployment in Great Britain, reported that affective well-being tended to diminish as a person endures unemployment, stabilizing after six months. While a person may adjust to unemployment, adaptation usually occurs better for young and older workers compared to middle-aged workers. Youth may have received financial support from parents and may have no dependents, while the older worker may prepare for an early transition to retirement. The younger worker may not experience the same psychological problems. Significantly, after a period of unsuccessful job-hunting, the younger worker may view the prospects of regaining a job beyond their control, changing to an external locus of control.

Warr and Jackson (1987) and Jarvis (1991) asserted that the availability of unemployment insurance may

decrease the apprehension of unemployment, as unemployment while enduring poverty is much more difficult to endure. A positive network of social contacts and good physical health were seen as contributing to effective adaptation to job loss. The impact of repeated voluntary job quits may be viewed to have similar consequences as involuntary job loss.

Anxiety and depression may accompany job loss, and while affective well-being may improve as people adapt to unemployment, these small improvements may be accompanied by deficits in other areas, such as personal aspirations, autonomy and competence. Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisal (1933) cited in Warr and Jackson (1987) gave this description of unemployment adjustment from their depression era study of Marienthal

"an attitude of drifting along, indifferently and without expectations, accepting a situation that can not be changed...no plans, no relation to the future, no hopes, extreme restriction of all needs beyond the bare necessities, yet at the same time providing maintenance of the household, care of the children, and an overall feeling of relative

well-being" (p. 121).

While career drifting may not be compared to the deprivation of the Depression era because of the provisions of our social safety net, some aspects of drifting may occur in young adults if they perceive they can not control the happenings in post-secondary institutions and competition in the labour market.

Isakson (1990) identified a relationship between frequent short-term jobs and decreased mental health in a study of Swedish males receiving social security. The population (n=735) were unmarried or divorced, 20-30 years of age, and the majority without dependants. Those workers who found new employment had better psychological well-being and fewer symptoms of distress. Men who continued to be unemployed had lower levels of psychological well-being, at least in one subgroup. Another finding from this study suggested that many males who had worked in the year leading up to the follow-up had a higher level of well-being than those who had not worked. Isakson hypothesized that these men had adapted to having periods of unemployment, it was the reality of living and did not lead to negative reactions.

This pattern of employment may relate to the Newfoundland labour market that is essentially seasonal, especially in rural communities. Isakson stated there was no definite link in causality, although job loss is negatively correlated with decreased functioning in an individual's mental state.

Summary

The literature presented a view that personality traits are important factors in the construct of career indecisiveness. The relationship of personality traits to decision-making was clearly established (Hartman and Fuqua, 1983; Moore, Jensen & Hauch, 1991; Super, 1983). The relationship of career drifting and the personality traits of anxiety, self-esteem and locus of control was supported as the main focus of this study.

Parental and community variables were identified in this literature review as influencing career decision-making and career indecisiveness (Bratcher, 1982; Downing & Dowd, 1988; Rumbolt, 1990). These contextual variables were examined and contributed to the understanding of career drifting. Work experience and the person-environment fit were other variables identified in the literature as influencing career

decision-making (Goffredson & Holland, 1990; Pervin, 1987; Rounds, Davis & Lofquist, 1987). While the essence of this literature review was a scrutiny of the relationship of personality traits to career drifting, considering the contextual variables was an important component in this study.

For this study on Newfoundland youth, the definition considered for our target population required an examination of the literature on career indecision and career indecisiveness. The sample surveyed were high school completers who started but did not complete post-secondary courses. They voluntarily left employment without other career or jobs prospects and had not looked for employment if they had completed a post-secondary program. They had a minimum combination of three post-secondary program or job changes since leaving high school. This definition of the target population matches closely with Fuqua, Hartman and Blum's (1983) definition. This determination was critical in conducting this study.

Chapter 111

Methodology

This study was part of a larger research project being conducted by Cahill at The Centre for the Development of Distance Career Counselling, Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland. A structured questionnaire was used, designed to assess factors associated with the career drifting of youth and young adults in Newfoundland. The questionnaire required 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

Aiken (1988) reported that over 50% of research papers and dissertations in education employed some type of survey methodology, while Hopkins, Stanley and Hopkins (1990) declared it is a frequently used research approach. Gay (1987) asserted that surveys provide the opportunity to generate large amounts of data quickly and for relatively little cost. Gay further contends that self-report surveys "represent considerably more than asking questions and reporting answers; it involves careful design and execution of each component of the research process." (p. 192). The development of this questionnaire was based upon the research available in the literature, and recent

studies conducted in Newfoundland on youth transition from school to work, post-secondary student retention, and persistence at post-secondary institutions. As the purpose of the study was to develop a profile of a "Career Drifter", established rating scales were not used as more than one personality trait was being examined.

Data collection procedure

The questionnaire was mailed to 352 post-secondary students who had attended community colleges and technical institutes in the eastern and western areas of Newfoundland. Many students at these institutions had previously attended university in the province. The institutions were selected on the basis of serving rural as well as urban populations and their willingness to provide access to student records.

In view of the fact this researcher examined a population with a narrow definition, the sample obtained from the Technical Institute and Community College in eastern portion of the province was based upon an available sample that met the definition of the study. This sample was difficult to obtain because of the non-computerization of records at both

institutions.

The sample obtained from the community college in western Newfoundland was obtained by stratified random sampling of the computerized lists of drop-outs from the four campuses of the institution.

Sampling and sampling procedure

The distribution of the questionnaire was developed after the operational definition was acquired. Personal contacts were made with public and private post-secondary institutions in St. John's as no single source compiled previous education and employment history sufficient to identify a potential sample. Written correspondence was made with institutions outside the St. John's area.

The private institutions contacted in the St. John's region were not involved in the study as they are high school driven and did not have the student population that fit the definition of this study.

Officials at the post-secondary institutions either provided access to student files stored on microfiche or computerized formats. This information included the student name, last known address, program of study, campus location, year of termination and the

length of time in the program. The information was provided for the 1986 to 1990 academic years. For the computerized student files, a random number was assigned and 119 students were included in the study. The microfiche files identified 231 students who met the operational definition and they were mailed questionnaires. Individual instructors at one institution identified students who met the definition of the study and 17 questionnaires were completed by this group.

Contacts were also made with the service providers to special populations in the St. John's area such as Job Finding Clubs, Employment and Immigration Canada, and the YMCA's Job Generation Program. These training or job transition programs are aimed at individuals who have not completed high school programs.

Following suggestions from McCallon & McCray (1975) and Aiken (1988), survey kits that included a covering letter which outlined the purpose of the survey and provided details concerning confidentiality, permission forms for involvement in later stages of the project, questionnaires and self-addressed envelopes were mailed to a total of 352 individuals. Table 1

presents the response from the survey participants.

Table 1
Questionnaires mailed and survey response

<u>Grouping</u>	<u>Number</u>
Questionnaires mailed	352
Questionnaires completed in person	17
Questionnaires distributed	369
Questionnaires returned address unknown	34
Questionnaires received by the sample	335
Mailed questionnaires returned	113
Completed questionnaires returned	
that did not meet definition of the study	28
Questionnaires used in the study	85
% of mailed questionnaires	34%
Percentage of completed questionnaires	
used in the study	76%

A master list of all potential participants was compiled from the mailing list. The respondents were directed to return the completed questionnaires to the Centre for Development of Distance Career Counselling. This researcher checked the individual's name against the master list and detached the covering page that

contained the personal identifiers. Each completed questionnaire was coded by age, gender and marital status. Any envelope returned address unknown was also checked against the master list and included in the determination of the level of survey response. After the initial mail-out, 119 questionnaires were returned to the Centre for Development of Distance Career Counselling, either completed or marked address unknown. On September 1, six weeks after the initial mail-out, a follow-up letter was then mailed to all participants who had not returned questionnaires. From this contact, a further 28 individuals returned completed questionnaires.

The Instrument

As Gay (1987) asserted, self-report surveys can provide valuable data. A questionnaire was utilized to collect data in this survey, data that may not be available through standardized instruments. The questionnaire was designed to develop a profile of the career drifter within the environment of this province and examined these factors: personality traits of anxiety, self-esteem and locus of control, influence of family and community, quester characteristics,

person/environment congruency, meaning of and experience with work (organizational\institutional factors), personal aspirations and the rating of one's own abilities. The primary focus of the study was the relationship of personality traits and their influence upon career indecision.

The 135 questions of this instrument were obtained from readings in the literature that examined variables deemed to contribute to career indecisiveness. The item pool was generated from Fuqua and Hartman (1983) and Hartman, Fuqua and Blum's (1985) studies on career indecision, decision-making theory (Osipow & Reed, 1985; Super, 1983; Walsh & Osipow, 1988), Kanchier & Unruh (1988) and Kanchier's (1987) work on quester characteristics and risk-taking, and studies on person-environment fit (Gottfredson & Holland, 1990; Holland, 1987; Osipow, 1987; Pervin, 1987). Research conducted in the province of Newfoundland included: Wiseman's (1983) study on factors related to the traditionalism of career choice among Newfoundland high school students, Sharpe & Spain's (1991) study on Newfoundland youth and transition into the labour market, and Rumbolt's (1990) unpublished thesis on career

persistence and non-persistence of post-secondary students in Newfoundland. Previous consultations with National Research Monitors provided suggestions for items to be included in the questionnaire.

Developing/Testing the Instrument

A pilot stage was conducted and vetted with National monitors prior to distributing this questionnaire. Thirteen graduate students in Educational Psychology, Educational Administration and the Master of Teaching programs at Memorial University completed the questionnaire. Each student provided feedback concerning the reliability of the questions used and recommendations for rewording the items. Five students at a regional Community College, who nominally met the definition of a drifter, completed the questionnaire and offered feedback on the appropriateness of the survey items.

Two staff members with the provincial Career Hotline Program operated by the Department of Employment and Labour Relations performed the same tasks. Two users of the Career Hotline, who also met the definition used in this study, completed the questionnaire and provided important feedback. This

approach assisted greatly in the development of the final instrument and provided an evaluation of reliability and validity of the items used in the survey.

Procedure for Preparation of Data for Analysis

The information to be analyzed was obtained on the completed questionnaires. The initial review involved selecting only those completed questionnaires that met the operational definition of the study. The information had to be prepared prior to entry for a computer statistical program. Age was coded on a scale of 1 to 10, with 1 = age 21 and 10 = age 30. Gender and marital status were coded according to the information sheet that was detached from each questionnaire. Each question using the Likert type scale was coded as recorded on the questionnaire (see question "42" in Appendix "K"). This scale indicated 4 for "strongly agreed" to 1 for "strongly disagreed".

Questions that required a Yes or No were coded as 1 or 2 (see question 20 in Appendix "K"). The occupational information of parents was coded according to the four digit unit code of Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (see question 14 in

Appendix "K"). Other questions were coded according to the number of possible responses (see question 12 in Appendix "K"). After the interpretation of the responses on the long answers, this data was grouped into similar categories to allow for easier analysis (see question 41 in Appendix "K"). The questions requiring a response on the four point scale of 1 to 4, strongly agree to strongly disagree, were coded accordingly (see questions 45 in Appendix "K").

Data Processing and Analysis

The SPSS-X system was used for statistical analysis in this study. Since one level of analysis was descriptive, means and percentages were obtained. Mean scores are the most commonly used descriptive statistic (Gay, 1987) and are appropriate for studies that assess the relationship of psychological distress and career indecision (Sabourin & Coallier, 1991). Findings that showed difference in percentage by gender and community type were discussed in the results. Gay (1987) supported descriptive analysis claiming it can provide valuable data for researchers.

The respondents selected the response on the questionnaire that they rated best represented their

reply to a statement, and the response items were weighted on a scale of 1 to 4 and averaged to obtain the mean scores. Percentages were also generated through the SPSS-X system. For those tables presenting an overall indicator of the level of agreement with a statement, the cumulative percentage of the strongly agree or agree responses is given, for an overall indicator of the level of disagreement, the percentage of disagree and strongly disagree is presented.

Since this researcher was interested in examining factors that contribute to career indecision, correlations between various components in this study were examined. Gay (1987) defined correlational research as the attempt to determine, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. The purpose of correlational research can be to establish the relationship (or absence). It usually involves studying a number of variables believed to be related to a complex variable, such as achievement. Variables found not to be highly related are eliminated and those highly related may suggest further study to determine if the relationships are casual. In interpreting correlation coefficients,

factors that must be considered include the sign of the coefficient and the direction (Hopkins, Stanley & Hopkins, 1990). A positive coefficient (+) represents a direct relationship, high values in one column are associated with high values in another column. Negative (-) coefficients indicate an inverse relationship, the two scores tend to vary in opposite directions, a high value in one column is associated with a low value in the comparison column (Hopkins, Stanley & Hopkins, 1990).

Gay (1987) addressed the issue of the strength of the relationship. He indicates a coefficient of .40 would be useful in a relationship study, coefficients in the .60's and .70's usually deemed adequate for prediction purposes. Following Gay's explanation of significance, for this researcher a correlation coefficient below .40 would be low, coefficients between .40 - .60 moderate and above .60, strong.

Addressing the issue of sample size, Hopkins, Stanley & Hopkins (1990) have identified the minimum values for statistical significance. A sample (N) of 10 requires a correlational coefficient of .632; a N of 25 requires a coefficient of .396; and a N of 100, a

coefficient of .197 to claim statistical significance. Gay (1987) contends a N of 10 requires a correlational coefficient of .6319; a sample size of 100 requires a coefficient of .1946 in order to have statistical significance. Since high or low values of r are more likely to occur with small sample sizes, a high correlation coefficient is required for statistical significance. Gay (1987) claims that the minimum sample size for a survey study is 30. The relationships between the variables selected for study should be determined on the basis of theory or experience. In this study, theories of career indecision and career decision-making were used to determine the variables to be examined. With all correlation coefficients in this sample reported at higher than .563, and a sample size of 85, this researcher can report the findings with a measure of statistical significance.

Gay (1987) also claimed that while relationships do not indicate cause-effect, high relationships permit prediction. The relationship of personality traits to career indecisiveness, if high, may be used to predict career drifting. Herr and Cramer (1992) supported the

of shifts in means and variance, but has not advanced the understanding of the reasons for the dynamics of the shifts as much as desired. This approach to statistical analysis complimented the correlational analysis of the variables examined in this study on career drifting.

use of correlational analysis in determining the predictive power of individual traits or trait sets to vocational decisions and academic aspirations. It can also determine the amount of common variance shared by different measurements. Correlation analysis is both necessary and sufficient for prediction (Hopkins, Glass & Hopkins, 1987),

Factor analysis was used to determine if the cluster of factors identified do contribute to this concept of career drifting. Horst (1965) indicated that factor analytic techniques have had wide applications in the study of abilities and aptitudes, personality and temperament traits and the analysis of interests. While factorial approaches are frequently used to test the null hypothesis, it has often been used in the descriptive method rather than the experimental mode (Herr & Cramer, 1992). The Factorial analysis approach allowed for the identification of the cluster of traits that may contribute to career drifting. This presented the important loadings between variables that examined personality and family factors and described the profile of a career drifter.

Factor Analysis has helped in the identification

CHAPTER 1V

Results

This chapter presents the findings of the statistical analysis performed on the data that examined the variables associated with decision-making and career drifting in a sample of adolescents and young adults in Newfoundland. A profile of traits of individuals who have a series of incomplete post-secondary programs and voluntary job terminations will be presented. The analysis includes a comparison of parental and community factors, and personal aspirations that may contribute to career drifting in Newfoundland adolescents and young adults. As the intent is not to determine cause and effect, the study will be descriptive as no hypothesis is being tested.

Results for the descriptive portion of the study, frequencies, percentages and correlations will be presented in the order of the research questions. The factor analysis will be reported separately, following the same sequence of variables as presented in the descriptive portion of the study.

Each respondent used in this study meets the criteria used in the definition that defines a career

drifter or career indecisive individual. The tables in this section will present the respondents percentages and frequencies obtained from the study.

Research Question # 1 What influence, if any, do gender, age, and community variables have on career drifting for individuals identified in this study?

Community type of Respondents

The determination of rural and urban communities is based upon the Newfoundland Statistical Agency and the Newfoundland Department of Education definition (Newfoundland Statistical Agency, 1986). Urban is defined as a community of greater than five thousand residents. Table 2 presents a comparison of community designation for the sample used in this study.

Table 2
Comparison of survey sample by gender
and rural/urban designation

	<u>Male N=53</u>	<u>Female N=32</u>	<u>Total</u>
Sample	63.9%	36.1%	100%
Rural	54.7%	63.3%	57.8%
Urban	45.3%	36.7%	42.2%

The majority of participants in this survey are

male, with a higher percent of both genders coming from rural communities. However the ratio of rural to urban is slightly higher for females than males.

Age Variables of Respondents

All individuals included in this study met the operational definition of a career drifter. Table 3 presents the age and gender of the respondents.

Table 3
Age and gender distribution, at
time of completion of survey questionnaire

<u>Age</u>	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Freq.</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Freq.</u>	<u>Percent</u>	
21	2	3.8	-	0	2.4
22	9	16.7	7	21.9	18.8
23	11	20.8	4	12.5	17.7
24	8	15.1	5	15.6	15.3
25	7	13.2	4	12.5	12.9
26	5	9.4	5	15.6	11.7
27	4	7.6	4	9.4	8.2
28	1	1.9	-	-	1.2
29	-	-	1	3.1	1.2
30	6	11.3	3	9.4	10.6

Two thirds of the participants in this study were 25 years of age and under, with an even distribution between both sexes. The ratio of males and females throughout the age range was very similar, with no great variations among age categories.

Research Question # 2 What contribution, if any, does previous work experience and post-secondary academic efforts have to career drifting?

Work Experience Variables

The work experience of individuals during high school is presented in Table 4 and allows a later comparison against post-secondary programs. This may assist in examining the relationship of occupational awareness to the career decision-making style.

Table 4

Work experience of participants during high school

	<u>None</u>	<u>Full-time</u>	<u>Part-time</u>	<u>Summer</u>
Male	28.3%	0%	11.3%	60.4%
Female	50.0%	3.1%	9.4%	37.5%
Rural	43.8%	0%	8.3%	47.9%
Urban	28.6%	1.1%	14.3%	56.0%
Total	36.5%	1.2%	10.6%	51.8%

Slightly greater than one-third of respondents had no form of work experience during high school, with female and rural students having less than male and urban students. With occupational awareness being an important aspect of career decision-making, a significant number of this sample lacked work experience that may have helped in making the initial post-high school career choice. For all students who had some employment in high school, it was experience in the labour market and would contribute to career decision-making as well as exposure to workplace expectations, attitudes and environment.

Table 5 presents the respondents work experience.

Table 5

Comparison of post high school work history by job category, voluntary quits, gender and community type

	<u>Full-time</u>	<u>Quit</u>	<u>Part-time</u>	<u>Quit</u>
Male	93.5%	74.5%	30.0%	58.5%
Female	85.3%	47.4%	76.0%	46.2%
Rural	87.5%	62.5%	82.3%	48.6%
Urban	93.7%	70.6%	60.6%	61.7%
Total	91.4%	54.0%	72.3%	53.7%

Post high school work experience provided information about participants' previous employment patterns. The survey results indicated the great majority of respondents held at least one full-time job and 63% held three or more full-time jobs since leaving high school. Males compared to females, reported more voluntary job quitting, especially in full-time employment. Little difference was presented comparing urban and rural respondents who voluntarily terminated jobs. Voluntary job terminations did not appear to be part of a career decision-making pattern as only 10% of respondents indicated that their subsequent jobs were in the same occupational field.

Participant's Evaluation of Work Experience

The impact of work experience and the person to work environment fit was an important consideration for individuals with multiple academic and occupational changes. All but one respondent has had full-time, part-time or summer employment. Each respondent had some form of work experience on which to evaluate the importance to them. Work experience also provided knowledge of the work setting, work relationships, types of supervision, employer expectations and worker

expectations. The impact of previous work experience is especially important in this sample as such a high number have voluntarily left either full-time or part-time employment.

The following table presents the participants' evaluation of their work history and how that experience matched personal values and goals.

Table 6
Mean Scores of Previous Work Experience

<u>Work Experience Factor</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
job matched education level	2.3
little opportunity for personal growth	2.7
accomplished something worthwhile	2.5
had desired salary level	2.2
little personal value in work	2.2
goals and values compatible with employer	2.4
jobs were of little interest	2.3
work most important things in your life	2.2
satisfied with effort in previous jobs	3.1
enjoyed going to work	3.1
obtained jobs only to satisfy others	1.6

The mean scores of previous work experience

provided the initial view of how participants evaluate the importance of their work history. Using the four point scale, with 4 indicating strongly agree and 1 indicating strongly disagree, Table 6 displayed the value respondents placed upon these work experience factors. The respondents evaluation of their previous work experience suggested it was not positive. The highest mean scores were obtained when rating their efforts in previous jobs and the enjoyment of going to work. Means for the variables measuring the intrinsic values were moderate. The variables of work being the most important thing in your life, measuring how well their abilities, interests, and values were met in their previous jobs had low mean scores.

The results obtained from the correlation matrix of these factors indicate a low negative relationship between education level and the opportunity for personal growth at $-.329.$, the lower the education level, the less the opportunity. A relationship was shown between the opportunity for growth and advancement and the sense of accomplishing something worthwhile, with a moderate correlation of $-.515.$ A correlation of $.526$ showed a moderately strong

relationship that when educational levels matched employment, personal goals appeared compatible with those of employers. A strong correlation of $-.644$, indicated a negative relationship between the sense of accomplishment and the level of interest respondents rated having in their jobs. Satisfaction with effort in their previous jobs compared with enjoyment of working, has a moderate correlation of $.524$.

Comparing the enjoyment of work to obtaining a job for reasons other than pleasing significant others had a moderate correlation of $-.537$. The correlation of the income and monetary factors was weak, while that of the intrinsic values of work is moderate. Comparing the desire to have job accomplishments against job advancement, with a correlation of $-.505$, demonstrated this intrinsic relationship. With a correlation of $.363$, a weak relationship was shown between income level and job accomplishment. However, this relationship revolved around supporting a family, not just having income obtained from employment.

These ratings on previous work experience suggested that this sample was seeking more out of their jobs than was provided to them. Work for the

importance of having a job was important, and for many individuals a valuable experience. For the majority of respondents there was disenchantment with wages, little personal value, low job satisfaction, poor prospects of career advancement and little matching to their personal interests in their previous jobs.

Table 7

**Participants ratings of work experience factors
by percentage agreed or disagreed**

<u>Experience Factor</u>	<u>Agreed</u>
got along with co-workers	92.9%
got along with supervisors	90.6%
jobs matched education level	47.6%
little chance for personal growth	63.4%
accomplished something worthwhile	58.8%
had desired salary level	37.6%
little personal value in work	40.0%
skills/abilities met your hopes	48.2%
jobs of little interest to you	44.7%
work most important in your life	39.6%
satisfied with effort in jobs	94.1%
enjoyed going to work	79.3%

Table 7 presented the level of agreement with a broader range of work experience variables. Work experience appeared to be a contributing factor in shaping post high school decisions. Less than half the students indicated that they thought that their jobs after high school matched their educational background, which suggests higher expectations as the great majority did not complete post-secondary programs. Two-thirds responded that previous jobs offered little opportunity for personal growth, yet almost 60% agreed or strongly agreed that they accomplished something worthwhile in their jobs. Slightly greater than one third agreed that they had the desired salary level, however it also represents a high level of dissatisfaction with their incomes. The interpersonal relationships of the workplace are reported as being very good for participants.

Just over half of the respondents indicated there was little personal value in their jobs. Work is deemed to have a great intrinsic value to this sample. Over three-quarters rated that they enjoyed going to work, indicating that work fulfilled a role in their lives, even if the work was not satisfying or of value

to them. A significant number of respondents found little interest and enjoyment in work they performed.

These same work experience factors are examined by gender and community and presented in the following table.

Table 8

Participants level of agreement with previous work experience variables, by gender and community type

<u>Work Variable</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Got along co-workers	94.3%	90.6%	87.5%	100%
Got along supervisor	90.6%	87.5%	87.5%	91.4%
Jobs matched education	45.2%	46.7%	55.3%	55.9%
Poor chance for growth	61.5%	66.7%	47.5%	69.7%
Work was worthwhile	54.7%	65.7%	62.6%	54.3%
Had desired salary	62.5%	54.3%	50.0%	20.0%
Little personal value	47.2%	26.6%	36.6%	47.0%
Skills/abilities used	47.1%	50.0%	64.6%	25.7%
Little interest-jobs	49.0%	37.6%	37.5%	57.3%
Most important-life	40.3%	35.5%	50.0%	20.0%
Satisfied with efforts	90.6%	94.1%	100%	85.8%
Enjoyed going to work	72.5%	90.3%	72.7%	73.7%

Table 8 shows meaningful gender differences were evident for some variables. Females compared to males, reported less agreement with having the desired salary level, their jobs were of little interest and little value to them. Females more than males, indicated a greater level of agreement with accomplishing something worthwhile in previous jobs and that they enjoyed going to work. The results suggested that females assign a greater importance to working based on enjoyment, personal value and interest in work.

Meaningful differences were found for community type, as urban compared to rural residents reported a much lower level of agreement with having the opportunity for personal growth and that there was little personal value and interest in their jobs. Urban residents reported a significantly lower agreement level with having the desired salary level and that their skills and abilities were used to their desired level. Urban residents strongly indicated that work was not the most important thing in their lives.

There was a greater variance by community type compared to gender in the amount of agreement on the work experience factors. Urban residents reported

lower levels of agreement with most work experience variables than did males or females.

Work Values

The analyses of the reasons individuals would accept a job provided a contrast to the value they placed on previous work experience. It permitted a comparison of past experience and future expectations respondents would like to have from employment. It also gave evidence whether they valued an intrinsic or extrinsic value in their jobs. The following table presents the participants mean scores.

Table 9

Personal reasons for accepting a job

<u>Job variable</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
To please others	1.6
For the salary only	3.3
Support self and family	3.3
Obtain luxuries I want	3.1
For job satisfaction	3.4
Qualify for Unemployment Insurance	1.7
Chance for advancement	3.7
For job security	3.7

Locus of Control was one of the variables examined in this study. Internal locus of control has a relationship with intrinsic work values, while external locus of control has a relationship with extrinsic or concrete rewards. Non-monetary factors such as job satisfaction, job security and job advancement that define intrinsic, had high mean scores of 3.4 to 3.7. The importance of monetary factors such as qualifying for unemployment insurance, salary, supporting family and obtaining luxuries had mean scores of 1.70 to 3.31. With the range of mean scores much narrower for intrinsic than for extrinsic values, the results suggested a higher relevance was placed on the intrinsic value of work. Despite the high unemployment rate in this province, participants rendered low mean scores for the variables of viewing work as only a means to qualify for unemployment insurance and seeking employment to simply please others.

Working mainly for income was not a main consideration for seeking work for this sample. Personal, intrinsic values were seen to have a slightly stronger influence on the reasons why people wish to work. For the majority of respondents in this study,

their work experience has been considerable since leaving high school and appears to have influenced job quitting and efforts at post-secondary education.

Gender and community size relationships were also examined to determine if any meaningful differences existed. This relationship may also reflect the influence of sex differences, community values, educational experiences, and the economy of rural as compared to urban communities.

Table 10

**Level of agreement on the reasons for accepting
a job by gender and rural/urban category**

<u>Job Variable</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
to please others	10.5%	6.2%	10.5%	5.8%
for the salary only	84.9%	93.8%	83.4%	93.4%
support self/family	90.5%	87.5%	89.6%	88.6%
get luxuries I want	80.1%	79.2%	77.1%	82.8%
for job satisfaction	94.4%	90.7%	89.6%	96.1%
qualify for U.I.	21.1%	18.7%	29.8%	8.6%
for advancement	86.2%	87.6%	87.3%	100%
for job security	88.7%	100%	87.5%	100%

Notable contrasts were found as a greater proportion of rural compared to urban residents, agreed they would accept a job solely to qualify for unemployment insurance programs. Urban residents reported a greater agreement they would accept jobs for career advancement and job security. Females and urban residents reported a greater agreement on accepting a job for the salary only. Differences in percentages reported were found for females compared to males on accepting a job for job security.

Post-secondary education background

Within this sample, 52.4% of respondents had completed high school since 1985. They had a varied range of education efforts, averaging 2.2 attempts at post-secondary programs, with males compared to females, attempting slightly higher ratio. A principal component of this study defined the career drifter in terms of the number of post-secondary programs that they have attempted. The analyses of the pattern and variety of educational efforts presents the nature of the post-secondary attempts. Table 11 presents the total number of post-secondary programs attempted by the respondents in this study.

Table 11
Percent of post-secondary programs attempted
by participants according to program type

<u>Number</u>	<u>Univ.</u>	<u>Tech. Dip.</u>	<u>Comm. Coll.</u>	<u>Other</u>
184	49.8%	19.8%	28.3%	2.1%

Half the programs attempted were at the university level, with the next highest being one year community college programs. In reviewing the student files at one institute, this researcher observed that a majority individuals attempted programs at university before moving on to technical or community colleges. This pattern appears more typical than individuals leaving community colleges to attend university.

From the total of 184 post-secondary programs attempted by this sample, just 23 programs (13%) were successfully completed, by nine males and 10 females. Except one of each gender, all returned for further unrelated post-secondary programs after receiving a certificate, and all but one of this total indicated they plan to return to post-secondary training in the future. Three quarters of the sample plan on returning to post-secondary institutions, with no difference by

gender or community type. Just one of the programs successfully completed by this sample was a technical diploma, the remainder being pre-employment programs of one year or less.

The following table presents a comparison of the number of post-secondary programs to examine differences between males/female and rural/urban categories.

Table 12
Number of post-secondary programs attempted
by gender and community type

#	<u>Gender</u>			#	<u>Community Type</u>		
	One	Two	Three+		One	Two	Three+
Male	26.0%	42.0%	32.0%	Rural	29.9%	40.4%	29.7%
Female	18.8%	28.1%	50.1%	Urban	15.2%	33.3%	1.5%
Total	23.2%	36.5%	40.0%		23.7%	37.5%	38.8%

The results showed that just under 80% of all respondents attempted more than one post-secondary program. Important distinctions were identified as females, to a greater ratio than males, attempted three or more programs, and rural residents displayed this pattern to a greater extent than urban residents. The

pattern of attempted programs are consistent by gender and community type.

Table 13

**Type of post-secondary program attempted
by gender and community type**

	<u>Univ.</u>	<u>Tech.</u>	<u>Certif.</u>	<u>Other</u>
Male	60%	30%	6%	4%
Female	35%	3%	58%	3%
Rural	47%	19%	31%	3%
Urban	57%	20%	18%	5%

Males compared to females, reported a greater percentage of attempts at a university degree and especially, technical diplomas. Females compared to males, attempted a greater ratio of certificate programs at the community college level. A higher percentage of urban than rural residents have attempted a university degree, while rural residents have attempted a greater percentage of certificate programs.

One factor examined is the length of time these individuals have been out of the secondary school system before attempting post-secondary programs. Table 14 presents the year in which programs were

attempted after leaving high school. The same year represents entering a program the same calendar year in which they completed high school.

Table 14

**Number of years after completing high school and
relationship to attempts at post-secondary programs**

	<u>Males N=52</u>			<u>Females N=32</u>		
<u>Attempt#</u>	<u>First</u>	<u>Second</u>	<u>Third</u>	<u>First</u>	<u>Second</u>	<u>Third</u>
Same year	49.0%	-	-	48.4%	-	-
1 year	19.6%	15.6%	-	35.5%	16.0%	-
2 years	17.7%	17.8%	-	3.2%	48.0%	7.1%
3 years	3.7%	24.4%	-	-	4.0%	21.4%
4 years	1.9%	17.8%	40.0%	3.2%	-	21.4%
5 years	3.9%	4.4%	33.3%	6.5%	8.0%	7.1%
6+ years	3.9%	19.9%	26.7%	3.2%	24.0%	36.0%

The initial attempt at post-secondary training was similar for both genders, as half of this group entered programs the same year they completed high school. A greater percent of females compared to males, had the first attempt after one year out of high school. Females attempted their third program earlier than males, while males made their third attempt after a

longer duration out of school. The majority of both sexes had their initial attempt within four years of completing high school. There is a consistency in the duration of post-high school time frame in which students attempted their first post-secondary programs.

Research Question # 3 What influence, if any, do family and community factors have on career drifting?

This research question examined the background of the parents of the survey sample. Occupational, educational, and personal values of parents will be contained in this analyses.

Parental Occupation Variables

The following table presents the occupational background of parents while the respondents were in high school. The categories were based upon the four digit occupational codes used in the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations. Respondents were asked the primary occupations of their parents while the participants attended high school. The category not in the workforce included questionnaires that had no response. The results are presented by the percentage of each parent in different occupational groups and shown in the Table 15.

Table 15
Occupational group of parents
while participants attended high school

<u>Occupation Group</u>	<u>Father/Guardian</u>	<u>Mother/Guardian</u>
management/business	13%	-
teaching/related	6%	6%
health/related	2%	2%
clerical/computer	-	7%
retail owner	11%	11%
service	2%	7%
fisherperson	13%	-
fish plant worker	2%	6%
maintenance/repair	16%	-
construction	14%	-
transportation	9%	-
homemaker	-	55%
not in work force	13%	5%

Further references to father and mother will be deemed to include the category of guardian. Not unexpectedly, the occupational profile of parents had considerable gender contrast. Fathers participated in the work force to a much greater extent than mothers.

Fathers compared to mothers, were represented to a greater degree in management, construction, transportation, and maintenance/repair occupations. The majority of participants listed their mothers as homemakers during their high school years. Fathers were listed as not in the workforce when they were identified as deceased, handicapped or no occupation was listed. There were no significant differences for parents work background by gender of the respondents. Significantly, more rural father's were involved in construction occupations than their urban counterparts. The significant difference in the mother's background was that more rural mothers were in fishery related and arts and crafts occupations.

Parental employment backgrounds go beyond occupational descriptions or positions, they also include work patterns, whether they be seasonal, part-time or full-time employment. If parents are role models in their children's vocational development, then examining this variable may determine if there is a relationship between parents work background and the decision-making patterns of their children. The following tables will present the work patterns of both

parents while the participants in this survey attended high school. The parent's employment background will be presented separately and discussed jointly.

Table 16
Work pattern of father while survey
participants attended high school

<u>Type of Work</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Seasonal	28.6%	20.0%	34.1%	16.1%
Full-time	65.3%	80.0%	58.5%	83.6%
Part-time	6.1%	-	7.3%	-

Table 17 presents the mother's work pattern while the participants attended high school.

Table 17
Work pattern of mother while survey
participants attended high school

<u>Type of Work</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Seasonal	10.8%	9.1%	12.1%	8.3%
Full-time	78.4%	81.8%	78.8%	83.1%
Part-time	10.8%	9.1%	9.1%	8.3%

Females compared to males, reported a slightly higher ratio of their fathers being employed full-time, as did urban compared to rural fathers. Conversely rural compared to urban fathers were shown to be employed to a greater degree in seasonal employment.

An important consideration in analysing Table 17 was the high number of missing observations, as many mothers were categorized as homemakers and not considered by their children as being attached to the paid workforce. No differences are reported when comparing the work pattern of mothers to gender and community type of the respondents. The results suggested that the fathers' work patterns were more diverse, by type and number of occupations. This difference was moderate and presents a stable, continuous work pattern for the majority of parents while the survey respondents were in high school.

Parental Educational Variables

Of importance was the educational background of the parents of the survey population. It was important to compare the educational levels to determine if participants in this study were significantly different in educational attainment than

their parents. A comparison of educational levels would present an indication of the influence this factor may have exerted on this group. The following table compares the educational attainment of parents and their children.

Table 18

Educational level of parents and survey participants

<u>Educational Level</u>	<u>Parents</u>		<u>Survey</u>
	<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Children</u>
Less than High School	55.9%	52.4%	-
Completed High School	13.1%	21.4%	100%
Some Post-Secondary	10.6%	6.0%	98%
Community College Dip.	9.5%	8.3%	20%
University Degree	9.5%	7.1%	-
Did not know	1.2%	4.8%	-

The results shown in table 18 indicated a similar level of educational attainment among parents, however while high school completion is significantly higher for respondents, parents have a higher post-secondary completion rate than their children. The Community College diplomas of the participants in this study were almost entirely obtained from one year pre-employment

programs.

A far greater percentage of participants have attempted post-secondary programs than their parents. The results suggest that the educational level of the participants' parents is an influence on post-secondary attempts, however respondents have achieved a far smaller degree of success compared to their parents.

The following table presents the father's highest educational attainment by gender and community type.

Table 19

Father's educational level by gender and community type

<u>Educational Level</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community type</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
Less than grade 9	24.5%	45.2%	36.2%	25.7%
Some high school	30.2%	12.9%	34.0%	11.4%
High school dip.	18.9%	3.2%	6.4%	22.9%
Some comm. coll.	5.7%	-	2.1%	5.7%
Comm. coll. dip.	3.8%	19.4%	12.8%	5.7%
Some university	7.5%	6.5%	2.1%	14.3%
University degree	7.5%	12.9%	4.3%	14.3%
Do not know	2.0%	-	2.0%	-

A higher proportion of females than males reported

their fathers had less than grade nine education, although the total ratio with less than high school completion is similar for both sexes. Males reported that a greater proportion of fathers had completed high school, while females reported a higher proportion of their fathers had community college diplomas or university degrees. Urban residents reported a higher ratio of high school completion for their fathers than rural residents, while university education and university degrees were much higher for urban when compared to rural respondents. Overall, the educational attainment of fathers is higher for females and urban respondents in this study.

Of relevance was the comparison of the educational level between parents. Examining this variable allowed this researcher to determine if any variations in educational levels existed and analyze, by gender and community type, any differences reported by respondents relating to their parents education. Similarities or differences may suggest that parental educational attainment influences the career decision-making of their children. The educational attainment of the mother will be presented by gender and community type

in the following table.

Table 20

Mother's educational level by gender and community type

<u>Educational Level</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community type</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Less than grade 9	20.8%	32.3%	27.7%	22.9%
Some high school	32.1%	19.4%	34.0%	14.3%
High school dip.	22.6%	19.4%	17.0%	28.6%
Some comm. coll.	2.0%	6.5%	4.3%	2.9%
Comm. coll. dip.	7.5%	9.7%	8.5%	8.6%
Some university	3.8%	-	-	5.7%
University degree	9.4%	3.2%	2.0%	14.3%
Do not know	2.0%	9.7%	6.4%	2.9%

The educational attainment of the mother with less than grade nine was similar for both sexes, although as with the father, females more than males, reported a higher proportion of mothers with less than grade nine. The ratio of mothers who completed high school was similar for both genders, while more males reported their father's attended university and obtained university degrees.

A significant difference was evident for the urban

communities, as the findings indicated higher ratios of parents completing high school and university degrees than their rural counterparts. A higher ratio of rural than urban mothers have not attained a high school diploma.

Parental Attitudes

Parental attitudes and role modelling are viewed as a pivotal influence upon career decision-making of their children. Parental expectations can persuade children to take a particular course of action. The following table presents parental attitudes and expectations toward the post-secondary education and career decisions of their children. It provided a comparison of the value that parents placed on education and career goals and the level of agreement with their parents' views the respondents assigned to these variables. This afforded the opportunity to examine how parental attitudes and expectations for their children are similar or dissimilar and the influence it may have had upon career drifting. The following table presents the comparison of parental attitudes and expectations with those of the survey sample.

Table 21

Level of agreement of parental attitudes with
respondents educational and career decisions

<u>Parental View of Career Decisions</u>	<u>Agreed</u>	<u>Disagreed</u>
You agreed with parents views	84.9%	15.9%
Agreed with your career decisions	90.4%	9.6%
Wanted post-secondary program	76.9%	23.1%
Influenced your career choice	72.6%	27.4%
Encouragement you in high school	97.6%	2.4%
You have the same attitude as		
Parents toward education	75.3%	24.7%
Upset if did not do well in H. S.	83.5%	16.5%
Consider education of little value	3.6%	96.4%
Pressured you to work after H.S.	54.8%	45.2%

The table reported a high level of agreement between parents and children that education is important, even though over half of all parents did not complete high school. Despite having a substantial number of incomplete post-secondary programs, three quarters of these same respondents indicated they intend to return to post-secondary programs in the future. MacIntosh, Wilson & Lipinske (1974) as

reported in Byrne (1990), state this apparent contradiction is not unusual. As many as two-thirds or greater of all post-secondary drop-outs will re-enrol in the same institution or another at a later date.

Table 21 indicated a sizable proportion of respondents thought their parents agreed with their educational efforts while in high school and post-secondary institutions. There was a very strong consistency in ratings by respondents indicating parents wished they continue their education after high school, that their parents influenced their career decisions and who reported they held the same attitude toward education as their parents. Parental influence was reported to have a high level of agreement between parents and this sample, especially considering that many respondents have had more than one incomplete post-secondary program.

The results from Table 21 suggested that parents think education is important and most respondents and parents agreed with the decisions made concerning post-secondary educational plans and career choices. The following table shows these same parental attitudes by gender and community type.

Table 22

Level of agreement of parental attitudes with
respondents educational and career decisions

Parental Factor	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
You agreed with your parents career views.	81.1%	89.7%	82.6%	91.2%
Parents agreed with your career decisions.	90.6%	90.0%	89.4%	91.2%
Wanted you to complete post-secondary program.	92.3%	90.0%	91.3%	91.2%
Influenced your post high school choices.	68.0%	80.7%	72.3%	74.3%
Encouragement you to do well in high school.	96.2%	90.0%	97.9%	97.1%
Has same attitude as parents to education.	71.7%	81.2%	72.9%	82.8%
Upset if you did not do well in High school.	90.5%	71.9%	83.3%	82.9%
Education little value.	3.8%	2.1%	4.1%	4.8%
Pressured you to work after high school.	64.2%	48.7%	50.1%	60.0%

A higher ratio of females compared to males reported their parents influenced their career decisions after high school, although there were no rural-urban differences. A higher ratio of females to males described having the same attitude as their parents toward education, and the urban to rural ratio is higher. A higher ratio of males than females indicated that their parents were upset if they did not do well in high school, although rural-urban comparison are comparable. Males and urban respondents reported a greater level of pressure to work upon completing high school.

Both males and females reported a similar level of parental support during high school, however, females reported a higher percentage of strongly agree (75%) than males (60%). A higher level of urban residents (77.1) compared to rural individuals (58.3%), strongly agreed they received parental support while attending high school. There were few gender and community differences on how respondents rated parental attitudes toward education and their career decisions. This sample reported a strong level of agreement with parental attitudes.

Correlation of Parental Support Variables

The correlation between parent's encouragement of their children while in high school and post-secondary institutions is .540 for the father and .583 for the mother. The relationship of parents being upset if their children did not do well in high school was a moderate .415, while support in post-secondary career plans has a correlation of .400.

Support from Family and Others

Parental and family support can be a strong influence and motivator on career attainment. Table 23 gives the of level of support provided to this sample.

Table 23

**Individual and the level of support provided
to participant's career decisions**

Person	Great Deal	Some	Very Little	None
Mother	63.5%	25.9%	8.2%	1.2%
Father	54.1%	28.2%	10.6%	-
Friends	31.8%	37.6%	15.3%	11.8%
H.S.Teacher	22.4%	20.0%	14.1%	34.1%
C.C.Instr.	22.4%	27.1%	11.8%	29.4%
H.S.Couns.	12.9%	16.%	10.6%	47.1%

The results described that parents and friends are the most important sources in providing encouragement and support for post-secondary career plans. High school guidance counsellors, high school teachers and community college instructors were rated as those who provided a very low level of support.

Support for career decisions entails all aspects of the post high school events of this sample. The absence of support was examined as to the level of influence for this sample.

Table 24

**Individual who did not support the respondent's
attendance at post-secondary institutions,
by gender and community type.**

<u>Individual</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
Mother	9.4%	9.4%	12.5%	5.7%
Father	11.3%	9.4%	14.6%	5.7%
Friends	32.1%	18.8%	27.1%	25.7%
H.S.Couns.	64.2%	46.9%	60.4%	54.0%
H.S.Teacher	56.7%	34.4%	52.1%	42.9%
C.C.Instr.	41.5%	40.6%	53.8%	45.2%

Table 24 indicated mothers provided the lowest level of non-support and encouragement to post-secondary efforts. There were no variation by gender and just a slight difference between rural and urban residents. Females at (71.9%) reported a higher ratio of a great deal of support than males (58.5%), while urban residents at (71.4%) showed higher ratio of this same level of support than rural (56.3%). Fathers are reported as providing a slightly higher level of non-support to post-secondary attendance, and as with mothers, this level of non-support was higher for rural residents. Urban residents (68.6%) when compared to rural (43.6%) reported a higher degree of a great deal of support. Friends provide less support to males than females, with no community differences shown.

The individual reported as providing the least support and encouragement is the high school Guidance Counsellor. Females reported less support than males, with little difference reported between rural and urban respondents. High school teachers provided the second lowest level of support and encouragement for attending post-secondary institutions, with females reporting less support than males. Urban residents reported

slightly lower levels than rural from their high school teachers. The community college instructor was shown to provide little support with no contrast between genders and a slight difference between rural and urban students.

The correlation between the level of support received from the mother and the father was a strong .745. The correlation between the level of support received from the high school Guidance Counsellor and high school teacher was a very strong .836, while compared to post-secondary instructors it was .581. The strong correlations supported the importance to respondents of the level of support they received from parents and the lack of support received from high school counsellors, teachers and post-secondary instructors.

Sharpe and Spain (1991) reported similar findings in their study of transitional periods for high school students in Newfoundland. In their study, students attending level III classes in 1989 rated mother, father and friends as most helpful and supportive in aiding them with career decisions. A large portion of students in this research and in Sharpe and Spain

(1991) study reported to have had little or no discussions with high school counsellors, high school teachers, and post-secondary instructors.

Financial Support

Financial pressures can be a dominant reason for leaving post-secondary institutions (Byrne 1990; Rumbolt 1988). Since this sample was comprised of repeaters in post-secondary programs, finances were not seen as a major deterrent from attending programs. Worthy of investigation was the perceived level of parental support reported by participants who had siblings previously attend post-secondary programs.

Table 25

**Level of parental financial support in
post-secondary institutions as compared to siblings**

<u>Support Level</u>	<u>Same</u>	<u>Greater</u>	<u>Less</u>
Total	70.2%	8.5%	21.3%

47% of respondents indicated that they had siblings who attended post-secondary institutions prior to them. Slightly more than two thirds had the same level of financial support from their parents. The results indicated how the respondents perceived the

level of support received from parents, not the amount of financial assistance provided to them. One item not captured in the survey was the level or effect of financial difficulties on leaving post-secondary programs. Considering the strong level of parental support reported and the number of repeated attempts at post-secondary programs, financial problems were not judged a concern for this sample.

Parental support and attitude appeared to have exerted a fairly significant influence on this group. When examining parental expectations, support and encouragement, respondents indicate there was a slightly higher level of support and encouragement from the mothers than fathers. The educational attainment of parents was very similar for both genders and parental expectations were considerably higher for their children than the levels they have attained. One parent did not exert a noticeably greater influence than the other. It was evident that these variables of parental education level, attitudes toward educational attainment and level of support and encouragement during and after high school are factors that influenced decisions made by this sample.

The educational attainment and occupational backgrounds of parents were different from that of their children. A greater percentage of respondents have completed high school, have attempted a greater number of post-secondary programs, but have experienced less success. The occupational goals were different than their parents, and a significant number want higher income levels. There appears to be little connection between jobs held, education programs attempted and voluntary job quits as a pattern of an overall career decision making strategy.

One factor that may have motivated individuals to attempt post-secondary programs was the high value parents placed upon education and the strong support given to students while in high school and post-secondary programs.

Community Factors

Respondents rated certain attitudes of the communities in which they resided during high school. It is beneficial to examine the attitude and economic prospects of a community as a backdrop to influences other than those of their parents. The following table presents the view participants have of the attitudes of

their home communities and the job prospects they hold.

Table 26

**Survey participants' rating of community attitudes
concerning education, work and job prospects**

<u>Community Attitude</u>	<u>Agreed</u>
Willingness to leave home to seek work or attend post secondary	90.5%
Thinks education of little value	16.7%
Alright to collect Unemployment Prospects of obtaining a job in my home community are good	69.9%
Most people work on a part-time or seasonal basis	25.3%
	60.7%

This table showed that the community and parental attitudes about education vary little. 16.7% of the residents think that education is of little value, slightly less than the parental rating. 70% of participants reported that residents in their home communities considered it acceptable to collect Unemployment Insurance Benefits, possibly because 3/4 of respondents thought the prospects of finding work in their own communities were not good. This was in

direct contrast with the majority (82.9%) of respondents who stated they will obtain a job they desire in the future. These responses were as much a reflection of economic reality in this province as they were of community attitudes.

Table 27 presents these same community and individual variables by gender and community type.

Table 27

Survey participants' rating of community attitudes concerning education, work and job prospects

Community Attitude	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Will leave home for work or school.	82.4%	87.1	75.8%	82.45
Think education is of little value.	19.3%	12.6%	10.7%	22.9%
It is alright to collect U. I.	73.1%	64.5%	76.6%	61.7%
Job prospects in my community are good.	27.4%	21.9%	13.1%	40.0%
Most people work seasonally/part-time.	57.6%	55.6%	75.0%	38.2%

The majority of respondents indicated a willingness to leave their home community to attend post-secondary institutions or to seek work. Males (69.8%), compared to females (51.6%) reported they strongly agree they will leave their home communities. Almost half of the participants in this study have left their home community and 39% left the province to seek work. The willingness to leave their home communities for training or work opportunities was grounded in economic reality. Urban residents, compared to rural residents, reported significantly higher prospects of finding a job in their communities. As a consequence of economic conditions, rural residents agree more strongly than urban residents that collecting unemployment insurance benefits was alright. While males, compared to females, reported a similarity in working on a seasonal or part-time basis, this employment pattern was much greater in rural areas.

Overall males and urban respondents revealed some difference in the value of education compared to females and rural respondents, while rural individuals indicated a higher acceptance of receiving unemployment insurance benefits and lower prospects of finding a job

in their home communities. These responses revealed the reality of economic conditions in rural areas.

Research Question # 4 What influence, if any, do personality traits have on career drifting?

Anxiety Variables

The literature review affirmed personality traits are a factor in describing the career indecisive individual with anxiety a trait expected to impact on this individual's career indecision. This section reports on the level of anxiety exhibited by this sample. Their self-reported level of anxiety was measured against the major career and vocational events of a person's life. Worthy of investigation was how participants rated their important academic and occupational decisions when compared to their self-rated ability to complete post-secondary programs and expected success in past and future efforts.

Of importance, were the situations and specific events that precipitate anxiety in individuals. Is there a difference in the manner in which respondents report experiencing anxiety? The following table shows the percentage of individuals in this study who agreed that they experienced anxiety.

Table 28
Percent agreeing they experienced
Anxiety in career events

<u>Career Event</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Making career decisions	72.8
Looking for a job	80.0
Making decisions about my future	71.1
Attending post-secondary institutions	67.1
Ability to do post-secondary programs	42.2
Never anxious about future	18.8
Can never make a mistake	3.4

There was a meaningful level of anxiety for a high number of respondents when considering career, life events, and educational decisions. Respondents reported a high level of anxiety while attending post-secondary institutions, yet fewer reported agreement that they were anxious about having the ability to complete their programs. Attending an institution seemed to be a greater anxiety invoking event than any concerns about their ability to complete the programs. In contrast, 89.1% of respondents (item 86) indicated enthusiasm about the future, 82.9% (item 87) were

enthusiastic about obtaining a future job. A majority of this sample reported anxiety, yet confirmed a high level of enthusiasm regarding their futures.

The following table presents the respondents' mean scores of anxiety experienced during major life events. This table provides for the comparison of post-secondary and employment events of respondents.

Table 29

Mean scores of level of Anxiety experienced by participants according to career and life event

<u>Career/life event</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
Making a career decision	2.86
Looking for a job	3.14
Making any decision	2.39
Anxiety attending post-secondary	2.46
Never worry about academic ability	2.75
Can never make a mistake	1.49
Enthusiastic about future	3.28
Enthusiastic finding a job	3.19

Respondents reported that the highest mean score of anxiety was encountered when looking for a job, perhaps a reflection of the labour market. The table

also showed that individuals present lower mean scores, but reported high levels of anxiety with career decision-making, with evaluating their academic ability and attending post-secondary institutions.

In contrast were the findings that respondents reported very high levels of enthusiasm about getting a job and about their future in general. This was dissimilar with their self-reported levels of anxiety, previous lack of success in attaining career and educational goals. This contradiction may be explained by the factor that their own and parents expectations of success lead to increased anxiety levels. This relationship will be further examined in their self-ratings of future academic endeavour.

Gender and Community Type

Exploring when anxiety is experienced provided one level of analysis. Of significance in examining the personality traits, were variances in anxiety when comparing male/female and rural/urban categories. Table 30 presents, by gender and community type, the comparison of the number of respondents who experienced anxiety to the level of enthusiasm for their future endeavours in academic and job efforts.

Table 30

Percent experiencing anxiety in decision and career events compared to level of enthusiasm for the future

<u>Career Event</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Making career decisions.	63.6%	58.8%	81.3%	60.0%
Seeking a job.	74.9%	71.9%	85.4%	71.4%
Never anxious about making a decision.	35.3%	34.4%	35.4%	36.4%
Attending a post secondary school.	64.6%	71.0%	56.3%	44.0%
Ability to do post secondary program.	55.8%	61.3%	60.8%	64.3%
Never anxious about my future.	17.3%	21.9%	18.8%	20.6%
Can never make a mistake in my life.	-	6.2%	2.1%	2.9%

Few notable differences were revealed by gender and community size. Rural residents reported they experienced anxiety to a greater degree than urban respondents when making a career decision, looking for

a job, and attending post-secondary institutions. Rural students faced a weaker economic base that presented other factors in their decision process, such as leaving home, costs, and entering a new environment.

Correlation of Anxiety Variables

A strong correlation of .613, existed between anxiety levels associated with making career decisions and looking for jobs. Enthusiasm about their future and about securing a job had a moderate correlation of .563. A moderate correlation of .395 was found between the factors of anxiety about making a decision and never worrying about the ability to complete post-secondary programs. This lower correlation may be explained by the nature of making an unspecified decision when compared to the specific nature of future education success. The level of enthusiasm about the future showed a moderate correlation of .407 against never worrying about the ability to complete post-secondary programs. A moderate reliability coefficient of .571 was given for this matrix.

Locus of Control Variables

Locus of control is another personality trait examined in the survey. How respondents related locus

of control to their previous academic and work environments was of interest to this investigator.

The following table presents the mean scores of how the respondents self-rated whether they consider themselves as exhibiting external or internal locus of control.

Table 31
Participants rating of Locus of Control factors

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
Jobs I had were due to luck	1.97
I depend on others in my decision-making	1.91
Seen as hard-working than competent	2.41
Others make decisions for me	1.54
Misfortunes/successes due to my efforts	2.94
I depend on my skills/abilities	3.09
Prefer a job where told what to do	2.08
Failing a job or course is my own doing	3.14
I can do anything I wish in the future	3.39
Events in my life seem beyond my control	1.86
Hard work leads to success	3.52

Table 31 indicated this group has rated themselves as having a high reliance upon hard work, their own

abilities, and acceptance of responsibility for the misfortunes/successes in their lives. The results suggested that respondents rate themselves as having an internal locus of control and the majority disagree they exhibit a dependence upon other people to make decisions for them. Low mean scores related to finding jobs due to luck and depending upon others in their decision-making displayed a strong level of self-reliance. High mean scores for respondents accepting the results of their efforts supported these findings. There was a very low mean for individuals' believing they can not control events in their lives, and they strongly think that hard work will lead to success.

This value may also be reflected in their dissatisfaction with their efforts in post-secondary programs and the evaluation they could improve their marks if they had tried. The mean scores suggested this population internalized the success and failure experiences in their lives.

Table 32 presents a comparison of gender and community factors for these same Locus of Control variables.

Table 32
Participants rating of Locus of Control factors
by gender and community type

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
Jobs due to luck.	25.4%	19.3%	27.1%	20.6%
Depend on others				
in decision-making.	23.1%	12.9%	17.0%	23.5%
Seen as hard-worker.	50.0%	31.0%	37.8%	51.5%
Others make decisions.	5.8%	3.1%	2.1%	8.8%
Success due my efforts.	84.6%	64.5%	78.2%	67.1%
Depend on my skills.	84.7%	87.8%	83.0%	90.5%
Prefer job where I				
am told what to do.	23.1%	21.9%	25.5%	20.0%
Failing a job or				
course is my doing.	84.7%	87.5%	89.3%	78.8%
Can do anything future.	96.1%	96.9%	95.8%	96.1%
Events beyond control.	22.7%	16.6%	21.7%	20.0%
Hard work means success.	96.2%	100%	97.9%	91.4%
Trust myself to decide.	96.1%	93.6%	91.7%	98.0%
Prefer job where I				
make own decisions.	78.9%	86.2%	76.1%	87.9%

Gender and community comparisons revealed that males and rural individuals reported a slightly higher dependence upon luck for finding jobs. Males exhibited a greater dependence upon others in their decision-making, while a greater ratio of females (48.4%) than males (25.0%), revealed a strong disagreement against this item. Males and urban respondents showed they prefer to be seen as hardworking than competent.

A higher percentage of males compared to females, reported agreement in accepting responsibility for their own misfortunes or successes, while rural residents reported a slightly higher level of agreement than their urban counterparts. Males reported a higher agreement for accepting responsibility for failure and rural more than urban respondents reported a slightly higher level of agreement on this variable.

Although the level of agreement is similar, females (45.8%) more than males (32.4%), reported a higher percent of strongly agree on the item they can be anything they wish in the future. This statement is consistent with internal Locus of Control, having a reliance upon self. Females (68.8%) more than males (50.9%) strongly agreed that hard work will lead to

success. There were moderate differences between gender and community size. The significant differences on the four point rating scale of strongly agree and agree between gender and community size factors have been presented in this table.

Correlation for Locus Of Control Variables

Table 33
Correlation matrix for rating of
Locus of Control factors

<u>Factor</u>									
Item#	70	77	80	84	112	113	117	130	131
70	1.00								
77	.45	1.00							
80	.23	.28	1.00						
84	.19	.42	.20	1.00					
112	.06	.13	.18	.07	1.00				
113	-.08	-.16	-.10	.01	.37	1.00			
117	.05	.21	-.01	.33	.08	.15	1.00		
130	.12	.02	.06	.12	.34	.27	-.03	1.00	
131	.06	-.11	-.02	-.12	.18	.26	-.17	.38	1.00

The correlation between variables 70 and 77, and 77 and 84 were moderate, indicating a relationship

between making their own decisions and obtaining jobs through their own efforts. The relationship between items 84 and 117 making their own decisions both on careers and on the job had a weak correlation, suggesting a link from post-secondary courses to the work environment they wish to have in the future.

There were weak negative correlations between some factors, particularly in comparing an individual's reliance upon their own abilities against depending upon other people in decision-making. Low negative correlations were observed when comparing job situations in which the worker is told what to do against accepting responsibility for failure in a course or job, and succeeding in anything an individual decides for the future.

The correlations from this matrix suggested a reliance upon internal control. Results indicated the respondents accept responsibility for their past performance and have a high reliance upon their own skills and abilities. The correlation between the items measuring this trait was moderate, with the questions relating to dependence on self compared to dependence on other showing the strongest statistical

significance. The full scale reliability coefficient for this matrix was 0.5639.

Self-Esteem Variables

Self-esteem is the third personality trait considered to influence career decision-making that was examined in this study. Table 34 provides the survey participants mean scores of this trait.

Table 34

Respondents' self-rated level of Self-Esteem

<u>Self-Esteem Variable</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
Not important for career decision to be made when leaving high school.	1.86
I feel like a failure if I don't complete a course.	2.51
I do not have a great deal of confidence.	2.14
I have little respect for myself.	1.47
Right now I do not feel confident.	2.02
I feel as worthy as other people.	3.33
In the past I never felt useless.	2.86

Individuals reported it was of little importance to have made a career choice when leaving high school.

There was a moderate level of agreement shown for having a feeling of failure when not completing a post-secondary course and a sense of feeling useless in the past. Despite a lack of success in the past, these individuals have retained respect for and a sense of worth about themselves. Their global rating of self-confidence indicated a fairly positive self-image. Respondents reported a moderate level of disagreement pertaining to having little or no confidence in themselves at the time of completing the survey.

Table 35
Participants' level of agreement
with Self-Esteem variables

<u>Self-Esteem variable</u>	<u>% Agreed</u>
Unimportant career decision made on leaving H.S.	24.7%
Feel a failure if I do not complete a course	47.6%
I do not have great deal of confidence	29.8%
I have little respect for myself	4.8%
Right now I don't feel confident	22.2%
I am at least as worthy as other people	96.4%
In the past I never felt useless	47.0%

These variables were isolated in the study and

have been formulated from the literature review. The results in Table 35 indicated little agreement was placed upon having a career decision made upon leaving high school. This occurrence was consistent with Fuqua and Hartman's (1983) description of the developmentally career undecided individual. Sharpe and Spain (1991) reported that 24.4% of those high school students in their study, intending to pursue post-secondary education, had not listed any program of study. Just over half had planned to continue education after high school. This pattern was consistent with the sample.

Almost half of the respondents reported agreeing with having a sense of failure if a post-secondary program was not completed, and there is a similar number who reported feeling useless in the past. A lack of confidence level for the participants had an agreement ratio of between $1/4$ and $1/3$, with the higher level suggesting a trait characteristic. In contrast with these results, respondents reported no loss of self-respect or sense of worthiness. This suggested that they have maintained some positive aspects of their self-concept.

These same self-esteem variables were examined by

gender and community type and shown in Table 36.

Table 36

**Participants' level of agreement with
Self-Esteem variables by gender and community type**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
unimportant for career				
decided on leaving H.S.	24.6%	25.1%	23.0%	28.6%
feel a failure if				
course not completed.	48.1%	46.9%	45.8%	53.0%
don't have a great				
deal of confidence.	23.1%	40.6%	34.1%	25.7%
have little respect				
for myself.	2.0%	6.3%	6.3%	2.3%
Right now I don't				
feel confident.	23.5%	20.0%	23.9%	21.2%
I am as worthy				
as other people.	100%	90.7%	93.7%	100%
in past I never				
felt useless.	50.0%	41.9%	53.2%	35.3%
I think I can do				
well in the future.	96.2%	100%	97.9%	97.1%

Females compared to males, reported a lower level

of self-confidence, as do rural when compared to urban respondents. A greater number of respondents reported a lower level of general confidence, when compared to their rating upon completing the questionnaire, with no gender or community differences being shown. Males reported a higher degree of feeling useless in the past, with rural responses (14.9%) higher (0.0%) than urban residents on this variable. No other significant gender or community differences are present in this table.

Correlation of Self-Esteem Variables

There was a strong correlation of .627 between the variables in which respondents disagreed with having little respect for self and having little confidence in themselves. The correlation between deciding on a career upon leaving high school and having a sense of failure for incomplete programs was a moderate .411. Moderate correlation of .430 was found on not having a career decision made upon leaving high school and self-esteem. However, there were weak correlations of .08 to .24 between the items measuring respect and confidence levels of the respondents against a sense of failure and past career decisions. The respondents

stated they have lost no respect for themselves and had a moderately strong level of confidence. Other ratings of the ability to complete post-secondary programs and future success had higher ratings than their confidence levels. The reliability coefficient for this matrix was .5892.

Research Question # 5 What influence, if any, do the factors of ability, personal aspirations and future expectations have on career drifting?

Personal Assessment of Ability

How individuals viewed their ability to complete post-secondary programs is a significant factor in career decision-making. Whether ability has a relationship with career drifting was particularly meaningful. The manner and degree to which an individual rates ability was believed to have an influence upon career decision-making. It was important to assess the ability factors as they may influence the personality traits that are deemed to contribute to career indecisiveness. The following table presents this group's mean scores for the self-rating of their academic ability in relation to future post-secondary efforts.

Table 37
Ability to complete post-secondary programs
by program type and duration

<u>Program Level</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
any post-secondary program you want to do	3.05
one year program at community college	3.75
two-three program at community college	3.46
university, Arts and Social Science	2.98
professional university, i.e. Engineering	2.46
difficult (1/2 of all people can do it)	2.43
very difficult (1/4 of people can do it)	2.24

This sample reported a strong agreement they have the ability to do community college programs. The more difficult a program, the lower the mean score of individuals who agreed they had the ability to complete it. This group demonstrated higher levels of agreement that they can complete programs up to the university level, however as their perceived ratings of the difficulty of a program increased, the self-rated ability to complete a program decreased. Self-rating of ability is lower when it was compared to level of difficulty and not the program type.

The influence of gender and community type characteristics are important as ability was examined. Table 38 presents the self-rated ability variables.

Table 38

Self-rated ability to complete post-secondary programs by program type, gender and community type

<u>Program Type</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
any program.	71.2%	81.3%	75.1%	76.5%
one year program.	100%	100%	100%	100%
2-3 year program.	92.2%	96.7%	89.3%	96.9%
university, Arts.	71.7%	72.4%	63.8%	84.9%
professional univ.	48.1%	55.1%	41.8%	56.8%
only do easy progs.	8.1%	6.6%	9.4%	5.9%
fairly difficult.	56.9%	54.9%	52.3%	59.8%
difficult program.	54.9%	41.1%	53.5%	44.1%
very difficult.	34.3%	40.0%	44.2%	24.3%

Females compared to males, had a higher agreement that they have the marks to enter any program they wish to enter. From the responses to item 106, females reported a higher agreement that they can do professional university programs, they also had a higher strongly agree rating (17.7) than males (7.1%)

on this ability factor. The only ability factor on which males responded with a higher percentage than females was the ability to complete difficult programs.

The findings suggested a relationship between community type and individual's rating of their ability to do two or three year community college programs and university programs. Urban residents (68.8%) had a higher percent of strongly agree than rural (48.9%) on the ability to complete two and three community college programs. Urban residents had significantly higher agreement on having the ability to complete both level of university programs. The converse was evident when comparing rural to urban respondents on the level of difficulty of programs.

Correlation of Ability Variables

The strongest correlation in this matrix was .749 and was shown in the relationship between the ability to do difficult and very difficult programs. A fairly strong correlation of .595 was shown between doing one year and two and three year community college programs. The correlation between the ability to do one year programs to both levels of university programs was significantly lower at .356 and .113 respectively. The

correlation between Arts/Social Science programs and Engineering was moderate at .506, perhaps indicating that respondents who rated their chances of success define whether that success was related to community college or university programs. A correlation of .394 was shown between the ability to complete undergraduate engineering and science programs when compared to the ability to complete the very difficult programs. There was a moderate relationship between difficulty of program and the respondents self-rated academic ability.

In this group the findings suggested relationship between their ability to do one year programs and willingness to attempt post-secondary programs. There was a willingness to attempt these programs more often than the perceived difficult ones. This was in contrast to the high mean scores when rating their ability to do a range of community college and university programs. There was evidence that the higher individuals rate their prospects of completing community college programs, the lower their expectations they can complete university programs, especially the university professional programs. This

matrix had a high .719 reliability coefficient.

Lower mean scores were reported when individuals rated their ability to complete perceived difficult programs. In contrast with the rating concerning having the required marks to enter a difficult program, respondents strongly indicated they had the required prerequisites to enter any program they wished. Ability to do programs was a strong factor in deciding what programs they will actually do. It appeared that such factors, more than ability and academic marks, influenced what programs they will attempt. These results may well be influenced by the experience of this group. It was interesting to note that almost 50% had attempted university programs and almost 30% had attempted two and three year technical programs. The lack of success may well have contributed to their opinions about the level of programs they could successfully complete.

Effort and Post Secondary Expectations

Effort and expectations were examined to observe if these antecedents exhibited any influence on career choice and career drifting. The following table presents the results of the respondents level of

agreement with the factors.

Table 39

**Level of effort and expectation of success in
post-secondary programs by gender and community type**

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
Expected to succeed in past programs.	90.2%	93.7%	97.9%	83.3%
Expect to succeed in future programs.	80.0%	96.8%	88.9%	82.4%
Not satisfied with effort past program.	57.1%	52.8%	51.1%	60.6%
Always do minimum amount of work.	15.4%	6.3%	10.5%	14.7%
Could improve marks from past programs	91.5%	79.3%	84.1%	90.0%

A high percentage maintained positive expectations for future post-secondary endeavours. Females compared to males, had a higher agreement that they had expectations of succeeding in past programs and female ratings were higher for future programs. Rural, compared to urban residents, reported a higher agreement that they expected to be successful in past

and future programs. Males, as well as urban students, reported a higher agreement of always doing the minimum amount of work. Male and urban students indicated to a greater degree that they could have improved their marks from previous programs.

Generally, females compared to males, reported having higher expectations, more satisfaction with past efforts, and a greater degree of effort at post-secondary institutions. Rural students reported higher expectations, more satisfaction with past effort, and displayed a greater effort. Urban respondents could have improved their marks to a greater degree than urban students. For all respondents expectations of past success were high and future expectations remain strong. However, over half were not satisfied with their past efforts and 90% thought they could improve their marks from previous programs. These results suggested that effort and commitment, not ability was the major factor in attempting post-secondary programs.

Effort and Marks in Post-secondary Institutions

The comparison of effort to marks in post-secondary was a valuable counter to self-rated ability and expectations. Table 40 presents this comparison.

Table 40

The relationship of effort to marks in
post-secondary programs, by gender and community type.

Program Marks	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Marks among the lowest.	2.1%	3.1%	4.3%	0.0%
Marks low, but not among the lowest.	14.6%	9.4%	6.4%	22.6%
Fairly good, not among the best.	47.9%	56.3%	53.2%	48.4%
Marks among the best in program.	35.4%	31.3%	36.2%	29.0%
Could improve marks in past programs.	91.5%	79.3%	84.1%	90.0%
Have marks for any program I wish.	71.2%	81.3%	75.1%	76.5%
Always do minimum amount of work.	15.4%	6.3%	10.5%	14.7%
Refuse to do just enough to get by.	61.6%	78.8%	67.1%	60.0%

The findings depicted individuals whose marks were fairly good and had expected to be successful in their

post-secondary programs. In contrast with this acknowledgement that they had fair to good marks, over 87% reported they could improve their marks from previous programs. There was a strong level of agreement relating to a lack of satisfaction with their efforts in post-secondary institutions. Other factors led to the voluntary termination of post-secondary programs. Almost 85% indicated their marks were fairly good or better, suggesting academic problems were not the reason they did not complete the programs they entered. This discrepancy suggested an over-rating of their marks, or more accurately, represented the lack of effort so many respondents reported.

The proportions shown in the table presented few differences in percentages responded by community type and gender. Rural residents reported a higher level of having marks in the lowest range. Females reported a higher level of effort and a refusal to just do enough work to get by. Males reported a higher number who always did the minimum of amount of work in post-secondary programs. Other factors are constant by gender.

Risk-taking aspirations

Table 41 presents the percent of agreement with risk-taking attitudes among survey participants.

Table 41**Risk-Taking attitude of participants**

<u>Risk-Taking Event</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
Take challenge even if I can fail.	90.4%	87.5%	91.7%	85.3%
Attempt comm. coll.	84.9%	87.1%	87.3%	82.8%
Attempt university degree.	64.1%	67.8%	63.8%	68.6%
Never leave job to attend school.	48.1%	45.2%	45.8%	51.5%
Worthwhile attend school in NFLD.	92.5%	96.9%	95.9%	91.2%
Stick with job for security.	50.0%	42.0%	40.0%	58.8%
Cannot make a mistake in my life.	-	6.2%	2.1%	2.9%
Keep job/salary over a challenging job.	9.4%	13.3%	6.4%	17.6%

Attempts at post-secondary programs were closely associated with the program level considered. The respondents qualified the type of challenge they will accept, despite the very high agreement with the statement. The risk-taking behaviour appeared also to be dependent upon an individual's self-rated ability to complete post-secondary programs.

Few gender and community type differences were shown for almost all factors in this table. The level of agreement relating to a willingness to attempt a university program was similar for both genders, more females (22.6%) than males (13.2%) strongly agreed with this item. A higher proportion of urban (58.8%) than rural (41.7%) residents reported a level of strongly agree on the worth of attending a post-secondary institution in Newfoundland. Urban, compared to rural residents, presented a greater level of agreement on sticking with a job solely for security and keeping a job and current salary over accepting a challenging job.

Generally little variation was observed between gender and community type on risk-taking behaviour. As with the rating of their ability, the willingness to

risk post-secondary education decreased with the duration and type of post-secondary program. Two items showed a moderate level of agreement, never leaving a job to attend school without a better job awaiting me and the willingness to stick with a job for security. The moderate level of agreement between these two items was expected in view of this group's past behaviour on leaving employment and post-secondary programs.

Research Question # 6 What organizational and institutional factors, if any, contribute to career drifting?

This research question was valid in the context of the age and work experience of this sample. Unlike many groups that have been studied, this group had a wide range of employment and educational experiences that would influence career decisions. This relationship of previous experience in the post-secondary environment to career drifting was important.

Post-secondary environment

The relationship of comfort level and satisfaction in the post-secondary environment provided an indication of how well the institution fit the personality of the individual and the influence the

environment had on the participant's effort and number of attempts in the post-secondary environment.

Table 42

**Participants' level of agreement on comfort level
with post-secondary environment**

<u>Institutional Factor</u>	<u>% Agreed</u>
Disliked going to post-secondary	12.0%
Not satisfied with previous effort	56.2%
Experienced anxiety	67.1%
Difficulty coping with anxiety	52.5%
Satisfied with environment	69.2%
Felt at home in post-secondary	73.2%
Had friends at post-secondary	96.4%
Felt lost most of the time	17.5%
Not as friendly as high school	59.5%

The findings reported that many of the respondents were reasonably comfortable with their post-secondary environments. One significant observation, almost 60% found the post-secondary atmosphere not as friendly as the high school environment. Over half reported they were not satisfied with their effort in previous programs. This was important in light of their strong

belief regarding having the ability and marks to complete most post-secondary programs. Despite almost all students reporting having friends in the post-secondary institutions they attended, some aspects of the post-secondary environment were not positive for 25 to 40 percent of respondents.

Slightly over 2/3 of this sample reported having experienced anxiety while attending post-secondary institutions. Previous tables have reported that these individuals did not demonstrate anxiety relating to their ability to complete post-secondary programs, nor did they show anxiety over the attending post-secondary institutions. Yet, over 1/2 of those who have experienced anxiety reported difficulty in coping.

These findings suggested that some features of the post-secondary environment had a greater influence on their decisions to leave prior to completing the programs. A significant portion, 30%, reported not being satisfied with the post-secondary environments of the institutions they attended. Later in Table 49, this investigator attempted to separate future expectations of completing programs from the level of comfort with the institutional environment.

Table 43

Participants' agreement on level of comfort with
post-secondary environment by gender and community type

<u>Institutional Factor</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Community Type</u>	
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Disliked going to post-secondary inst.	13.4%	9.7%	12.5%	11.8%
Not satisfied with previous effort.	57.1%	52.8%	51.1%	60.6%
Experienced anxiety at institution.	64.6%	71.0%	63.9%	73.4%
Difficulty coping with anxiety.	44.5%	61.5%	56.3%	44.0%
Satisfied with environment.	74.4%	61.3%	70.2%	65.5%
Felt at home.	75.1%	67.7%	71.7%	70.9%
Had friends there.	96.0%	96.9%	97.8%	93.7%
Felt lost most of the time.	20.4%	13.0%	19.2%	16.1%
Not as friendly as high school.	41.6%	36.7%	47.0%	45.1%

Table 43 showed the ratings of the institutional

experience of respondents and what variation existed by gender and community type categories. Females, compared to males, reported a slightly greater agreement that they experienced anxiety while attending post-secondary institutions and encountered a greater difficulty in coping with anxiety. Females also agreed they experienced a lower level of satisfaction and felt less at home in the post-secondary environment than males. Females reported slightly lower levels of agreement about feeling lost most of the time and finding the post-secondary institution not as friendly as high school.

Urban residents reported a higher level of not being satisfied with their previous efforts than rural counterparts. Urban respondents reported slightly higher agreement they experienced anxiety, however they reported having less difficulty coping with anxiety than rural students.

Research Questions # 7 Are the personality traits of a high anxiety level, low self-esteem and external locus of control present in the career drifter? What are the descriptors that emerge from the study?

Factor Analysis of Anxiety Variables

Table 44 further examines the anxiety levels of individuals through factor analysis of the survey.

Table 44

Factor matrix for Anxiety variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>%Variance</u>
Anxious about career decisions	.039	.885	-.102	33.0%
Anxious about seeking a job	.040	.879	.165	25.9%
Never worry about a decision	-.089	.101	.906	19.2%
Enthusiastic about my future	.901	-.055	.025	9.5%
Enthusiastic about getting a job	.837	.147	.106	6.4%
Never worry about academic ability	.439	-.073	.704	6.0%

The above table presents the Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix. The initial statistics reported that anxiety about making any career decisions had the highest variance at 33%, anxiety concerning seeking a job had the second highest percentage of variance at 25.9%, while never worrying about making a decision was next at 19.2%. The results depicted that anxiety plays a significant role in career decision-making.

Factor 1 had a high loading on the variables of enthusiasm about the present and the future. A strong loading was found on the variable of never worrying about their ability to complete future post-secondary courses.

Factor 2 has high loadings on the variables of feeling anxious about making career decisions and about seeking a job. It described an individual who experiences high levels of anxiety when confronted with career decision-making situations. Factor 3 had high loadings on the variables of never worrying about making a decision and a moderate loading on the variable never worrying about their ability to complete post-secondary programs.

Anxiety played a role in the survey participants approaches and strategies toward past and future career decisions. The findings suggested an individual, who in spite of past experiences and self-reported levels of anxiety, remains optimistic. Whether the level of anxiety is due to expectations and enthusiasm of future success and or past lack of success was an important consideration. The findings presented by the mean scores and factor matrix concluded that anxiety was

present in these individuals as a constant trait, as it was in contrast to their positive outlook on future training expectations and job prospects.

Factor Analysis of Locus of Control Variables

The following table provides further examination of the significance of this trait in indecisiveness.

Table 45

Factor matrix for Locus of Control Variables

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	%Variance
Jobs I had were due to luck	.004	.726	.045	22.3%
Depend on others to make a decision	.035	.624	.471	20.4%
Be competent than hardworking	.066	.667	.471	13.7%
Other people make decisions for me	.054	.309	.686	9.8%
Success/misfortunes depend on ability	.704	.085	.154	8.2%
Depend on my own abilities/skills	.691	-.348	.178	7.4%
Want job where I'm told what to do	.063	-.060	.760	6.9%
Fail at a course or job, my own doing	.731	.193	-.123	6.4%
Be what I want, if others disagree	.559	.075	-.508	4.9%

The items used in Table 45 were used to measure the respondents dependence upon internal or external factors in career decision-making. Based upon the work of Rotter (1982), the variables are deemed appropriate to measure Locus of Control as they examine the individual's dependence upon self or other persons and events in their lives. The factors selected assessed whether individuals' assign responsibility for their actions to their own attributes or to factors they perceived they can not control or influence.

In Table 45, this Varimax Rotated Matrix showed that factor 1 had high loadings on the variables that failure in a job or course is my own doing, most of my misfortunes or successes were a result of my skills and abilities, and having a dependence upon their own abilities. This factor represented the importance these traits held for this group as they go about career decision-making strategies.

Factor 2 had a high loading on the variable any jobs found were due to luck; and moderate loadings on the variable of dependence upon other people to help them make a decision; and on rating competence is more important than being viewed as hardworking. These

variables illustrated that a significant factor for respondents was how they view luck and chance in securing employment. There was a low negative loading of $-.348$ on the variable of individuals having a dependence upon their own abilities. This factor was seen as important, but earlier results would suggest that luck was not seen as a factor in securing employment or in academic success.

Factor 3 had a high loading on the variable having a job in which the boss tells me what to do and a moderate loading on having other people make decisions for me. There was a moderate negative loading on the variable that a person can be what they want to be, even in the face of opposition from other people. The moderate positive loadings confirmed that the variables of dependence upon other individuals, job situations where others tell me what to do and controlling my own future are important considerations in decision-making. As dependence upon others increases, it verified that the self-rated assessment of their abilities decreased.

The variable of obtaining jobs solely due to luck accounted for the largest percent of variance in the matrix. The variable of having a dependence upon other

people to help me make decisions was the second largest, while preferring to be seen as competent rather than as hard-working, was third. Variables such as other people make decisions for me and my misfortunes and successes were a result of my own efforts and abilities accounted for the remaining percent.

The locus of control factor exerted a strong influence on career decision-making. Earlier results identified that this sample has self-reported an internal locus of control, a strong dependence upon their own skills and abilities. The factor analysis bears out the relationship of this trait. Locus of control for this group was an important component of their career decision-making approach.

Factor Analysis of Self-Esteem Variables

The following table provides a further evidence of how these respondents view themselves. Self-esteem represents the part of self-concept in which the individual self-evaluates him or her against success factors. This construct represents the evaluative and emotional dimensions of the self and is one the individual usually makes and retains about their own

capability and ability.

Table 46

Factor matrix for Self-Esteem factors

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>%Variance</u>
Not important for career decided on leaving school	.046	.261	.974	46.2
Failure when not complete program	.121	.963	.224	30.3
Have little respect for self	.906	.011	.062	14.1
Right now I don't feel confident	.881	.174	.012	9.4

Factor 1 had a high loading on the variable of having little respect for myself and accounted for 14.1 per cent of the variance in this matrix. The variable of their level of confidence at the time of completing the questionnaire, also had a high loading. However it accounted for 9.4 per cent of the variance, a lower total than the respect for self variable.

Factor 2 had a high loading on the variable of having a feeling of failure in not completing a course, and accounted for 30.3 per cent of the variance.

Factor 3 had a high loading on the variable of placing little importance to have a career decision

made upon leaving high school. This variable had 46.2 per cent of the variance in the matrix. The matrix reaffirmed the importance of self-image for these individuals. There was a significant level of importance placed upon a positive view of self for this population. In light of the suggestion that positive responses to self-esteem items are defensive, caution is warranted as persons may respond positively to protect their own image and not admit to negative feelings concerning previous efforts in school and work.

Research Question # 8 Are there a few explicit variables that explain career drifting or is there a discernable pattern?

Future Expectation of Success

The variables examined in this study are viewed to have contributed to the career drifting of the survey group. This sample has had multiple post-secondary attempts and job quits since completing high school. Table 47 compared the variables that related to their experience and lack of success in past post-secondary programs to their perception and self-rating of academic ability. Their expectation of the outcome of

future post-secondary attempts was also examined.

Table 47
Factor matrix of self-rated ability and
expectations of academic success

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>%Variance</u>
Ability for 1 year program	.217	.794	-.163	33.6%
Ability for 2/3 year program	.106	.851	.028	15.8%
Ability for Arts Social Sciences	.023	.645	.499	13.7%
Ability for Univ Professional Prog	.381	.271	.733	9.1%
Know own ability & interest to decide	.709	.310	-.036	8.5%
Depend upon own abilities/skills	.232	.235	-.713	6.5%
Expect to succeed in future course	.803	.130	.147	5.4%
Expected to succeed in past courses	.593	.029	-.120	4.1%
Never worry about ability for post- secondary	.730	.041	.060	3.2%

The variables of the individual's self-assessment of their ability to complete different levels of academic programs was one of the important factors in this group's decision pattern. The Varimax Rotated

Matrix showed factor 1 having a high loading on the variables of expecting to be successful in future programs, never worrying about ability to complete future programs, and knowing their own abilities well enough to decide on a future career.

Factor 2 had high loading on the variables of their self-assessed ability to complete community college level programs and university Arts programs.

Factor 3 had a high positive loading on variable of the ability to complete professional university programs and a high loading on the variable that showed a dependence on their own abilities. This suggested that the respondents confidence in their ability decreased when faced with advanced university programs.

The variable the ability to complete a one year Community College course accounted for the largest percent of variance, the ability to complete a two or three year program accounted for the next largest, and the ability to complete university programs and professional university programs accounts for a fairly significant percent. The ability to complete various levels of post-secondary programs accounted for 72.3 % of the variance in this matrix.

Their self-assessment of expected success in future programs, while having high mean scores, accounted for the lesser percentages of variance in this matrix. The findings suggested that the type and length of a program and the type of institution, were greater influences on post-secondary academic choices than the individual's perception of expected success.

The Factor Coefficient Matrix displayed a low negative relationship with the variables of completing programs to the level of general University programs to the professional degrees. Factor 2 had moderate coefficients of .436 and .476 with completing one year and two-three year community college programs. Factor 3 had a moderate coefficient of .519 with variable completing professional university programs and a negative moderate coefficient of $-.558$ with the variable of dependence upon their own abilities.

The factor matrix supported the concept that the program type was a greater influence on career drifting than the self-assessment of ability and future success.

Self-rated level of ability

Another variable that suggested a contribution to career drifting is the ability to do various levels of

post-secondary programs. The following table presents the finding of a matrix examining the respondents self-rated abilities against various levels of post-secondary programs.

Table 48

**Factor matrix on the variables of
ability and program type**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>%Variance</u>
Have marks to enter any program I want	.582	.092	.315	37.1
Ability for 1 year program	.900	-.061	.010	24.4
Ability for 2-3 year program	.785	.021	.214	12.4
Ability for Arts/ Social Sciences	.350	.033	.770	10.2
Ability for Univ Professional Prog	.087	.215	.860	7.1
Ability to do difficult program	.079	.938	-.001	5.1
Able to do very difficult program	-.058	.873	.278	3.8

Factor 1 had a very high loading on the ability to do a one year community college program and a high loading on the ability to do a two-three community college program. The loadings on factor 1 decreased with the increasingly difficult levels of post-

secondary programs.

Factor 2 had high loadings on the ability to do difficult (half of all people could do the program) and very difficult (one quarter of all people could do the program). The inverse of Factor 1 was evident here, as the loadings decreased when matched against less advanced post-secondary programs.

Factor 3 had high loadings on the variables of completing an undergraduate university degree and completing a professional degree program. This matrix confirmed earlier findings that the level of post-secondary programs influenced how these respondents view their prospects of success. The variable of having the entrance requirements to enter any program I want had a moderate loading on Factor 1. However, it accounted for the largest percent of variance. The community college programs accounted for higher percent of variance and the ratio decreased when compared to more advanced programs.

Table 48 presented a view that these respondents rated themselves very highly on having the ability to do any program they want. What was not defined here is whether they think they have the entrance requirements

to enter all available post-secondary programs or only the ones in which they would be interested. The earlier results and this matrix depicted the findings that as the level and difficulty of post-secondary programs increase, ratings of their ability to complete programs decreased. The influence of previous attempts at post-secondary programs did not appear to be a factor in considering future training.

These respondents have indicated moderate to high marks in their past endeavour, however a significant number reported they were not satisfied with previous efforts and that their marks could be improved from previous courses.

In Factor 1 moderate coefficients of .561 and .432 were found between the ability to complete one year and two - three year programs. Factor 1 has strong to moderate coefficients of .614 and .500 between the variables of ability to a difficult and a very difficult program. The variables of the ability to complete Arts and Social Science programs compared to the professional programs had moderate coefficients of .539 and .652. The findings supported the judgment that the level of the post-secondary program was a

factor in their decision-making.

Relationship of Institutional experience and success

Experience with institutional factors contributed to this pattern of career drifting. Earlier tables suggested the post-secondary environment influences the individual's decision to voluntarily leave programs. The following Varimax Rotated Matrix presents the respondents view of future expectations relating to academic success against their comfort level in the institutions participants previously attended.

Table 49

**Factor matrix on future expectations of success
compared to the comfort level in previous programs**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	<u>%Variance</u>
Expect to succeed in future course	.769	.190	.137	44.2
Will obtain job matches abilities	.843	.110	-.016	21.3
Satisfied with post sec. environment	.861	.920	-.106	14.1
Felt at home in post sec. environment	.172	.894	.150	8.1
Had friends at post sec. institutions	.177	.086	.969	7.6
Felt lost at post sec. institutions	.781	.079	.231	4.7

Factor 1 had a high loading on the variable of obtaining a job in the future that will match their abilities. as well as for the level of satisfaction with their post-secondary environment. High loadings were presented for the level of satisfaction with the post-secondary environment and a sense of feeling lost at post-secondary institutions these individuals attended. Positive expectations about obtaining a job had the second highest percent of variance. A high loading was shown on how individuals rated their expectations of success in future courses, however this accounted for the greatest percent of variance among the variables.

Factor 2 has a high loadings on the level of satisfaction and feeling at home with the post-secondary environment. This variable appeared consistent with earlier results in which satisfaction with their efforts in post-secondary institutions was low and was confirmed to be an important factor in future career decisions.

Factor 3 had a high loading on the variable feeling at home in post-secondary institutions. This variable as well as level of comfort were important

factors for this sample.

The factor analysis supported the importance of how respondents viewed their post-secondary environment. While high loadings were presented on comfort levels of this sample, the amount of variance was greatest when examining their expectations of future success. These factors of personal comfort would appear to have contributed little to their career indecision in view of the positive ratings of the post-secondary environments. Factors that may have contributed to these ratings are: feeling homesick, unsuitable program choice, and lack of interest. The results confirmed that the level of and difficulty coping with anxiety, the different atmosphere of the post-secondary institutions compared to high school, and ability to complete different level of programs were influences on career drifting.

As previous tables have shown, negative work experience appeared to contribute to career drifting. Individuals who had not had intrinsic rewards throughout their employment history may search through the job market and post-secondary institutions for a niche that will satisfy their career goals. When

salary levels did not meet their expectations, the lack of intrinsic rewards, and perceived lack of any value in jobs provided a work environment in which there little attraction for the worker to remain.

Research Question # 9 What variables if any, influence career indecisiveness and does this concept match the definition of career drifting?

Variables That Influence Career Drifting

The results reported in this chapter present the findings of the data obtained from the self-report questionnaires of a sample of Newfoundland youth and young adults.

A higher percentage of males than females and rural than urban students comprised the sample for this study. Lack of work experience and information concerning post-secondary programs was a deficit for 1/3 of the respondents, while over 90% indicated they knew their own abilities well enough for effective decision-making. Lack of occupational and institutional knowledge is cited by Hartman and Fuqua (1983) as a more common trait of chronically undecided than chronically indecisive individuals.

The analysis of previous work experience suggested

a contribution to career drifting, with males and urban respondents reporting a higher prevalence of quitting jobs. The ratings of work experience indicated that respondents did not receive the intrinsic rewards they wished, while interpersonal relationships, effort, and enjoyment of going to work indicated a higher level of agreement between participants.

Parental influence and community factors appeared to contribute to career drifting. The findings depicted a slightly greater level of support and encouragement from mothers than fathers. Parental value in education and interest in their children's secondary and post-secondary efforts was rated as strong by respondents.

Some aspects of the post-secondary environment appeared to contributed to career drifting. Those aspects were the difference of the post-secondary environment from high school and comfort levels were deemed to be important considerations in the decision to leave post-secondary programs.

Personal aspirations, ability, and effort were found to be factors in career change. Risk taking appeared to be low to moderate, as willingness to

attempt post-secondary programs was determined not by their self-rated ability, but by the perceived difficulty of the post-secondary program. Respondents appeared to be more comfortable with their past effort in employment than in post-secondary education.

Summary

The findings supported the concept that career drifting, as defined in this study, was consistent with the definition of career indecisiveness, (Fuqua, Blum and Hartman, 1988; Hartman and Fuqua, 1983; Hartman, Fuqua and Blum, 1985; Salomone, 1982; Seppich, 1987; Serling & Betz, 1990; Slaney, 1989). That personality traits were factors in career drifting was supported by the findings in this study, however only for high levels of anxiety and low self-esteem. Low self-esteem was reported to have been influenced by previous post-secondary program incompletions and job quits.

The participants self-rating of anxiety levels suggested the presence of trait rather than state anxiety. A high level of agreement was found for specific career events and non-specific anxiety about the future. Gender and community type differences were evident for females and rural respondents who agreed

they experienced anxiety in post-secondary institutions and encountered difficulty in coping with anxiety.

In contrast to the research that claimed career indecisive individuals are externals, this group was found to have an internal locus of control. The findings displayed a reliance upon their own skills and abilities, acceptance of the consequences for their actions, and the contention they control the events in their lives. Gender and community type differences were evident. Females and rural students displayed a higher agreement that they are more hardworking and more confident they can achieve success in the future.

The findings indicated the self-esteem level of this group to be moderately low and has contributed to chronic career changing, however it has not reduced their self-respect nor their perception that they will do well in the future. The level of expectation of success in future post-secondary programs was only slightly lower than that of past post-secondary efforts. Associated with self-esteem was the risk-taking attitude of respondents. There was a high level of agreement among respondents concerning their willingness to accept risks, however that willingness

decreased with the perceived difficulty of the education or employment situation. This factor of the perceived or actual level of difficulty was especially a determinant in the type of programs attempted at post-secondary institutions.

Chapter V

Discussion of Results and

Recommendations for Further Research

Discussion of the Results

This study is part of a larger research project being conducted by the Development of Distance Career Counselling, Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland. Cahill (1991) defined the goals of the distance education approach as developing a preventive program to assist individuals in positive career decision-making.

Defining the career drifter from the literature on decision-making and career indecisiveness, this investigator attempted to profile and identify characteristics of the "career drifter" in this province. Using a sample of high school graduates with a minimum combination of three occupational or educational changes since leaving high school, allows for the analysis of data from a specific group with similar work, educational and age characteristics. This study examines the personality traits, aspirations, parental and community factors of individuals who have had multiple career changes.

With the self-report survey approach, response tendency is a consideration when analysing the data obtained in this study. Researchers have devoted little attention to response tendency when using survey techniques (Sabourin & Coallier, 1991). These same authors state that response tendency "specifically the relationship between social desirability and estimates of career indecision have not been systematically studied." (p. 69). Reporting on studies of Paulhus (1984, 1986), Sabourin and Coallier (1991) suggest that response tendency clusters around two factors that can be interpreted as self-deception and impression management. Self-deception may reflect the denial of disapproving thoughts about self and are a means of protecting against painful thoughts. Impression management is related to positive self-representations to other people.

In their study, Sabourin and Coallier (1991) found "the correlations of psychological distress, vocational certainty, and career indecision with self-deception scores did not significantly differ." (p. 74). Self-deception and impression management were found not to be significant predictors of career indecision.

However participants variance and psychological distress were found to account for six and twelve percent of the variance in career indecision. Their findings suggest that vocational certainty and career indecision are related to self-deception and impression management, although with small to moderate correlations. They report their results must be tempered with the findings that the amount of variance of psychological distress is greater than self-deception and impression management.

Using the results of these authors' study suggesting a greater impact of psychological factors, such as anxiety, rather than social desirability on career indecision, the findings of this study can be reported with some level of confidence. The interpretations would be tempered with the suggestion that self-report response styles of participants have some minimal influence on results obtained.

Community Type and Gender Characteristics

Overall, the survey sample had a larger rural (n=49) to urban (n=36) proportion, with a representation from all areas of the province. A greater percent of females than males resided in rural

communities while attending high school, and conversely a higher representation of males than females lived in urban communities.

Almost two thirds of the sample used in this study was male (n=53), compared to females (n=32). This resulted in a fewer number of females in both urban and rural categories. There was a greater variation of females between categories than males. The sample of males more closely resembled the ratio of the sample by gender and community type than females.

Age Characteristics

The age range of the sample is 21 to 30 years of age. Almost two thirds of the respondents are 25 years of age or less. A slightly higher proportion of females than males is over the age of 25 years.

The highest number of males is in the 23 years of age grouping, followed by age 22. The highest number of females was in the 22 years of age grouping, followed by ages 24 and 26. In the over 25 years of age groupings, both genders had the highest number of respondents at 30 years of age. Participants aged 29 years (males) and 28 years (female) were not represented in the survey sample.

The age category in this sample corresponds to the number of years since leaving high school. The majority of both genders have a minimum of five years out since leaving the secondary school system.

Work Experience of Respondents

Results from this study indicate that a majority of respondents (2/3) had some work experience while attending high school. While predominately part-time or summer employment, it still introduces students to the work environment. Sharpe and Spain (1991), in their study of the 1989 high school senior class in Newfoundland, found similar results. Previous participation in the labour force for this sample would contribute to career decision-making upon leaving high school. Females compared to males, report almost twice the percentage of no work experience, as did rural students. The type of work experience while attending high school is predominantly summer jobs, by a 5 to 1 ratio when compared to part-time employment for both sexes and community type.

Individuals in this study report a low to moderate level of agreement that their previous work experience was positive. Respondents do not report a positive

match between interests, competencies, intrinsic values and rewards, supporting Gottfredson and Holland (1990) that job quitting is an outcome of this absence of congruence.

Post high school work history shows a close ratio of full-time jobs by gender and community type. Females report a higher ratio of part-time jobs than males, as do rural respondents. Males report a much higher level of quitting full-time jobs than do females, as do urban compared to rural students of both genders.

This sample indicates a strong agreement that they did not obtain the intrinsic value or desired salary in previous employment. For females compared to males, salary, interest in the job, and value of a job are lower. Urban students may place a higher value on intrinsic values as this group reports a higher level of dissatisfaction with these factors than their rural counterparts. Few differences are reported by gender and community type for the reasons they would accept a job, with rural students reporting a higher level of agreement with accepting employment just to qualify for unemployment insurance benefits.

Factor analysis indicates that these individuals would be reluctant to leave employment for post-secondary programs, yet a pattern of quitting jobs is evident for this group. These results suggest that lack of interest, lack of advancement, low income levels, and job dissatisfaction in previous employment is related to the number of attempts at post-secondary institutions in an effort to secure better job prospects. This negative rating of previous work experience can be a predictor of repeated attempts at post-secondary programs and job changes.

Post-secondary Education

The participants in this study have a higher rate of high school completion than their parents, but lower post-secondary attainment. Two thirds of the sample is 25 years of age and under, and half of both genders attempt their first post-secondary program the same year they leave high school. Byrne (1990) reports a higher ratio of drop-outs (79%), 25 years of age and under from the Cabot Institute during the 1989/90 school year. The findings of this study and the Cabot study, suggest that while career drifting decreases after age 25, it continues through academic programs

and employment in later years to age thirty. These findings do not support Crites (1983), who claims that the career indecisive individual could not be defined as someone under the age of 25. It supports Fuqua and Hartman (1983) in their contention that career indecisiveness is a trait that appears prior to age 25, and Kanchier and Unruh (1988) that age thirty can be a transition period for adults.

Attempts at post-secondary programs are similar for both genders, with one quarter of males and one third of females attempting their second and third programs more than six years after leaving high school. This would suggest that dissatisfaction with the jobs they have held contribute to the effort to find more personally acceptable jobs through post-secondary education. With an average of over 2 programs attempted and only 10% completed, it is an immense waste of time, effort, finances and resources for the individuals in this study.

Family Characteristics

The occupational profile of survey participants and their parents are dissimilar. Females have a much higher participation rate in the labour force than

their mothers, while participation rates are similar for males and their fathers. Overwhelmingly, participants of either gender do not want the same career paths as their parents. Females and urban respondents report a higher ratio of their fathers working full-time, with little evidence of part-time work for either category.

Participants of both genders report that mothers, compared to fathers, have a higher ratio of full-time work and a higher proportion of rural mothers than fathers worked on a full-time basis. An equal percent of urban mothers and fathers work on a full-time basis, the only category in which these results were found.

These findings suggest that the parents work history contribute significantly to decision-making. This finding is in agreement with Splete and Freeman-George (1985) and Herr and Cramer (1989) that parents occupations can influence career decisions. As Lopez and Andrews (1987) indicate, parents can be motivators for their children's career plans and this group's desire for different career aspirations than their parents may contribute to career indecisiveness as displayed by repeated job and academic changes.

Females more than males report their father's had less than grade nine education, but also that fathers' attained a higher ratio of post-secondary diplomas and degrees. Urban compared to rural respondents indicate a significantly higher level of high school and post-secondary completion. Similar comparisons are found for the mothers' educational attainment by gender and community type. Females and rural students are more likely to attempt post-secondary programs similar to those of their parents.

The data indicate a very strong parental support for respondents high school and post-secondary efforts. A high percentage of parents in this study agree that post-secondary education is important and they display support for their children's efforts in both high school and post-secondary institutions. Moderate differences in the level of support of their children's post-secondary education plans from mothers compared to fathers are evident, similar to the findings of the Spain and Sharpe (1991) study.

Rumbolt (1990) reports that while all post-secondary students in his study received higher levels of support from mothers than fathers, even drop-outs

receive a high level of support from mothers/guardians. Non-persisters report lower level of support from fathers, but percentages of support from both parents are similar in the drifter study and Rumbolt's (1990).

The correlations presented in the survey findings would suggest that the level of parental support is an important consideration in career indecision. Strong correlations exist between parental support, especially the father, and indecisiveness. The very strong correlation between the lack of support from high school guidance counsellors and those who exhibit career drifting is supported by Rumbolt's findings in his study on non-persisters. Rumbolt (1990) also reports that more non-persisters in his study indicate parents (73%) do not consider graduation from post-secondary institution as important. This differs from the results in this investigation, as parents universally thought post-secondary education is important.

The perceived level of financial support is consistent for those students who had siblings attend institutions before them. Although data on the dollar amount of financial support provided to respondents

compared to their siblings was not gathered, the evidence that repeated post-secondary programs were attempted would suggest finances were not a concern of this sample. The number of voluntary job quits would suggest that personal reasons had more effect than monetary concerns when leaving employment.

Personality Traits

Anxiety

The results suggest that personality traits do influence career decision-making and indecision. The results indicate that the majority of individuals in the sample experience anxiety in decision-making, both of a specific and non-specific nature. Supporting Sabourin and Coallier's (1991) findings, ungeneralized anxiety may be of moderately greater influence in career indecision than that associated with a specific event, as this group rate a higher level of anxiety about the future than specific career and educational events. This would suggest trait rather than state anxiety and supports the research of Haag-Muller, 1986; Hartman & Fuqua, 1987; Moore, Jensen & Hauck; and Serling & Betz, 1990. Hartman (1990) and Johnson (1990) identify Sondra as a career indecisive

individual, evidenced by high levels of anxiety that contributed to her haphazard job search approach. This anxiety appears to contribute to the inability to make career plans and can be a predictor of career indecision.

Only in rating anxiety concerning their ability and attendance at post-secondary institutions do gender differences show as females compared to males, rate themselves slightly higher in these traits. Rural differences are evident when individuals rate anxiety related to making career decisions and seeking a job.

Despite high self-reported anxiety levels, individuals also report high levels of enthusiasm about the future. This response style is suggested to be a form of self-deception (Sabourin & Coallier, 1991). Moderate to strong correlations exist between anxiety levels and career and vocational decision-making. Low correlations exist between anxiety levels and enthusiasm for the future, suggesting that trait anxiety may be present despite the individual's optimistic view of the future.

Factor analysis and the amount of variance suggests that anxiety contributes to career indecision.

High self-reported levels of anxiety are present in this sample. It may be a factor in students leaving the Cabot Institute, as (Byrne, 1990) reports that the majority of students self-terminate in the first two months of a program, before an evaluation of their academic ability can accurately be formed.

A meaningful number of students investigated in this study state they experienced difficulty in coping with anxiety, a possible predictor of career indecision. While Rumbolt (1991) states that rural students in both university and colleges experience stress and this could not be used as predictor of persistence, he indicates that difficulty coping with stress may be a predictor of career indecision. In this drifter study, females and rural students report greater difficulty in coping with anxiety.

Locus of control

Participants in this study, generally report an internal Locus of Control, displaying a dependence upon their own skills and abilities. One quarter assign their lack of success to external factors, while only a few rate events in their lives beyond their control. Academically, many rate their ability highly and

indicate they could have improved their marks in post-secondary institutions. Correlations are moderate between the locus of control variables, and generally do not support the findings of the previous researchers reported here (Hartman, Fuqua & Blum, 1983; Larson and Heppner, 1985; Taylor & Popma, 1990). This result on the locus of control variable is consistent with the findings of Sharpe and Spain, (1991). High school seniors in their study exhibit a strong degree of internal locus of control with respect to finding jobs and career plans when leaving high school.

Factor analysis of the Locus of Control variable signifies the importance of this trait in decision-making, but confirms that this sample self-reports an internal locus of control. Little importance is placed on luck in employment or academics, but as the level of dependence upon others increases, the reliance upon self decreases. However Cabral and Salomone (1990) suggest that internal locus of control individuals are more likely to select occupations based on intrinsic values, while externals would rely more on luck or chance. The results in this study support this view, but does not confirm the view of Hartman, Fuqua & Blum,

(1983), Larson and Heppner, (1985) and Taylor & Popma, (1990) that external locus of control is a personality trait of the career indecisive individual or the career drifter as defined in this study.

Self-esteem

The findings on self-esteem suggest this personality trait influences career indecision. Three quarters of respondents declare little importance to having a career decision made upon leaving high school. Sharpe and Spain (1991) declare that 55% of high school students in their study do not plan to continue with training or education in the year immediately after leaving high school.

Almost half of respondents indicate they feel like a failure or have felt useless in the past. This factor relates to the assessment of Chiu (1990) and Stein, Newcomb and Bentler (1990) that an individual's self-esteem stems from the degree and manner in which they evaluate themselves.

Results suggest that the failure experience may lead to lower self-esteem and can be a predictor of career drifting. This supports the findings that low self-esteem does contribute to career indecisiveness in

the research conducted by (Hartman, 1990; Kinnier, R. T., Brignan, L. S., & Nobel, F. C., 1990; Mooney, Sherman and LoPresto, 1991; Robbins, 1987).

The failure experience, while contributing to lower self-esteem, also appears to contribute to lower levels of self-confidence. Despite over 75% of participants stating they plan to return to post-secondary institutions, confidence levels among this group are moderate, with 1/4 to 1/3 reporting a low level of confidence.

Factor analysis suggests that having little respect for self is a significant predictor of career indecisiveness and levels of self confidence, supporting Hartman (1990) and Pontius (1990). The only significant differences in the self-esteem variables are those in which fewer females and urban respondents report feeling useless about themselves.

Ability and post-secondary efforts

Not surprisingly, results suggest that as the perceived difficulty of post-secondary programs increases, self-reported ability to complete post-secondary programs decreases. However, the majority (85%) of students report their marks in post-secondary

institutions to be good or very good. This is supported by Byrne (1990) in that academic drop-outs from the Cabot Institute were 27.9% of total drop-outs. Sharpe and Spain (1991) report that 80% of high school seniors indicate their marks were good or among the best. The post-secondary completion rate appears to depend upon factors other than marks, as academically, students in these studies cited, report a high level of marks in both secondary and post-secondary institutions.

The self-ratings of subjects in this study are even higher when compared against Community College programs. The ability to do various levels of post-secondary programs appears to be a predictor in career indecision. Factor analysis of this group's ability to do future post-secondary programs supports this view, suggesting that the difficulty of the program and commitment to complete a program, Byrne (1990), can be a predictor of career indecisiveness.

The relationship of effort in employment compared to educational pursuits offers interesting results. A greater percentage of respondents report satisfaction with their effort in employment than in academic work.

A large majority of individuals indicate they could improve marks from their previous programs. The amount of effort in employment and education appears to be a predictor of drifting in careers. Some gender differences emerge, as females rate their ability to do technical diplomas, university degrees and very difficult programs slightly higher than males. This finding is in contrast with the attempted type of programs, as females attempt a lower percent of university programs than males. This suggests that self-esteem is a greater predictor of indecision than ability. Urban respondents deem themselves better able to do university programs than the rural sample, but less able to do difficult and very difficult programs than rural respondents.

Person-environment fit

Results of the level of comfort with post-secondary institutions suggest that experiencing anxiety in post-secondary institutions is a significant factor in decisions to leave post-secondary programs. It appears that the level of anxiety and the difficulty handling that anxiety can be a predictor of career indecision. A significant number of students

experience anxiety and difficulty coping with that anxiety.

Almost one third of students in this sample indicate some level of dissatisfaction with the post-secondary environment, with almost 42% finding it not as friendly as high school. Byrne (1990) reports similar findings, with almost one third of drop-outs saying they would never return to the Cabot Institute, while a similar number indicated they would have appreciated additional information about the post-secondary environment before starting their programs.

The factor analysis in this investigation suggests that the presence of friends and a sense of feeling at home in post-secondary institutions may not be factors in career drifting. These results support the findings of Rumbolt (1990) in that these variables vary little among persisters and non-persisters. Features of the post-secondary environment that may contribute to indecisiveness are coping with anxiety, lack of satisfaction with the post-secondary environment, and the difference in the atmosphere of post-secondary institutions from high school. Rumbolt (1990) reports higher levels of dissatisfaction among non-persisters

than persists in his study. Byrne (1990) suggests a rapid disillusionment with the post-secondary environment contributes to dropping-out, as 57% of self-terminations at Cabot Institute occurred in the first two months of a program, after students have endured a two-three year wait for acceptance into programs at the institution.

Of relevance is the finding that almost one third of respondents do not have the required occupational and institutional information with which to make a structured career decision. These results are significantly better than Byrne (1990) reports on students at Cabot Institute, where 80% report not having the necessary occupational and program information on which they could make academic and career decisions. Spain and Sharpe (1991) report that 32.3% to 86.7% of high school seniors in the 1989 class had no form of contact with the institutions they were considering attending. While information on post-secondary programs is important, according to Byrne (1990), a significant request for many individuals is having more information on the institutional environment they would attend.

Conclusions

The literature review recognised the absence of previous research pertaining to the term "career drifter". The association of the work on career indecision and the career indecisive individual to career drifting allowed the comparison of results from previous research to the findings of this study. The findings on the personality traits examined in this study suggest that high levels of anxiety may provide the best evidence of career indecision and career drifting than other personality traits, a view which Fuqua and Hartman (1983) support. An external locus of control is not evident in this group, however, low self-esteem is reported by respondents. Low self-esteem does not appear to be related to self-reported ability or marks in high school and post-secondary institutions, but to the failure experience associated with incomplete programs and voluntary job quits.

Work experience and an individual's rating associated with this factor appear to influence career drifting. Negative attitudes and lack of rewards and opportunity in employment may contribute to the constant job changing, even in a dismal economy such as

in this province. The desire for intrinsic rewards in employment suggests that this factor is valued by this group.

The comparison of parental and community variables suggest parents exert a stronger influence on career decision-making of this group than any other individuals. The occupational background and educational levels of parents are variables that contribute to career choice of their children. Respondents of both genders do not want the same career either of their parents had. The value parents place on education, the level of support, the encouragement they provide, and expectations about their child's post-high school attainment suggest a contribution to the career drifting that were made by this group.

Personal aspirations, the rating of ability, and effort contribute to career change. This group rates their risk-taking attitude as low to moderate, yet this group constantly undertakes new challenges. The incomplete programs and chronic job changing suggests a pattern of avoidance and lack of commitment to career choices. The willingness to accept risk-taking situations closely relates to the perceived difficulty

of the post-secondary program and employment setting. Females compared to males, report a higher level of agreement with previous efforts in post-secondary and a willingness to consider the most difficult post-secondary programs. Generally, there are more similarities than differences between gender and community type, and this is especially evident for the personality traits and personal aspirations of the respondents. The profile of the career drifter that emerges from this study presents the initial results of an important field of research.

Recommendations For Further Research

1. In light of the difficulty obtaining a sample that met the definition of a career indecisive individual or career drifter, future research approaches may examine methods to obtain larger samples. Researchers may include the entire populations at post-secondary institutions in Newfoundland who attend more than one program and use random sampling techniques on respondents who complete surveys and meet the definition of the career indecisive individual.

2. Further research may include standardized

instruments in addition to self-report surveys to obtain information on personality traits and parental factors that influence career decision-making (Haag-Muller, 1986).

3. Future research ought to be conducted on the profile of a career drifter. One additional population that can be examined are those post-secondary students in Newfoundland who have been successful and continue to take further programs without a concerted job search effort around previously completed programs. It may be worthwhile to determine to what degree these repeated efforts at post-secondary programs are influenced by personality traits or are a consequence of the weak labour market and high unemployment rate in this province.

4. It may be worthwhile for future research to examine the level of commitment of high school graduates prior to entering the post-secondary programs. This factor may serve as a predictor of career drifting. Byrne (1990) reported that almost 10% of drop-outs in the Cabot study indicated a low degree of commitment to completing the program they entered, and almost 75% of drop-outs at the Cabot Institute in

1989 were for non-academic reasons.

5. An investigation of the decision patterns of Newfoundland students who attend post-secondary institutions in other provinces and repeat programs may be beneficial. Would the personality traits and family influences be similar for this population as it would for career drifters who attend institutions in Newfoundland?

6. Following the research of Sabourin & Coallier (1991), the inclusion of a instrument of psychological measurement, such as the Career Decision Scale (Osipow et al, 1980) or the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR, Paulus 1984) in future research is warranted. This would allow the capture of the variance in the reporting of career indecisiveness and career drifting that would be independent of psychological distress. Standardized instruments measuring personality traits of anxiety, self-esteem and locus of control are warranted in future research.

7. Future research may consider the impact of the failure experience on career drifting, including the lapse of time from the experience to the administration of the instrument. Since some research has suggested

that decision-making patterns differ after the age of 25 (Salomone, 1982), examining personality traits and career indecisiveness according to age cohorts may provide information in this area.

8. Collecting data on the occupations of career drifters will add to the knowledge that can be analyzed. A comparison of job quits to the occupations individuals have held and post-secondary programs they have attempted may better explain the influence work experience and work values play in career drifting.

9. Future research may wish to examine the reasons for the lack of effort and commitment of individuals who attend post-secondary programs in Newfoundland. This will apply more to those who attend technical colleges where people endure lengthy waiting periods before acceptance into a program.

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FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Memorial University of Newfoundland

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Faculty Committee for Ethical Review of Research Involving Human Subjects

Certificate of Approval

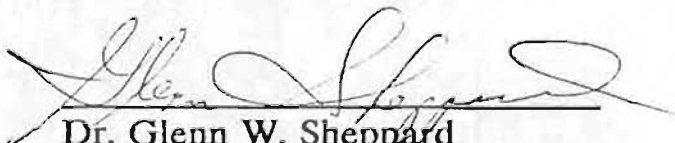
Investigator: Ross Flood

Department/Division/Institute: Faculty of Education

Title of Research: Personality Profile of Career Drifters in Newfoundland
and Labrador

Approval Date: July 15, 1991

The Ethics Review Committee has reviewed the protocol and procedures as described in this research proposal and we conclude that they conform to the University's guidelines for research involving human subjects.


Dr. Glenn W. Sheppard
Acting Chairman
Ethics Review Committee

Members: Dr. George Hickman, Associate Professor, Education
Dr. Miriam Yu, Professor, Education
Dr. Glenn Sheppard, Professor, Education
Dr. Amarjit Singh, Professor, Education

Memorial

University of Newfoundland

Centre for the Distance Education
Delivery of Career Counselling Services
Faculty of Education

228

Mr. D. Bruce Baker
Registrar
Cabot Institute of Technology
1 Prince Phillip Drive
P. O. Box 1693
St. John's Newfoundland
A1C 5P7

30 May, 1991

Mr. Ross Flood
Graduate Student
Education Psychology Program
Box 48
G. A. Hickman Building
Memorial University
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1B 3X8

Dear Mr. Baker:

I am conducting research into the decision-making patterns of youth in the province of Newfoundland to develop a profile of those individuals who voluntarily terminate post-secondary courses and employment. In an attempt to identify a sample on which to conduct this study, I request the assistance of the Cabot Institute.

After a meeting with Mr. John Harnet, Counsellor at the institute, it was suggested I request the following information through your office: the names, addresses, dates of birth and program of study for students enrolled in the first and second years of technology programs for the academic year 1990-1991. I would also require the same information of students who terminated from all institutional courses in the academic years 1986-1991.

This project is examining the career drifting patterns of youth who have completed the high school program in this province. If possible, I would request the identification of only those students who have completed the level three program in the secondary system in Newfoundland. One suggested method to deliver this list is in the form of mail labels, which I am willing to provide.

This research is part of an on-going program through the Centre for Distance Education, Delivery of Career Counselling Services at Memorial University. Fulfilling my request would provide an invaluable contribution to this project.

Yours Truly,

Ross Flood.

Memorial

University of Newfoundland

Centre for the Distance Education
Delivery of Career Counselling Services
Faculty of Education

229

Mr. Dorm Chipp
Counsellor
Western Community College
P. O. Box 5400
Stephenville, Newfoundland
A2N 2Z6
30 May, 1991

Mr. Ross Flood
Graduate Student
Education Psychology Program
Box 48
G. A. Hickman Building
Memorial University
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1B 3X8

Dear Mr. Chipp:

I am conducting research into the decision-making patterns of youth in the province of Newfoundland, attempting to develop a profile of those individuals who voluntarily terminate post-secondary courses and employment. A major need is to identify a sample on which to conduct this study and I request the assistance of the Western Community College.

I request the following information from your institution: the names, addresses, dates of birth and program of study for students enrolled in the first year of the technology programs for the academic year 1990-1991. I would also require the same information of students who terminated from all institutional courses in the academic years 1986-1991.

This project is examining the career drifting patterns of youth who have completed the high school program in this province. If possible, I would request the identification of only those students who have completed the level three program in the secondary system in Newfoundland.

This research is part of an on-going program through the Centre for Distance Education, Delivery of Career Counselling Services at Memorial University. Fulfilling my request would provide an invaluable contribution to this project.

Yours Truly,

Ross Flood.



WESTERN COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Headquarters
P.O. Box 5400
Stephenville, NF
A2N 2Z6
Tel. 709 643-5132
Fax. 709 643-5407

June 3, 1991

230

Mr. Ross Flood
Graduate Student
Education Psychology Program
P. O. Box 48
G. A. Hickman Building
Memorial University
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1B 3X8

Dear Ross:

Received your request and we will try and help you in as far as we can. Our computerized file system is being tied into the provincial (Department of Education) system. This process will not be completed until around the middle of July. Please contact Ms. Linda Dunne, our Registrar. After July 16 she can be contacted in St. John's at 579-4988.

This is very valuable research and the information obtained will be very useful to all of us. If we can be of further assistance, please let me know.

Sincerely,

Dorm Chipp
Director
Student Services

DC/hg

c.c. Linda Dunne

Memorial

University of Newfoundland

Centre for the Distance Education
Delivery of Career Counselling Services
Faculty of Education

231

Mr. Bob McCloud
Eastern Community College Headquarters
P.O. Box 400
Burin, NF
A1E 1E0

Mr. Ross Flood
Graduate Student
Education Psychology Program
Box 48
G. A. Hickman Building
Memorial University
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1B 3X8

Dear Mr. McCloud:

I am conducting research into the decision-making patterns of youth in the province of Newfoundland to develop a profile of those individuals who voluntarily terminate post-secondary courses and employment. In an attempt to identify a sample on which to conduct this study, I request the assistance of the Eastern Community College.

I request the following information from the college on students between the ages of 21-30: the names, addresses, dates of birth and program of study for students who terminated from all institutional courses in the academic years 1986-1991. I would also require the same information of students who have repeated courses at the campuses in Burin, Bonavista and Burin.

This project is examining the career drifting patterns of youth who have completed the high school program in this province. If possible, I would request the identification of only those students who have completed the level three program in the secondary system in Newfoundland. One suggested method to deliver this list is in the form of mail labels, which I am willing to provide.

This research is part of an on-going program through the Centre for Distance Education, Delivery of Career Counselling Services at Memorial University. Fulfilling my request would provide an invaluable contribution to this project.

Yours Truly,

Ross Flood.



GIVE YOUR FUTURE A DIRECTION COMMUNITY COLLEGE

☐ Headquarters ☐ Bonavista Campus ☐ Burin Campus ☐ Clarendville Campus

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May 31, 1991

Mr. Ross Flood
Graduate Student
Education Psychology Program
Box 48
G.A. Hickman Building
Memorial University
St. John's, NF A1B 3X8

Dear Mr. Flood:

Since our telephone conversation, I have checked with some of my colleagues with respect to pulling out the information you request.

To summarize, we have some student information on data base, but it is not possible to access this specific information, i.e., program repeaters, Level III graduates, or whether or not they were terminated. What I would suggest to you is that you come to Burin Campus, stay a few days in the student residence, and search our student files for the particular clients you are interested in.

If you are limiting your students to 150, you may be able to find a good percentage of these clients in the Burin Campus student files. If not, then the remainder can be gleaned from records in Clarendville or Bonavista.

In any case, the cost of staying in residence, as well as searching the files, can be discussed with Mr. Raymond Kavanagh, Principal, Burin Campus, 891-1279/1253.

I have taken the liberty of forwarding your fax to Mr. Kavanagh, and you can call him on Monday, June 3.

Yours respectfully,

Robert MacLeod
Partnership Training Coordinator

RM/oa

pc Mr. Ray Kavanagh

Memorial

University of Newfoundland

Centre for the Distance Education
Delivery of Career Counselling Services
Faculty of Education

233

July 5, 1991

Dear Participant:

I am currently completing a Master's degree in Educational Psychology at Memorial University. As part of the requirements for this degree, I am conducting a study of decision-making styles of young adults in Newfoundland. In turn, this is part of a larger study being conducted by the Distance Learning Centre for Career Education, studying the career decisions of those people who have successfully completed high school in this province.

The following questionnaire is intended to obtain information from individuals who have held more than one job and have started more than one post-secondary programs. This will enable me to identify the decision-making styles and patterns of individuals who have made multiple career moves.

I assure you that procedures are in place to protect the anonymity of all participants. Information obtained from the questionnaire will be separated from the personal data when received at the centre. I will not match respondent's name to any of the completed questionnaires.

Please complete the questionnaire and mail it in the stamped self-addressed envelope. Should you have any inquiries about the questionnaire, please call the undersigned at 737-6980.

I thank you for your interest and contribution to this project.

Yours truly,

Ross Flood.

To Survey participants

This questionnaire is part of an on-going project at Memorial University's Distance Learning Centre for Career Education. This project is examining career decision-making styles of Newfoundland young adults, with the purpose of obtaining a profile of decision-makers and developing a program to enhance self-esteem and decision-making skills of participants. This will involve the administration of standardized tests that measure values, self-concept, adult's career concerns and decision-making.

Another important component of this project is conducting a pilot of the career development program that is designed as part of this study. This will involve six two hour sessions on career decision-making and includes video-tapes, workbooks and group sessions.

If you are interested in participating in either component of this study, please indicate your willingness by checking the appropriate box below.

I am willing to participate in the completion of the test component of this study. Yes_____ No_____

I am willing to participate in the pilot career development program of the study. Yes_____ No_____

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Memorial

University of Newfoundland

Centre for the Distance Education
Delivery of Career Counselling Services
Faculty of Education

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September 1, 1991

Dear Participant:

During the middle of July, 1991, you received a survey questionnaire that is part of a study of career decision-making style of young adults in Newfoundland. To this date, the questionnaire has not been received at the Centre for Distance Education.

I would like to take this opportunity to request your assistance in this project. Information received from residents of Newfoundland is important in the completion of this study. From those individuals who have completed the questionnaire, it has been shown it takes twenty to thirty minutes to complete it. By taking these few minutes from your day, you would be providing valuable information and making an important contribution to this study.

I am requesting you consider completing the questionnaire you have previously received and returning it in the stamped self-addressed envelope. As with the initial request, I assure you that confidentiality of all respondents is assured.

Please complete the questionnaire you have received and return it by September 21, 1991. I thank you for your interest and contribution to this project.

Yours truly,



Ross Flood.

Correlation of previous work experience factors

Work Experience Variable		Variable Number										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Jobs matched educational level	1.00											
2.Little opportunity growth/development	-.33	1.00										
3.Accomplished something worthwhile	.48	-.51	1.00									
4.Had desired salary level	.31	-.08	.36	1.00								
5.Little personal value in work	-.46	.32	-.50	-.10	1.00							
6.Goals/values were same as employer's	.53	-.28	.27	.35	-.56	1.00						
7.Jobs were of little interest	-.26	.45	-.65	-.18	.69	-.29	1.00					
8.Work most important in life	-.05	-.11	.16	.34	-.16	.04	-.36	1.00				
9.Satisfied with effort in jobs	-.03	.27	.02	.31	.16	-.19	-.04	.28	1.00			
10.Enjoyed going to work	.11	-.19	.43	.65	-.24	.17	-.43	.58	.54	1.00		
11.Had jobs only to satisfy others	.25	.18	-.38	-.11	.16	.16	.51	-.48	-.32	-.54	1.00	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- Name: _____
- Date of Birth: _____
- Gender: Male 1. _____
 Female 2. _____
- Marital Status: Married (Common-law) 1. _____
 Single 2. _____
 Divorced 3. _____
 Widowed 4. _____
- Address: _____

1. In what year did you complete high school?_____
2. How many people reside in the community in which you attended high school? Please check one.
less than 1000:_____ 1000 to 5000:_____ 5001-10,000:_____
more than 10,000:_____
3. If you attended high school in more than one community, please write the name and the years during which you attended high school.

4. How many people reside in the community in which you now live?
less than 1000:_____ 1000 to 5000:_____ 5001-10,000:_____
more than 10,000:_____
5. Please give the number of post-secondary programs you have started since completing high school_____.
6. Give the year and name of each program you started.

7. Names of the post-secondary programs you have completed.

8. Do you plan to enter/return to post-secondary programs?
Yes_____ No_____
9. Number of jobs you have held since leaving high school?
full-time_____ Part-time_____
10. Number of jobs you have voluntarily left since completing high school. full-time_____ Part-time_____
11. If you have changed occupations, have the subsequent jobs been in the same occupational field?
All_____ Some_____ None_____
12. What is the highest educational level of your parents (guardians)? Select highest level.

	Father	Mother
less than grade nine.....	_____	_____
some high school.....	_____	_____
completed high school.....	_____	_____
some community college.....	_____	_____
community college diploma.....	_____	_____
some university.....	_____	_____
university degree.....	_____	_____
don't know.....	_____	_____

13. If still in the labour force, does your father (guardian) work during the year? Yes____ No____
14. While in high school, what was the usual occupation of your father(guardian)_____
15. Was this occupation: seasonal____
 full-time____
 part-time____
16. If still in the labour force, does your mother (guardian) work during the year? Yes____ No____
17. While in high school, what was the usual occupation of your mother (guardian)_____
18. Was this occupation: seasonal____
 full-time____
 part-time____
19. Do you wish to have the same kind of career as your father: Yes____ No____ mother: Yes____ No____
20. Do you agree with your parents views on your choice of careers? Yes ____ No____
21. Do your parents agree with your career decisions?
 Yes____ No____
22. How far did you parents want you to pursue your education?
Choose one:
____ finish high school
____ attend community college
____ complete an apprenticeship
____ attend university
____ they didn't care
____ I don't know
23. How much did your parents influence your decisions on what you did after completing high school?
____ none at all
____ very little
____ some
____ a great deal
24. How much pressure did you receive from your parents to seek work after completing high school?
____ none at all
____ very little
____ some
____ a great deal

25. How much support and encouragement did you receive from the following regarding your attendance at a post-secondary institution? Please choose one of the following values for each choice listed.

1. none at all. 2. very little. 3. some. 4. a great deal.
- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| mother (guardian)_____ | friends_____ |
| father (guardian)_____ | high school counsellor_____ |
| brother/s_____ | high school teacher\s_____ |
| sister/s_____ | community college instructor_____ |
| other relatives_____ | |

26. Did other siblings attend post-secondary institutions before you? Yes_____ No_____

27. If yes, how much financial support did you receive from your parents when compared to your siblings?

1. not as much_____.
 2. equal support_____
 3. more than my siblings_____

28. If you worked in Newfoundland, did you
 board with relatives Yes_____ No_____
 rent an apartment with friends Yes_____ No_____
 rent an apartment with co-workers Yes_____ No_____
 rent by yourself Yes_____ No_____
 own your own home Yes_____ No_____

29. If you worked in Newfoundland, did you
 get along with co-workers? Yes_____ No_____
 get along with supervisors? Yes_____ No_____
 enjoy the work? Yes_____ No_____
 get laid off and look for work in the same community?
 Yes_____ No_____
 Voluntarily leave work? Yes_____ No_____

30. If you worked outside your home community, but in Newfoundland, did you
 board with relatives? Yes_____ No_____
 you rent an apartment with friends? Yes_____ No_____
 you have a boarding house? Yes_____ No_____
 you own your own home? Yes_____ No_____

31. If you voluntarily left your last job, did you have
 10 weeks of employment? Yes_____ No_____
 14 weeks of employment? Yes_____ No_____
 20 weeks of employment? Yes_____ No_____
 more than 20 weeks of employment? Yes_____ No_____
 did you qualify for Unemployment Benefits? Yes_____ No_____

32. When you look for another job, how long (in months), are you willing to look for the job you want?_____.

33. In the future, what kinds of occupations will give you the job satisfaction that you want?_____.
34. What kind of work experience did you have in High school?
 full-time_____
 part-time_____
 summer job_____
 no work experience_____
35. Have you ever left the province to seek work? Yes____ No____
 If yes, do questions 36 to 41.
 If no, go to question 42.
36. Did you have a job prior to leaving Newfoundland Yes____
 No____
 Did friends/relatives obtain a job for you after arriving at the new location? Yes____ No____
 did you work with an employer with whom friends or relatives were also employed? Yes____ No____
 did you obtain a job through your own efforts? Yes____ No____
37. Did you ever quit your job and return home? Yes____ No____
 If yes, how many times? _____
38. If you quit work and returned home, was it after
 10 weeks of employment? Yes____ No____
 14 weeks of employment? Yes____ No____
 20 weeks of employment? Yes____ No____
 more than 20 weeks of employment? Yes____ No____
 did you qualify for Unemployment Benefits? Yes____ No____
39. What was your main reason for seeking work outside the province of Newfoundland _____
 _____.
40. What was your main reason for returning to Newfoundland?
 _____.
41. How did the availability of Unemployment Insurance Benefits affect your decision to return home? _____
 _____.

Please evaluate these statements using the following scale:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
4	3	2	1

42. My parents encouraged me to do well in high school?..... 4 3 2 1

43.	I have the same attitudes toward education as my parents?.....4	3	2	1
44.	My parents were upset if I did not do well in high school?.....4	3	2	1
45.	My marks were the main reason I attempted to find work after completing high school...4	3	2	1
46.	I am willing to leave my home community to seek work or to attend school.....4	3	2	1
47.	I wish to have the same financial situation as my parents.....4	3	2	1
48.	My parents consider education to be off little importance.....4	3	2	1
49.	The community in which I live thinks education is of little value.....4	3	2	1
50.	The community in which I live thinks it is alright to collect Unemployment Benefits....4	3	2	1
51.	My prospects of obtaining a job in my home community is good.....4	3	2	1
52.	The community in which I live, most people work on a part-time or seasonal basis.....4	3	2	1
53.	I wish to have a better financial situation than my parents.....4	3	2	1
In your previous jobs:				
54.	these jobs matched your educational level...4	3	2	1
55.	there was little opportunity for personal growth and development.....4	3	2	1
56.	you accomplished something worthwhile.....4	3	2	1
57.	you had your desired salary level.....4	3	2	1
58.	you received feedback on your work performance.....4	3	2	1
59.	if feedback was given, it was negative.....4	3	2	1
60.	there was little personal value in your work.....4	3	2	1

61.	your skills and abilities were used to your expectations or hopes.....4	3	2	1
62.	your personal goals and values were compatible with your employers.....4	3	2	1
63.	the jobs were of little interest to you.....4	3	2	1
64.	work was the most important thing in your life.....4	3	2	1
65.	you were satisfied with your efforts in previous jobs.....4	3	2	1
66.	you enjoyed going to work.....4	3	2	1
67.	you obtained jobs only to satisfy significant others i.e. parents, spouse, friends.....4	3	2	1
68.	The reasons I would take a job: please rate each statement:			
	for the salary.....4	3	2	1
	to support myself and my family.....4	3	2	1
	to obtain the luxuries I want.....4	3	2	1
	for job satisfaction.....4	3	2	1
	to qualify for Unemployment Insurance.....4	3	2	1
	to chances of advancement.....4	3	2	1
	for job security.....4	3	2	1
69.	It is of little importance to have decided upon a career when completing high school...4	3	2	1
70.	Any jobs I had were solely due to chance or luck.....4	3	2	1
71.	I feel anxious about making career decisions.....4	3	2	1
72.	I feel anxious about seeking a job.....4	3	2	1
73.	I think that events in my life, taking a course, finding a job are beyond my control.....4	3	2	1
74.	I think that hard work will bring me success.....4	3	2	1
75.	I think I can do well in the future.....4	3	2	1
76.	I feel like a failure when I have not successfully completed a course.....4	3	2	1

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 77. | I depend upon other people to help me
make a decision.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 78. | I disliked going to post-secondary
institutions.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 79. | I was not satisfied with my efforts in
previous post-secondary programs.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 80. | I would rather been seen as competent than
as hard-working.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 81. | I can trust myself to make my own decisions.4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 82. | I never worry about making a decision.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 83. | I am never anxious about my future.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 84. | Other people make decisions for me.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 85. | I had little information on careers, jobs,
or training programs on which to base a
career decision.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 86. | I am enthusiastic about my future.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 87. | I am enthusiastic about my prospects of
getting a job.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 88. | I expect to be successful in any course I
will attempt in the future.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 89. | I had expected to be successful in my
previous courses.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 90. | I will obtain the job that is suited for my
personality and abilities.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 91. | Each person is suited for only one kind
of job.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 92. | With my education and experience, I will
get the kind of job I will really like.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 93. | It is worthwhile to attend a post-secondary
institution in Newfoundland, despite the
economic conditions.....4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 94. | If you have attended a post-secondary institution, please
answer questions 95-104. If not, go to question number 105. | | | |

95. While attending university or community college, did you live:
 at home? Yes _____ No _____
 in an on-campus residence? Yes _____ No _____
 in an on-campus apartment? Yes _____ No _____
 off campus with relatives? Yes _____ No _____
 off campus in a boarding house? Yes _____ No _____
 off campus in an apartment? Yes _____ No _____
 in your own home? Yes _____ No _____
96. Please choose one of the following. Your marks in post-secondary programs were:
 among the lowest _____
 marks low, but not among the lowest _____
 marks fairly good, but not among the best _____
 marks among the best _____

Please evaluate these statements using the following scale:

	Strongly agree 4	Agree 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
97. While at a post-secondary institution I experienced stress or anxiety.....4			3	2 1
98. If you answered 4 or 3 to the above question, you had difficulty coping with stress.....4			3	2 1
99. I was satisfied with my post-secondary environment.....4			3	2 1
100. I felt at home in my post-secondary environment.....4			3	2 1
101. I had friends at the post-secondary schools I attended.....4			3	2 1
102. I felt lost most of the time while attending post-secondary institutions.....4			3	2 1
103. I found the atmosphere at post-secondary schools not as friendly as high school.....4			3	2 1
104. If I tried, I could really improve my marks from previous courses.....4			3	2 1
105. I think I have the entrance requirements to gain acceptance in any program I want to do.....4			3	2 1

106.	I have the ability to complete:			
	one year community college programs.....4	3	2	1
	two/three year community college programs...4	3	2	1
	University programs in Arts/Social Sciences.4	3	2	1
	University programs in the professional schools i.e., Engineering, Pharmacy, Medicine..4	3	2	1
107.	I never worry about my ability to complete post-secondary programs.....4	3	2	1
108.	I think I know my own interests and abilities well enough to decide my future occupation.....4	3	2	1
109.	I would only take a program I considered:			
	easy (anyone could do it).....4	3	2	1
	fairly difficult (three quarters of all people could do it).....4	3	2	1
	difficult (one-half of all people could do it).....4	3	2	1
	very difficult (one quarter of all people could do it).....4	3	2	1
110.	I am willing to take a risk in attempting a community college program.....4	3	2	1
111.	I am willing to take a risk in attempting a university program.....4	3	2	1
112.	Most of my misfortunes and successes were a result of my efforts and abilities.....4	3	2	1
113.	I depend upon my won abilities and skills...4	3	2	1
114.	I like a job that requires skills and practice rather than inventiveness.....4	3	2	1
115.	I do not have a great deal of confidence....4	3	2	1
116.	I value security and salary in a job.....4	3	2	1
117.	I would rather have a job in which the boss tells me what to do.....4	3	2	1
118.	I would never leave a job to return to school without a better paying job awaiting me.....4	3	2	1
119.	I refuse to behave like others and just do enough to get by.....4	3	2	1

120.	I would rather have the same position and salary than accept a challenging job.....4	3	2	1
121.	I have little respect for myself.....4	3	2	1
122.	I will accept a challenge even if there is a chance I will fail.....4	3	2	1
123.	I feel I am at least as worthy as other people.....4	3	2	1
124.	A community college diploma is not important for all people.....4	3	2	1
125.	If I do not like a job, I will stick with it for the security.....4	3	2	1
126.	Right now I do not feel confident.....4	3	2	1
127.	In the past I never felt useless.....4	3	2	1
128.	I always do the minimum amount of work just to get by.....4	3	2	1
129.	I would prefer a high-paying, boring job than a challenging and interesting job.....4	3	2	1
130.	If I fail in a job or course, it is my own doing.....4	3	2	1
131.	I can be what I want to be, even if others do not agree with me.....4	3	2	1
132.	I cannot make a mistake in my life.....4	3	2	1
133.	I prefer a job where I make my own decisions.....4	3	2	1
134.	I do not care what the job is, as long as the money is good.....4	3	2	1
135.	A university diploma is important for all people.....4	3	2	1

