SELF-CONCEPT, OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION, AND EGO IDENTITY - A CORRELATIONAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Level of Occupational Aspiration is a complex though relatively unexplored phenomenon which is theorized to play a major role in career choice. This study explores the relationship between level of occupational aspiration (real/ideal) and self-concept (as measured by the Piers Harris self concept scale), and level of occupation and ego identity (as measured by the Revised Ego Identity Scale).

Significant positive correlations were found between both real and ideal aspirations and self-concept for females. No relationship was demonstrated for males. Significant positive correlations were also established between real and ideal aspirations and ego identity for females. A significant positive relationship was established between real aspirations and ego identity for males.

Implications for adolescent career counselling are discussed.
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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

In theories of career development it is commonly assumed that an occupational aspiration is an expression of personality or self-concept. According to Holland (1973) individuals project themselves onto occupations that they believe will allow them to express who they are, their valued skills, attitudes, and personality characteristics. For Super (1963) an occupational aspiration is an implementation of self-concept. Through work, individuals actualize themselves. Certainly, there are many studies that support this relationship between a person and an occupational aspiration. For example, Schutz and Blocher (1961) provided evidence that people attempt to implement self-concept in work. However, as Cochran (1981) pointed out, most research has been concerned with occupational field, rather than level.

This is an interesting observation given the awareness of occupational level that exists in society. Haller and Miller (1971) stated that an understanding of level exists in the form of a well established prestige hierarchy. Reeb (1974) demonstrated that this knowledge is present in children by the time they reach grade 8. Given this awareness one would expect that all people would aspire to the upper levels of the hierarchy. The fact that this is not always the case is puzzling. Since lower end occupations carry neither the status nor the economic
opportunity of careers found at the upper part of the hierarchy, it is difficult to explain why people make such choices.

One explanation for low occupational aspirations may be found in the different purposes that work serves. Perhaps all levels of work are not seen as self actualizing experiences. One is hard pressed to see how being a ditch digger or a laborer allows for an expression of personality. Warnath (1975) questioned the notion that work is intrinsically satisfying for the majority of people. It may be that some occupations serve to protect one's self-concept rather than express it. Rosenberg (1979) pointed out that the individual is not a passive object but rather an active agent who "responds to the structurally determined experiences of his life in a fashion protective of self concept" (p. xiv). Working as a laborer may take care of basic needs and provide one with the time to explore other avenues of self expression. Another explanation for low level aspirations may have to do with opportunity.

Gottfredson (1981) maintained that vocational choice is circumscribed at a relatively young age by a variety of factors. Warnath (1975) suggested that "socioeconomic status, racial origin, and power are more determinative of [attained occupations] than are aptitude and interests (p. 425). Stendler (1949) and Ginzberg (1951) found evidence that one distinguishing variable regarding level is social class. Children of a higher social class tend to have
higher occupational aspirations than children of a lower social class. This is a critical point. For if one's aspirations are affected by social class, then they may also be affected by other factors. It also suggests that level of aspiration may be affected prior to self-concept crystallization. If this is the case then it is unclear whether self-concept leads to occupation or vice versa. Gottfredson argued that perhaps both entities develop in a "leap-frog manner" (p. 556). One question that this research is designed to explore is the relationship between occupational level and self-concept.

In an attempt to shed further light on questions raised by Gottfredson, the relationship between occupational level and identity crystallization is also being investigated. Possibly the most articulated views about identity crystallization (or ego identity) are to be found in Erikson's writings. He proposed an eight stage model founded on what he calls the "epigenetic principle". This is the concept that "anything that grows has a ground plan, and that out of this ground plan the parts arise, each part having its time of special ascendancy, until all parts have arisen to form a functioning whole" (1979, p. 53). When the functioning whole is working well it is referred to as a healthy personality. However, in order to arrive at a healthy personality, the crises of each stage must be dealt with successfully, as each step incorporates the accomplishments or failures of what preceded. It is the
fifth stage in this developmental model that is of interest to this study for it is at this point that Erikson begins to talk of ego identity.

As might be expected, any discussion of ego is faced with definitional difficulties. Erikson (1979) used the term to refer at one time to "a conscious sense of individual identity; at another to an unconscious striving for a continuity of personal character; at a third as a criterion for the silent doings of ego synthesis and, finally, as a maintenance of an inner solidarity with a group's ideals and identity" (p. 109). However, as Rasmussen (1964) pointed out, even though Erikson uses "ego identity" to refer to a variety of ego functions his model is particularly useful because it enables us to "study systematically the resolution of the earlier crisis periods through presently-manifested attitudes and behavior" (p. 816). The behavior that we're most interested in looking at is the adolescent's response to occupational choice.

To summarize then, serious questions have been raised about the role that level of occupational aspiration plays in one's occupational choice. At the heart of this issue is the assumption concerning the relationship between our sense of who we are and what we do for a living. Two specific questions that this study is designed to evaluate are: (1) What is the relationship between level of aspiration and self concept? and (2) What is the relationship between level of aspiration and identity crystallization or ego identity?
SUMMARY OF THE DEFINITIONS TO BE USED

**Occupational Aspiration:** In general this will refer to the single occupation named as one's best alternative at any given time. The points which bound the range of a person's level of aspiration at any one time will be called expression levels. Estimates of the lower and upper boundaries will be called the realistic and idealistic levels, respectively (Haller, p. 8).

**Self-concept:** a set of self attitudes which reflect both a description and an evaluation of one's behavior and attributes (Piers, p. 1).

**Ego Identity:** a Gestalt-like sense which can be conceptualized as the accrued confidence that one's ability to maintain inner sameness and continuity is matched by the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for others (Erickson, p. 22).
CHAPTER 2 - REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The body of literature relevant to this subject can be classified as research pertaining to: (1) self-concept, (2) level of occupational aspiration and, (3) ego identity.

SELF-CONCEPT

The body of literature about self-concept is enormous. The efforts to articulate, define and operationalize the term are ongoing, inconclusive and problematic. Werff (1985) pointed out that "self-concept psychology shows two faces. On the one side much theoretical attention is given to the multiplicity of self, and to ambiguities and uncertainties in individual self-conception". On the other hand "in most empirical studies these individual difficulties are completely neglected" (p. 446). The empirical perspective relies on the numerous correlation indices computed over the years. Models built on this data allow for many different selves but they do not explicitly address the "problems of self-definition, contradictions and ambiguity in individual self images" (p. 447). Not all research on self-concept falls into this category.

Rosenberg's (1979) efforts to address the subject fused theoretical and empirical material. He stated the following:
Self-concept is the totality of our thoughts and feelings with reference to ourselves as an object. This structure is experienced as the core of our interests and has major significance for our thoughts, feelings and behavior. Self conception then, is a matter of both developmental and social factors. Social forces as social experiences though do not merely exist, they are interpreted. Finally, though the individual is influenced by social forces, each person is "directed by his own motivational forces and he responds to the structurally determined experiences of his life in a fashion protective of his self-concept" (p. xiv).

SELF-CONCEPT AND VOCATIONAL CHOICE

Over the years a substantial body of literature has been produced which maintains that one's occupational choice is intimately connected with self-concept. This belief is found in Holland's (1959, 1973) proposition that career choice is an extension of personality and that people project themselves and their views of work onto their occupations. Super, (1951, 1957, and 1963) maintained that "In choosing an occupation one is, in effect, choosing a means of implementing a self-concept" (1951, p. 92). A closer consideration of Super's work raises some questions about the degree to which this theory can be generalized.

Super (1957) described vocational development as "an orderly and patterned process, ongoing, continuous, generally irreversible and dynamic, involving interaction of the behavioral repertoire, vocational developmental task, and other factors" (p. 45). Commenting on the "exploratory behavior" aspect of vocational development Jordaan (1963) stated that "Super's formulation [in his 1963 monogram] is
more concerned with the outcomes of exploration and with what he calls facilitating attitudes and attributes, than with the process or dynamics of exploration" (p. 51). This choice of focus, when coupled with the prevalent populations that supporters of the self-concept/occupational choice theory have studied, augments the question of generalizability raised earlier.

A review of the literature indicated that several studies lend themselves to supporting Super’s theory. Included in these are (Brophy, 1959; Englander, 1960; Blocher & Schutz, 1961; Kibrick & Tiedman, 1963; Oppenheimer, 1966; and Pallone & Hosinki, 1966). It is interesting to note that of the studies that used subjects who had declared a vocational intention, (Brophy, nurses; Englander, teachers; Kibrick, Tiedman, Pallone, Hosinki, nurses) more prestigious occupations abound. As Osipow (1968) pointed out "such groups may be more concerned with implementing self-concepts than might a group of railroad engineers, mechanics, salesmen or assembly line workers" (p. 142). Osipow's observation raised the issue of level of occupational choice, about which both Holland and Super are virtually silent. Holland appeared to ignore the prestige hierarchy altogether. Super, on the other hand, seemed to view work primarily as a means, or as a neutral entity that one merely used to implement the self.

One area of research that sheds some light on the role that level of occupational aspiration plays in career choice
is that pertaining to ideal/expected self and occupational stereotypes. In their investigations of the relationship between self-esteem, career salience and choice of ideal occupation, Greenhaus and Simon (1976) raised the specter of a "vicious cycle". This somewhat ominous note is the result of several studies involving college students. Greenhaus (1971) stated that people with high self-esteem tend to be more resistant to social pressure in occupational decisions and that students' levels of career salience are positively correlated to choice of ideal occupation (Greenhaus, 1973). One of the possible consequences of these findings is that high self-esteem, high career salience students will have their feelings of competence and self-worth enhanced by their occupations. On the other hand persons with low career salience and low self-esteem, who are less likely to choose an occupation they consider ideal, may be placed in a situation which will maintain their low level of self-esteem and career salience (Greenhaus and Simon, 1976).

Burgoyne (1979), using a population of 97 male and 88 female high school students, investigated the hypothesis that similarity of ideal self and occupational stereotypes are important in determining the vocational preferences of adolescents, while similarity between expected self and occupational stereotypes is important in determining their occupational expectations. He concluded that the ideal self plays an important role in determining vocational
preferences for both males and females. However, the ideal self was more strongly associated than the expected self with vocational expectations for females, though not for males. Burgoyne went on to suggest that, given these findings, "Holland's and Super's vocational choice theories require some redefinition to take into account the notion that in making career choices people have several self-concepts available to them" (p. 142).

This notion of several self-concepts is further investigated by Walsh and Taylor (1980). They investigated work-related factors and indicators of self-esteem across seven different occupations spanning the prestige hierarchy. Among their more interesting conclusions is the contention that "when self-esteem is conceptualized as a multidimensional variable, the diversity of findings on different dimensions cautions against glib generalizations regarding the prestige/esteem relationship" (p. 265). They also suggested that "workers whose jobs do not offer intrinsic challenges which would encourage satisfaction or a sense of accomplishment frequently find support from other dimensions of their work or from off-the-job investments of self" (p. 265).

In summary, one means of conceiving the self is through occupation. The direction of this relationship and the degree to which it is generalizable needs further investigation.
OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION

Perhaps the most articulated statement about level of occupational aspirations was made by Gottfredson (1981) who presented a developmental theory of aspiration that attempted to integrate a social system approach with psychological perspectives. She suggested that vocationally relevant aspects of self-concept such as gender, class, intelligence, vocational interests, competencies and values are incorporated into one's self concept at different stages of cognitive development. The 3 to 5 year old is concerned with issues of size and power, the 6 to 8 year old with gender self-concept, the 9 to 13 year old with social valuation (class and ability) and somewhere around the age of 14, the orientation to the unique self occurs. This is often evidenced in the form of the adolescent identity crisis. Of greater significance is her contention that one's occupational choices are eliminated in order of gender, prestige and ability. By stage 3 youngsters seem to have a well established level of tolerable, realistic and idealistic aspirations in contrast to younger children who do not seem to have either a ceiling or a floor level. Most important to our purposes is her argument that the exploration of vocational alternatives in adolescence is largely within the set of occupations that were deemed compatible at earlier stages according to one's more visible social attributes such as sex, social class, intelligence and one's sense of what is available with reasonable effort.
Not having a firm grasp on their capacities and personal traits, youngsters with very weak identities might not recognize inappropriate vocational aspirations.

Gottfredson's (1981) position on level of Occupational Aspiration is based on substantial empirical data. Among the findings cited are the following: People perceive occupations similarly no matter what their sex, social class, educational level, ethnic group, area of occupation, or type of school attended (Westbrook and Molla, 1976; O'Dowd & Beardslee, 1960; Reiss, 1961; and Shinar, 1975). These common occupational images develop early in life and are highly correlated with adult occupational images (Gunn, 1964; Goldstein & Oldham, 1979; Lauer, 1974; and Simmons and Rosenberg, 1971). Although there is consensus in ranking jobs according to prestige and stereotype, there are systematic differences. Younger children and lower social class people rate jobs more positively (Albrecht, 1976; Goldstein & Oldham, 1979; Nelson, 1963; Reiss, 1961; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1971). Occupational images deal almost exclusively with the life style that occupations afford. These images say little about what people do in these jobs (O'Dowd & Beardslee, 1960).

Before reviewing the literature on Occupational Aspirations a comment regarding operational assumptions is warranted. Perhaps the most definitive statement on the construct is offered by Haller and Miller (1963) who attempted to operationalize the term through a measure of
different (realistic as opposed to idealistic) expectations. By so doing they hoped to identify the goal-area within which a person's occupational aspirations lie. Kuvlesky and Bealer (1964) questioned this attempt to "index the phenomenon". Haller (1968) reiterated his original position (1963) that he and Miller took on the Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS) by pointing out that "the four indicators of realistic and idealistic levels which together make up the OAS [are] so highly correlated that they are well-described by only one factor—obviously, level of occupational aspiration" (p. 485).

This researcher's review of the literature on level of occupational aspiration has focused on several of the variables that appear to influence these decisions. Two of the major areas of study focused on the relationship between level of aspiration and socioeconomic status and level of aspiration and occupational sex typing. Beyond these, researchers have studied level of occupational aspiration in terms of urban/rural differences (Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, 1968), race differences (Cosby and Picou, 1973; Tully, Stephan and Chance, 1975), role models (Burlin, 1973; Zuckerman, 1985) and visibility of occupations (Spencer, 1974). The question of when occupational aspiration is formed begins the review.

Flores and Olsen (1967) asked if occupational aspiration was "realistically and stably" formed in eighth grade males. In a two part study they administered the OAS
first to 202 grade 12 males, 239 grade 11 males and 36 grade 8 males. Six months later the OAS was again administered to a random sample of the original grade 11 and 12 males. Of the 36 original grade 8 males, 33 were included in the second administration. One of their conclusions stated that level of occupation (LOA) "is probably formed in eighth-grade males and is possibly one of the first stable and realistic occupational considerations formed in young people" (p. 111). Given the small sample employed the authors cautioned about the generalizability of their findings.

Harvey and Kerin (1967) attempted to determine the relative influence of children's age and socioeconomic status upon occupational aspiration. Their sample consisted of 80 students from an upper income bracket and 80 students from a lower income bracket. Each group was made up of 40 grade threes and 40 grade eights. They concluded that "the socioeconomic status of children appeared to be the determining factor in perceptions of occupational opportunity" (p. 263). In addition, they stated that as lower income children grew older, their hopes for a college education decreased as opposed to upper income children. Virtually the entire upper income sample hoped to attend college. What is perhaps the study's most interesting comment has to do with the perceived educational needs of the lower income group. The authors suggested that "to justify this change in attitude related to educational aspirations, the lower socioeconomic students decreased the
amount of education they perceived as "needed" to get a job" (p. 266).

Cosby and Picou (1973) looked at the relationship between two indicators of SES (father’s education and father’s occupation), residence and race to occupational aspirations. The sample consisted of 6500 10th grade students from South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. The results suggested that "higher level aspirations were found to be associated with higher levels of father occupation and education, urban residence and white racial status" (p. 11). Of the variables considered, father’s occupation and father’s education "were found to be stronger than other variables" (p. 11). When controls were applied the authors discovered that "the aspirations of black youth [were] quite similar to those of their white counterparts" (p. 11).

Reeb (1974) supported this position through his investigation of perceptual structure of occupations. Drawing on a sample of 125 eighth-grade boys from different schools, he concluded that "the lower the social-economic level of the school, the greater the preference for more blue-collar and somewhat lower jobs" (p. 133).

Burlin (1975) examined the Ideal and Real occupational aspirations of adolescent females. The sample consisted of 11th grade students drawn from a suburban school located within the Syracuse, New York metropolitan area. The subjects' responses were classified as Innovative
occupations which include fewer than 30% women), Moderate (occupations which include 30% to 50% women), and Traditional (occupations which include more than 50% women). The author concluded that while there is a "desire to pursue a broad range of occupations in young women, personal and social forces appear to have limited their beliefs that in real life these occupations could actually be pursued" (p. 4). As the subjects' Real Occupational Aspirations appeared to be associated with their father's level of education but not their mother's. Burlin concluded that it is "socioeconomic status rather than educational level which is associated with the occupational aspirations of these adolescent girls" (p. 7).

Marini (1978), in her review of the research on sex differences in the determination of adolescent occupational aspirations, presented socioeconomic status as a major factor. She stated that research had "found a positive relationship between family status and boys' educational and occupational aspiration whether the indicators of socioeconomic status were father's education (Ezell and Tate, 1955; Kraus, 1964; McDill and Coleman, 1965; Nam, 1965; Rehberg and Westby, 1967; Hauser, 1971; and Marini and Greenberger, 1978a), mother's education (Ezel and Tate, 1955; Kraus, 1964; Marini and Greenberger 1978a), or a composite measure based on several measures (Bayer, 1969; Hauser, 1971; Marini and Greenberger 1978a,). In the same article she argued that a positive association had been
found with girls' occupational aspirations and family status. Once again the indicators of socioeconomic status used were father's education (Werts, 1967; Hauser, 1971; and Marini and Greenberger 1978b), mother's education (Marini and Greenberger 1978b), or a composite measure (Werts, 1966; Astin, 1968a; and Marini and Greenberger 1978b, p. 732).

In her review of the literature on sex-stereotyping of occupational aspirations, Marini (1978) pointed out that occupational aspirations parallel the pattern of sexual segregation that exists in the occupational structure of society at large (Gross, 1968; U.S. Department of Labor, 1976). Moreover, occupational aspirations appeared to be highly sex-stereotyped even before children entered school (Papalia and Tennent, 1975). Another gender difference worth mentioning is that during the high school years the level of girls' occupational choices appeared to decline (Harmon, 1971; Hauser, 1971; Matthews and Tiedman, 1964). The level of boys' occupational choices had a tendency to increase (Hauser, 1971, p. 729). The general thrust of her review is supported by other researchers.

Tully, Stephan and Chance (1975) explored the relationship between status and sex-typed occupations; sex to the status and sex-typed dimension of occupational aspirations; and the impact of socioeconomic status, race, IQ, maternal employment, grade in school and family size to sex and occupational aspirations. The sample included 1688 sixth, seventh and eighth graders. The findings indicated
that the aspirations of males are more sex-typed than those of females. The authors concluded that the "relationship between sex and the indicators of the status dimension of occupational aspirations is stronger for higher SES and white adolescents and is weaker for lower SES and Black adolescents" (p. 647).

Barnett (1975) studied sex differences and age trends in the relationship of occupational preferences and aversions to occupational prestige in 1531 male and 988 female middle and upper class subjects ages 9 through 17. His results indicated that at every age the correlation between occupational preference and prestige is higher for males than for females. In terms of age trends, for males the strength of the relationship between these variables increased over age; for females, prestige and preference were not related as no clear age trends appeared. He also pointed out that "an external barrier theory alone could not account" for the low correlation between prestige and preference amongst females. Barnett concluded that "these data suggest early sex-related learning with respect to the attractiveness of prestige occupations" and that "women may be underrepresented in prestigious occupations not because they opt for such roles and are thwarted but rather because early in their development many women learn not to aspire to such positions" (p. 37).

Albrecht (1976) looked at the prevalence of sex-role stereotypes and the degree to which such stereotyping
related to variables such as social class (indicators of which were educational level and income level). The sample consisted of 1998 useable questionnaires that were mailed to 2227 original households. Of this number 1071 were from female respondents and 927 were from male respondents. The author cautioned about the generalizability of the findings since all the data came from Utah — a state which may be seen as somewhat atypical. He concluded that education level was significantly related to degree of sex stereotyping of occupations. "The lower the respondent’s education, the more likely he or she was to indicate that the occupation listed was only or more suitable for men or only or more suitable for women. The higher one’s education, the higher the probability of reporting that the occupations were suitable for both men and women" (p. 325).

Ory and Helfrich (1978) investigated the interaction of individual characteristics and career selection in two groups of college honor students. Characteristics studied included an individual’s level of achievement motivation, attitude toward women’s sex-role identity, importance of marital plans, certainty of career attainment, and demographic background. The sample consisted of 68 female honor students and 63 male honor students. The authors found that an individual’s sex was the best single predictor of aspirations. The data suggested that men were much more likely to aspire to professional careers. Of the women
studied, "those who saw themselves as less traditional, nonconforming to society's image, were the same individuals who choose professional careers". The authors concluded that "women aspiring to professional occupations may have to go against tradition to obtain their high career goals" (p. 48).

Moracco, Wilson and Floyd (1981) investigated the occupational aspirations of a group of women who chose service in the United States Army as a career. By definition this choice was seen as more innovative and less traditional. The sample consisted of 100 male and 100 female military enlistees. Using the Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS) the researchers found that males scored significantly higher than females on "both the Idealistic and the Realistic scales" (p. 152). The authors cautioned about generalizing from these results given the "unusual sample of both males and females" (p. 154).

Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen (1981) looked at the educational and occupational aspirations of 1787 grade 10, 11 and 12 rural high school students. The respondents were given two questions: "In the four years following graduation what do you plan to do?" and "If you could do any job you wanted, what would it be?" (p. 58). The authors reported that female occupational aspirations were significantly higher than male occupational aspirations. They concluded that the change of pattern suggested by these female
aspirations would, if attained, serve to "narrow the income gap between rural men and women" (p. 64).

Socioeconomic status and gender then appear to play a large role in adolescents' occupational aspirations. To a lesser degree the availability of different occupational images can also be seen to be a contributing factor.

Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf (1968) investigated the differences between rural and urban Negro youths' occupational orientations. Focusing on the aspirations, expectations and anticipatory deflection of goals they conducted a study using 98 rural and 111 urban sophomore high school students. They noted that "urban youth aspired to high prestige professional positions at a rate three times greater than rural boys. Furthermore, urban youths also indicated a desire for lower-prestige professional and technical jobs more often than rural youth. Conversely, rural boys selected low-prestige jobs, both blue-collar and white-collar, much more frequently than their urban counterparts"(p. 146-47).

Spencer (1974) examined the occupational projections and orientations of the Choctaw Indians. The sample consisted of 133 students from Choctaw Central High—the only high school for Choctaws in the state of Mississippi. Results indicated that subjects' "aspirations were largely restricted to jobs which were locally visible and relevant and that they were largely limited to occupations which other Choctaws had succeeded in attaining" (p. 12).
Burlin (1976) examined the relationship of parents’ education and mother’s work and occupational status to the occupational aspirations of adolescent females. His sample consisted of 139 grade 11 females. The results suggested that "the fact that a mother works is not enough in itself to allow her daughter to aspire to a Moderate or to an Innovative occupation. What appears to be crucial to a daughter’s aspiring to an occupation in which 50% or fewer of the workers are women is if her mother is currently employed in this occupational category" (p. 103). These findings support the importance of mother as role model in the development of female adolescents’ career aspirations.

In her study of predictors of students’ life goals Zuckerman (1985) reported that men’s and women’s educational goals are associated with specific self-concepts and that unlike men "women’s goals are obviously influenced by the role models presented in their families" (p. 558). Given the "select colleges" attended by her sample the generalizability of this finding is limited.

Lee (1984) investigated the vocational development of high school students in rural areas by examining the relationship of self-concept, perceived parental influence, socioeconomic status, sex and race to occupational aspirations and expectations. The subjects included 375 10th grade students. Of these there were 92 black males, 87 white males, 114 black females and 82 white females. These students came from both two parent and single parent
families of both lower and middle socioeconomic status. Results indicated that "parental influence, socioeconomic status and self-concept have important relationships with the occupational aspirations and expectations of young men and women" (p. 33).


In summary, there is reason to believe that level of occupational aspiration is formed in early adolescence, that it is associated with socioeconomic position, gender, and visibility of occupations and that it is connected with specific self-concepts.

**EGO IDENTITY**

Possibly the greatest difficulty in reviewing the literature on Erikson's notion of ego identity is coming to terms with the breadth of meanings associated with the
concept. Bourne's (1978) two part review and appraisal of the state of research on ego identity in only a single context, that of adolescent developmental research, has the following to offer:

Viewed from a psychoanalytic vantage point ego identity has been described as a developmental product or outcome incorporating the individual’s experiences over the first five stages of the life cycle. It can also be understood as an adaptive accomplishment or achievement of the individual vis-a-vis his social development. On structural grounds the possibility of identity diffusion implies an intrapsychic structural deficit. In this context identity is also often referred to as a synthesis or complex configuration. Yet another aspect of the psychoanalytic perspective talks of the dynamic process of ego identity. Here ego identity is seen as testing, selecting and integrating the self-images derived from the psychosocial crisis of childhood in the light of the ideological climate of youth. Additional perspectives include the experiential which refers to the subjective experience of the individual and focuses around one’s 'sense of identity'. This is most often associated with the notion of continuity which includes a temporal continuity as well as a unity among various ascribed and achieved social roles. From here it is a relatively brief step to the psychosocial reciprocity perspective which implies a mutual relationship with one’s immediate community or larger society. Thus, ego identity does not make sense merely of oneself, but of oneself in a socially acknowledged way. The final perspective is the existential which takes an individual's basic life commitments as an indication of ego identity (p. 225-227).

A review of the literature pertaining to ego identity and adolescence indicated that much disagreement still exists about attempts to operationalize the concept.

By far the largest body of research pertaining to ego identity has been generated employing Marcia's Identity Status Paradigm. This approach employed a semistructured
interview and asked subjects to answer questions about present vocational and ideological commitment as well as past degrees of personal crisis. Based on subjects' responses they are placed into one of four identity statuses: (a) achievers, (b) moratoriums, (c) foreclosures, or (d) diffusions. Marcia (1966) viewed these statuses as representative of "individual styles of coping with the psychosocial task of forming an ego identity" (p. 558). Waterman (1982) pointed out that changes in identity status can be "characterized as progressive developmental shifts" (p. 343).

Some of the more pertinent studies employing Marcia's approach have been those focusing on personality correlates. Among the aspects researched is the relationship between the identity status paradigm and authoritarianism (Marcia, 1966, 1967; Marcia and Friedman, 1970; Matteson, 1974; Schenkel and Marcia, 1972), anxiety in men (Marcia, 1967; Oshman and Manosevitz 1974), anxiety in women (Marcia and Friedman, 1970), self-esteem (Marcia, 1966, 1967; Marcia and Friedman, 1970; Schenkel and Marcia (1972). Other researches have focused on the relationship between Marcia's paradigm and heterosexual relationships and intimacy (Orlofsky et al., 1978; Marcia, 1976b). Podd (1972) studied the relationship between ego identity status and level of moral reasoning.

In general these studies support the progressive developmental nature of Erikson's theory. Several
difficulties, however, still need to be addressed. Little of this research has been replicated and where this has been attempted the results are not always supportive of the original findings (Waterman, 1982). Perhaps more importantly, Marcia’s model has been criticized on the grounds that it only incorporates part of Erikson’s framework. Bourne (1978) suggested that Marcia’s interpretation addressed the existential and perhaps the psychosocial reciprocity aspects of Erikson’s theory. Cote and Levine (1988) echoed this sentiment by pointing out that research based on Marcia’s paradigm has "taken on a decidedly psychological perspective and in doing so has ignored Erikson’s attention to various processes and contexts of development and the interplay between the two" (p. 149).

While noticeably fewer in number, researchers employing methodologies other than Marcia’s also provide evidence which can be used to support Erikson’s construct. Bronson (1959) attempted to demonstrate the existence of interrelationships among various manifestations of identity diffusion by employing semistructured interviews. Intending to demonstrate construct validity for the concept of diffusion, Bronson suggested that those in a state of diffusion should: (1) be less certain about the relationship between the past and current notions of self, (2) show a higher degree of internal tension or anxiety, (3) be less certain about dominant personal characteristics, and (4)
fluctuate more in their feelings about self. He concluded that the concept of diffusion is a significant variable descriptive of variations among persons between the ages of 19-22 (p. 417). While acknowledging the modest correlations amongst the dimensions which Bronson measured, Bourne (1978) questioned the degree to which this study measured Erikson's concept of identity. He maintained that unless it could be shown that Bronson's variables do not correlate with other "nonidentity-pertinent dimensions such as social desirability, tolerance for ambiguity, and intelligence" (p. 230) discriminant validity had not been established.

Gruen (1960) utilized the real/ideal Q-sort discrepancy correlation score developed by Butler and Haigh (1954) to operationalize ego identity. Gruen hypothesized that a person with ego identity will show this stability by rejecting evaluations of him/herself made by others, if these evaluations do not coincide with his own crystallized notions about himself. On the other hand a "person still casting about for various identities, roles and values, one who shows signs of identity diffusion, will be more prone to accept others' evaluations of himself, even if they may have no demonstrable relationships with any of his fleeting images" (p. 231). Gruen concluded that a high self-ideal discrepancy and a willingness to accept others' definitions of self were two aspects of identity diffusion.

Bourne (1978) raised several questions about the capacity of the Q-sort, role consistency procedure to
measure the broad construct of identity. The most potent question that he asked regarding validity was whether this method measured "consolidation of identity" or rather a "consistency of self-image" (p. 232).

Other efforts to operationalize Erikson’s construct have used self-report questionnaires. Of these, Rasmussen’s (1964) is worthy of mention as it is the model for one of the instruments employed in the present study. Using 70 male navy recruits as his sample Rasmussen hypothesized that:

(1) individuals who demonstrate differences in their ability to effect an adequate psychosocial adjustment also will demonstrate differences in ego identity. The differences will be in the nature of greater ego identity being found in those individuals with a more adequate psychosocial adjustment.

(2) individuals presenting evidence of an adequate ego identity also will show evidence of significantly greater advance in the solution of the psychosocial crisis of early adulthood, in terms of healthy or positive derivatives of the psychosocial conflicts of that period, than will persons manifesting evidence of ego diffusion.

(3) individuals presenting evidence of satisfactory ego identity will demonstrate a greater degree of self-acceptance than will persons manifesting ego diffusion (p. 70).

His data supported his first and his third hypothesis. Rasmussen concluded that his study "lends support both to the value of Erikson’s theory ...and to his position that an adequate ego identity is necessary for a person to cope effectively with his social and cultural environment" (p.
Reviews of this study generated some important questions.

Bourne (1978) raised the issue of whether "studies employing questionnaire measures of ego identity [can] determine to what extent high-scoring subjects were disposed, wittingly or unwittingly, to present themselves in a favorable light" (p. 233). Echoing Bourne's concern about the social desirability bias, Enright et al (1983) pointed out that "no measure other than Rasmussen's comes close to capturing [the] complexity" of Erikson's construct (p. 90). Regardless of these concerns Enright et al (1983) concluded that Erikson's notion of identity is an internally consistent developmental construct (p. 101). Further support for the developmental nature of identity was presented by Stark and Traxler (1974) and Protinsky (1975).

Using 123 male college students aged 18-21, Munley (1975) empirically explored the relationship between Erikson's psychosocial stages and vocational choice and development. He concluded that individuals who show adjusted vocational choices demonstrate a higher level of development along Erikson's first six stages while those with problem vocational choices are apparently less successful in resolving Erikson's stage crisis. One of the more interesting and unexpected findings had to do with those who were classified as vocationally undecided. This group showed "uniformly low scores across all the stage variables" (p. 318).
As to research pertaining more directly to this study, little exists. The few attempts to measure identity development in high school subjects yielded mixed results. Pomerantz (1979) found that twelfth-grade females scored significantly higher than eighth-grade females on the Rasmussen Ego Identity Scale. The same study failed to find a significant difference for similar male age groups. Two other studies of ego identity development, La Voie (1976) drawing on grade 10, 11 and 12 males and females and Howard (1960) employing grade 10 and grade 12 females, found nonsignificant differences with increasing age levels.

SUMMARY

This literature review underlines the interest in self-concept and ego identity and demonstrates some of the unresolved difficulties. Both variables lack definitional clarity. Level of occupational aspiration, on the other hand, remains relatively unexplored. This present study investigates the relationship between level of occupational aspiration, self-concept, and ego identity.
In this chapter the author presents sample characteristics, development of the measuring instruments, and data collection procedure.

SUBJECTS

A total of 272 15-16 year olds volunteered to take part in this survey, 127 males and 145 females. Due to absences, 41 eligible students did not answer the questionnaires. All students who were asked participated willingly.

The subjects were students in a large junior secondary school in a relatively isolated northern community. Predominantly blue collar, the population of 17,000 is comprised of a variety of ethnic groups of both European and Asian decent. The largest ethnic group is Native Indian which makes up about 35% of the population. In comparison to other northern communities of its size and makeup this one has a large transient population.

A month prior to the commencement of the study a letter was sent home to all parents in the school explaining both the nature and the purpose of the research (Appendix D). Parents were invited to contact the school if they had any questions or concerns about the survey. No inquiries were made.

The survey was administered under regular classroom conditions during the students’ English classes. All
teachers who were approached allowed the study to be conducted during their class time and each teacher was willing to give up more than one class period if necessary.

One 60 minute period proved to be ample time for the students to complete the questionnaires. Although students were given an unlimited amount of time, the majority required no more than 50 minutes to complete the task. No student required more than the 60 minute period.

All subjects completed three paper pencil questionnaires: The Occupational Aspiration Scale, The Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale, and the Revised Ego Identity Scale.

MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

1. Occupational Aspiration Scale (Appendix A)

The Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS) is a self-descriptive instrument which is easily administered in a group setting. This instrument was designed to ascertain an individual's general level of occupational aspiration. It is a paper pencil questionnaire which ranks one's responses against the well established and generally accepted (NORC) prestige hierarchy. As Haller and Miller (1971) indicated:
The Occupational aspiration Scale is an eight item multiple-choice instrument. It includes items permitting responses at both the realistic and the idealistic expression levels of Level of Aspiration (LOA). These expression levels are each measured at two goal-periods: a short range and a long range career period. In this context, short range refers to the end of schooling and long range refers to age 30. The four possible combinations of these components are each assessed twice, thus giving a total of eight questions. The alternatives for each item consist of ten occupational titles drawn from among the ninety occupations ranked by the NORC study. Each occupation is presented as a possible response only once on the form. Alternative responses for each item systematically span the entire range of occupational prestige, and are scored from zero to nine. Operationally, an item score of 9 indicates that the respondent has chosen an occupation from among the eight highest prestige occupations on the NORC scale, and an item score of 0 indicates that one of the eight lowest prestige occupations has been chosen. Thus, the total possible score for all eight items ranges from zero to 72. (p. 58-59).

Haller and Miller (1971) pointed out that there are three minor criticisms of the OAS. "It is probably fakable, its response alternatives are unbalanced, and it may be subject to bias due to response sets" (p. 67). However, they have not found any evidence to suggest that any of these flaws has affected the validity of the instrument to any substantial degree.

Haller and Miller (1971) reported that the reliability of the OAS is about .80 with a standard error of measurement close to 5.30. The coefficient of stability measured over a ten week period was .77 which is quite close to the coefficients of internal consistency (.75, .82, and .84). These data are the result of tests administered to 17-18 year olds at two school districts: Lenawee County and Mason.
Both are situated in Michigan. The former used an N of 365 and the latter, which was used for the test-re-test method, had an N of 85. The authors final conclusion is that the "OAS appears to be reliable enough for research purposes and for use in counselling individuals" (p. 79).

Haller and Miller (1971) stated that the predictive validity of the instrument is unknown. Using indirect approaches to establish whether, generally, the OAS is valid the authors reported that:

The concurrent validity coefficient, measured against perhaps the best previous LOA instrument is $r = +.62$. Its profile structure is as predicted by theory. Its internal factor-analytic structure suggests that it is essentially a one-factor form. An inter-technique factor-analysis shows it to share a main factor with a free-response technique, though it is distinguished from this latter instrument by another substantial factor. At present this factor is unknown but it is probably due to the differences in ways of eliciting LOA responses. Finally, the relational fertility of the OAS agrees with that of all other LOA measures while the comparative relational fertility agrees well with perhaps the best of the previous LOA instruments (p. 103).

2. Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale (Appendix B)

This instrument was developed as a research tool to provide a quantitative measure of a child’s self concept. It is intended for use with children and adolescents aged 8 to 18. As the authors indicate, this instrument is,
a self-report questionnaire designed to assess how children and adolescents feel about themselves. The scale may be administered either individually or in groups. Children are shown a number of statements that tell how some people feel about themselves, and are asked to indicate whether each statement applies to them using dichotomous "yes" or "no" responses. As assessed by this instrument self-concept is defined as a relatively stable set of self-attitudes reflecting both a description and an evaluation of one's own behavior and attitudes (p. 1).

The author's information about the reliability of the instrument suggests that the Piers-Harris is highly reliable. Test-retest reliability coefficients range from .42 to .96. The median test-retest reliability was .73. Internal consistency estimates for the total score range from .88 to .93. This information is based on the findings of various researchers in a variety of populations: fifth graders (Piers and Harris, 1964); fifth to seventh graders (McLaughlin, 1970); students with articulation disorders (Querry, 1970); American Indian students (Lefley, 1974); Mexican-American migrant children (Henggeler and Tavormina, 1979); Junior High learning disabled students (Stewart, Crump, and McLean 1979) white, black and Mexican-American students in grades 4, 5 and 6 (Platten and Williams, 1979, 1981); white upper class seventh and eight graders (Shavelson and Bolus, 1982); and Junior and Senior High School students identified as mentally retarded (Wolf, 1981).

A variety of studies were reviewed in an attempt to ascertain the validity of the instrument. Commenting on the factor analytic studies that have investigated the
underlying structure of the Piers-Harris, Piers states that studies have replicated virtually all of the factors which he identified in his 1963 study. Since then, researchers have shown that the originally identified factors replicate across racial and ethnic lines. However, some studies have failed to identify all the original factors or have identified others. Consequently, Piers cautions against interpreting specific cluster scales (Piers, 1984).

When one moves from an analysis of the instrument at a cluster level to a composite score, the instrument is on more solid ground. Examining three aspects of self-concept (definition, instrumentation, and empirical data) for five different instruments, Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) stated that "self-concept interpretations of the total score on the Piers-Harris are warranted based on convergent validity coefficients" (p. 67). In other studies of the construct validity of the instrument, Winne et al. (1977) and a replicate study by Marx and Winnie (1978) concluded that "self-concept appears to be a unitary construct" (p. 69) as measured by the Piers-Harris. A similar conclusion was arrived at by Shavelson and Bolus (1982) when they measured self-concept as assessed by the Piers-Harris in conjunction with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. They reported correlations of .80 and .73 for two administrations with an average correlation of .77. They concluded that their study supported the Piers-Harris as a measure of general self-concept" (p. 70).
3. Revised Ego Identity Scale (Appendix C)

The original instrument was devised by Rasmussen as a technique for investigating Erikson's concept of Ego Identity. The instrument was revised by Enright et al. (1982) in an attempt to address the problem of susceptibility to a social desirability response set. Since there has not been much research conducted on either the Ego Identity Scale or the Revised Ego Identity Scale both will be commented on. As pointed out by Rasmussen (1961):

The scale was not developed as a formal diagnostic instrument; rather it was intended to provide a means of evaluating the adequacy with which the various psychosocial crisis conflicts had been resolved. This is approached by assessing, through a series of statements setting forth attitudes and overt behavioral responses, whether the subject's response to the derivatives of the criteria of psychosocial health for each crisis period is positive or negative. A positive response represents a psychosocially healthy solution in terms of the specific derivative in question, and a negative response reflects Erikson's criteria of ill health (p. 72).

The EIS purports to measure the first six psychosocial crisis stages. Three derivatives of each of these stages are used; each derivative is sampled by four items. To avoid a response set, the items have been cast so as to require a positive response for half and a negative response for the other half. The final form consists of 72 statements and yields a total identity score from 0-72, as well as a score for each of the six psychosocial crisis stages.
Rasmussen reported that the selected items reflect explicitly the criteria set forth by Erikson to measure the satisfactory and unsatisfactory resolution of the various psychosocial crisis conflicts. To further ensure the content validity, the statements were subjected to the test of being unanimously agreed upon by two judges as meeting the criteria for which they were written ie., the stage of the psychosocial development and the specific derivative within the given stage.

Two preliminary forms were devised to pre-test the items. Form I was administered to 107 consecutive incoming recruits of the U.S. Naval Training Center in San Diego. Form II was administered on the next day to a different group of new recruits, totalling 104 subjects. In pre-testing the items for use in the final form, two criteria were used as a basis for outright rejection of an item. First, those items responded to in the same direction (agree or disagree) by ninety-five per cent or more of the pre-test sample were discarded. Secondly, those items responded to by a majority of the subjects in a direction other than that anticipated on the basis of Erikson's theory were eliminated. Ten items were discarded on the basis of the first criterion and nine were eliminated under the second criterion. The items used in the final form were randomized in accordance with Snedecor's Table of Random Numbers.

Rasmussen stated that the reliability of the final scale was estimated by the split-half method, using the
Spearman-Brown formula. In two different administrations, each of which had a hundred subjects, the respective correlational coefficients were .85.

There are few other researchers who have commented on the EIS. Bach and Verdile (1975) compared Rasmussen’s Ego Identity Scale with Constantinople’s Inventory of (IPD) Psychosocial Development. Of the 279 high school subjects who filled out the IPD, 86 also completed the EIS. The authors concluded that both instruments measure similar constructs. A factor analysis of the responses given on the IPD when compared to the EIS raised the question of assessing a construct, such as identity, in terms of one score. In their concluding remarks the authors pointed out that neither inventory completely discriminates between those who have actually attained an ego identity and those who falsely claim that they have resolved this stage.

Questions of validity were also raised by Enright, Lapsley, Cullen and Lallensack (1982) in their investigation of the internal consistency reliability and construct validity of the EIS. After stating that the EIS seemed to be one of the few measures that attempted to operationalize the identity construct, they concluded that the instrument has adequate internal consistency reliability for the composite. Since the items are susceptible to a social desirability response set, they caution researchers about using the full 72 item scale, especially when attempting to measure and comment on possible change on the subscale.
level. These authors claimed that the 30 item Revised Ego Identity Scale (REIS) addresses the social desirability shortcomings in Rasmussen's model (Enright et al, 1982). This study used the Revised Ego Identity Scale in order to measure the relationship between Ego Identity and level of occupational aspiration.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The author administered the questionnaire to all of the subjects in a classroom situation. Students were told that the questionnaires were being administered as part of a research project and that their individual results would remain confidential. The author invited any student who was interested to see him privately if they wished to discuss their individual results.

The instruments were administered in one sixty minute setting. In each classroom the Piers Harris was administered first, followed by the Occupational Aspiration Scale and the Revised Ego Identity Scale. All questionnaires were administered in accordance with the standardized instructions that accompanied each instrument.

STATISTICAL HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between occupational aspiration (Ideal/Real) and self-concept as measured by the Occupational Aspiration Scale and the Piers Harris.
2. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between occupational aspiration (Ideal/Real) and ego identity as measured by the Occupational Aspiration Scale and the Revised Ego Identity Scale.
CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS

In this chapter the author reports on the collected data and comments on statistical conclusions.

Data was collected from a sample of 272 students. Due to absences, 41 students did not participate. Of the 272 volunteers, 145 were female and 127 were male.

Table 1 provides the means and standard deviations for male and female responses on the Realistic, Idealistic and Total Occupational Aspiration Scale.

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations for the Realistic Occupation Scale (R-OAS), Idealistic Occupation Scale (I-OAS) and Total Occupation Scale (T-OAS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Males (N=127)</th>
<th>Females (N=145)</th>
<th>Total (N=272)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-OAS</td>
<td>19.69</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>20.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-OAS</td>
<td>25.33</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>27.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-OAS</td>
<td>46.42</td>
<td>9.76</td>
<td>47.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The means and standard deviations for males and females for the Piers Harris and the Revised Ego Identity Scale are contained in Table 2.

**TABLE 2**

Means and Standard Deviations for the Piers Harris (PH) and the Revised Ego Identity Scale (REIS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Males (N=127)</th>
<th>Females (N=145)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PH</td>
<td>55.91</td>
<td>12.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REIS</td>
<td>19.11</td>
<td>4.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using a t test, there was no significant difference between males and females on realistic occupational aspirations or total occupational aspiration. However, females showed a significantly higher level of ideal aspirations than males. Accordingly, tests of hypotheses were conducted separately for males and females.

TABLE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ROA:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>19.69</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>20.68</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOA:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>25.33</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>27.16</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.35*</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAS:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>46.42</td>
<td>9.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>47.28</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td>.478</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* P < .05
Correlations between occupational aspiration, ego identity and self-concept are reported in Table 4. For males, positivity of self-concept was not related to occupational aspiration (neither total, real nor ideal). For females, positivity of self-concept related significantly to total, real, and ideal occupational aspirations.

For males, ego identity related significantly to realistic occupational aspirations, but not to ideal occupational aspirations. For females, ego identity related significantly to both realistic and idealistic occupational aspirations.

**TABLE 4**

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Between the Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale, Occupational Aspiration Scale (Realistic & Idealistic) and the Revised Ego Identity Scale (REIS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Males (N=127)</th>
<th>Females (N=145)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Realistic OAS/Piers Harris</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.189*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealistic OAS/Piers Harris</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.255*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total OAS/Piers Harris</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.221*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realistic OAS/REIS</td>
<td>.248*</td>
<td>.216*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealistic OAS/REIS</td>
<td>-.016</td>
<td>.249*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total OAS/REIS</td>
<td>.164*</td>
<td>.245*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<.05
Table 5 contains the Male and Female correlations between the Piers Harris Self Concept Scale and the Revised Ego Identity Scale. No partial correlations were conducted as these would only reflect what was already established with the Pearson Product Moment correlations.

**TABLE 5**

**Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Between the Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale and the Revised Ego Identity Scale (REIS)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Males (N=127)</th>
<th>Females (N=145)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Piers Harris/REIS</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUMMARY**

Significant relationships were found between self-concept and occupational aspiration (total, ideal and real), and between ego identity and occupational aspiration, but only for the total group. By assessing relationships separately for males and females, a different portrait emerged.

Correlations indicated that positivity of self-concept was not related to occupational aspiration for males whereas for females a significant relationship was established.

For males, ego identity related significantly to realistic occupational aspirations, but not to ideal
occupational aspirations. For females, ego identity related significantly to both realistic and idealistic occupational aspirations.

No partial correlations were conducted as they were not deemed necessary.
CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSION

In this chapter the author presents: (1) the results of this study, (2) limitations of this research, (3) practical implications, and (4) implications for research.

FINDINGS

Significant correlations were found between self-concept and occupational aspiration (total, ideal and real) and between ego identity and occupational aspiration, but only for the total group. By assessing the relationships separately, for males and females, a different portrait emerged.

For males, positivity of self-concept was not related to occupational aspirations (neither total, real nor ideal). For females, positivity of self-concept related significantly to total, real and ideal occupational aspirations.

For males, ego identity related significantly to real occupational aspirations but not to ideal occupational aspirations. For females, ego identity related significantly to both realistic and idealistic occupational aspirations.

LIMITATIONS

The size of the sample encourages the possibility to generalize the results to similar age groups. However, it
is important to keep in mind the unique features of this group. The sample was drawn from a small, northern, highly transient, community. Predominantly blue collar, the population of 17,000 is comprised of a variety of ethnic groups of both Asian and European decent. The largest ethnic group is Native Indian which makes up about 35% of the population.

Perhaps the greatest qualifiers though, reside with the capacity of any instrument to tap the variables in question. Neither self-concept nor ego identity are static entities. There are no levels at which one arrives. It would be more correct to see these as multifaceted, fluid and dynamic variables which are pervasive, powerful and ephemeral.

Another consideration is the age level of the sample. The images of self that one holds are perhaps never as precarious as they are during adolescence. It is possible that the same sample would yield substantially different results on another occasion.

Questions also need to be posited about the Occupational Aspiration Scale. The list of choices offered may not have been adequate. It is possible that an open ended questionnaire would have yielded different results.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study offer some partial support for Super's theory of career development. Data presented in Table 4 indicated a positive relationship between self-
concept and level of occupational aspiration for females. This finding supports Super’s notion of occupational aspiration as implementation of self-concept. No such relationship was demonstrated for males (Table 4). It is difficult to comment on the male response.

This study also supports Osipow’s (1968) observations about the limitations of Super’s position regarding career development. The data (Table 4) suggests that only females with a strong self concept or an intact ego aspire to upper level careers. Females with a weak self-concept or a fragmented ego tend to aspire to lower level careers. The female response supports Osipow’s suggestion that Super’s theory fails to account for lower level aspirations. For while it is possible to argue that lower level aspirations are an implementation of a weak self-concept or a fragmented ego this argument has a hollow ring to it. To hear that a person is striving to become a waitress, clerk, or garbage collector sounds odd precisely because there is a lack of desire associated with such a decision. Rather, such a move has all the qualities of resignation. It is this sense of resignation associated with lower level aspirations that gives credence to Osipow’s criticism of Super. Super’s theory also fails to account for the male response. A possible explanation for this result might be found with other researchers. Walsh and Taylor (1980) maintain that workers who do not find intrinsic challenges and satisfaction in their jobs look to other parts of their
lives for investment of self. One could speculate that being brought up in a Predominantly blue collar environment has caused males to disassociate work from self-concept.

Jordaan (1963) suggested that Super’s theories were more concerned with the results of exploration than with the process of exploration. The male/female differences on the Ideal/Real subscales (Table 4) cause one to wonder whether males go through a different career selection process than females. Perhaps the "vicious cycle" that Greenhaus and Simon (1976) alluded to can be associated not only with socioeconomics but also with gender.

The data also offers limited support for Gottfredson’s (1981) theory. The differences between ideal as opposed to real female aspirations (Table 4) lend themselves to her argument that occupational preferences may be circumscribed before self-concept crystalizes. It could be that this difference is a further example of Burlin’s (1975) conclusion that personal and social variables dampened realistic aspirations of adolescent females. One could also speculate that the lack of appropriate role models (1976) amongst the females in question has led to the difference in realistic as opposed to idealistic aspirations. The male response cannot be explained within the confines of Gottfredson’s theory.

Several studies (Burlin, 1975; Barnett, 1975; Marini, 1978) focused on the occupational limitations associated with gender. Data presented in Table 4 show that, unlike
males, female results on ego identity/ideal aspiration measures yield significant correlations. On the other hand ego identity/realistic aspiration measures yield significant correlations for both groups. One could speculate that, as compared to males, females are already showing signs of socially imposed limits on their career choices.

Results on the self-concept/occupational aspiration subscales (Table 4) are also worth mentioning. Burgoyne's (1979) investigation of gender differences regarding ideal/expected self and vocational expectations led him to conclude that vocational theories needed to be revised. He maintained that in deciding on a career a person has several self-concepts that can be brought into the process. The responses provided by the female portion of this sample support Burgoyne's position. The male response, on the other hand, suggests a separation between self-concept and occupational aspiration.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The gender differences identified in this study have implications for career counselling. Given the differences between their real and ideal aspirations, females may need help with recognizing occupations that are open to them. On the other hand males, who appear to be locked into their real aspirations, might benefit from investing more time and energy in idealized occupations.
It is also interesting to consider these established statistical relationships in light of more general questions about the nature and purpose of work and the role of the counselor.

If we look upon work as a means of dealing with the existential void, that is as a way of bringing purpose into our life, then work can be experienced as a calling. For some it can even be a divine calling. In this vein, work has the capacity to become our reason for being and questions of aspiration may take on the sort of magnitude most often associated with a search for truth.

At the other end of the vocational spectrum, work can be viewed simply as a means of providing the necessities of life. In this context, work may be but the means of providing free time which in turn allows for more purposeful and meaningful activities. Here, the greatest concern with level of aspiration may be simply a matter of how to maximize earning power.

Work may also be seen as an exercise in self exploration. In short, it is a process used to address issues of self-concept or an environment within which to try on different identities. It is in this context perhaps, that work, self-conceptualization and ego crystallization unfold in the "leap frog" fashion that Gottfredson (1981) suggested. When considered in this light, level of aspiration seems intimately connected with our capacity to become.
These philosophical distinctions about the nature of work have definite implications for the role and the function of the counsellor. Those counsellors who see work as a reason for being are faced with an awesome responsibility. More to the point, when this responsibility is measured and evaluated in our present school system — where a substantial amount of career counselling occurs for adolescents — there is reason to worry. In order to properly address the aspiration/self-concept/identity relationships, school counsellors would need the resources (time and training) to help clients fully explore both their real and their ideal occupational aspirations. Perhaps the goal here might be to help clients construct an imagined self, a self that would both reveal and possibly offer a way to move beyond the pre-established limitations the client may have incorporated into his/her self image. At the same time, such an activity might enable the client to articulate indirectly his/her particular notion of work.

On the other hand, counsellors who view work as a way to purchase free time may wish to focus on helping the client to match his/her aptitudes and skills with the most lucrative work available. It is this task that our schools appear much more suited to addressing. Given the client load that most high school counsellors carry, it is probably not reasonable to expect more than an imagistic portrayal of possible lifestyles that various occupations allow for.
With the technological advantages that computers provide, it should take little effort to enhance the much used Choices Program with a visual experience of a typical day in the life of whatever occupation one's aptitudes and skills encourage one to pursue.

Counsellors who see work as a means of exploring the self, of trying on an identity, might help the client to develop and explore the notion of work as several possible careers as opposed to work as one career. Given the very fluid nature of the adolescent personality, this approach may be not only the most useful but also the most empathic.

Regardless of the counsellor's orientation, career counselling in the high school system could be improved by increasing the amount of time spent on issues such as self-concept, ego identity, and occupational aspiration. To this end, counsellors might be wise to help teachers develop means of addressing these concepts within presently established subject areas. Though this approach would increase pressure on the counsellor in the short term, it would substantially increase the amount of time that adolescents have to contemplate both themselves and their occupational possibilities.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH**

The positive relationships between level of occupational aspiration and self-concept and level of aspiration and ego identity serve to remind one of how
little is known about these constructs. Given the dynamic nature of both self-concept and ego identity, much more needs to be understood about the manner in which individuals perceive and interpret their life experiences. How is it that these moments crystalize to provide us with our sense of who we are? The question only becomes more perplexing when the relationship between the self and the world of work is explored.

Is it that the well accepted self and the mature ego aspire to work that is intrinsically interesting, rewarding and purposeful? Or, could it be that the ability to imagine oneself in different roles fuels level of aspiration which in turn dictates the quality of one’s life. Attempts to answer such questions are, in part, a matter of theory.

At the heart of the matter is the question raised by Werff (1985) about self-concept research. A methodology that does justice to the dynamic nature of our self-concept would yield far richer results. The same might be said about research on level of occupational aspiration. This study would be well supplemented with research on the same sample with a qualitative design.

SUMMARY

To return briefly to the original question about the relationship between occupational aspiration, self-concept and ego identity, one is left with the conclusion that a
definite relationship exists. The degree and direction of that relationship is yet to be established.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A - OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION SCALE

YOUR NAME__________________________________________

THIS SET OF QUESTIONS CONCERNS YOUR INTEREST IN DIFFERENT KINDS OF JOBS. THERE ARE EIGHT QUESTIONS. EACH ONE ASKS YOU TO CHOOSE ONE JOB OUT OF TEN PRESENTED. BE SURE YOUR NAME IS ON THE TOP OF THIS PAGE. READ EACH QUESTION CAREFULLY. THEY ARE ALL DIFFERENT. ANSWER EACH ONE THE BEST YOU CAN. DON'T OMIT ANY.

Question 1 Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN GET when your SCHOOLING IS OVER?

1.1 _____ Lawyer
1.2 _____ Welfare worker for a city government
1.3 _____ Canadian member of Parliament
1.4 _____ Corporal in the Army
1.5 _____ Canadian Supreme Court Justice
1.6 _____ Night Watchman
1.7 _____ Sociologist
1.8 _____ Policeman
1.9 _____ County agricultural agent
1.10 _____ Filling station attendant
Question 2  Of the jobs listed in this question, which ONE would you choose if you were FREE TO CHOOSE ANY of them you wished when your SCHOOLING IS OVER?

2.1______Member of the board of directors of a large corporation
2.2______Undertaker
2.3______Banker
2.4______Machine operator in a factory
2.5______Physician (doctor)
2.6______Clothes presser in a laundry
2.7______Accountant for a large business
2.8______Railroad conductor
2.9______Railroad engineer
2.10______Singer in a night club

Question 3  Of the jobs listed in this question which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN GET when your SCHOOLING IS OVER?

3.1______Nuclear physicist
3.2______Reporter for a daily newspaper
3.3______County judge
3.4______Barber
3.5______Provincial Premier
3.6______Soda fountain clerk
3.7______Biologist
3.8______Mail carrier
3.9______Official of an international labor union
3.10______Farm hand
Question 4   Of the jobs listed in this question, which ONE would you choose if you were FREE TO CHOOSE ANY of them you wished when your SCHOOLING IS OVER?

4.1____Psychologist
4.2____Manager of a small store in a city
4.3____Head of a department in a provincial government
4.4____Clerk in a store
4.5____Cabinet member in the federal government
4.6____Janitor
4.7____Musician in a symphony orchestra
4.8____Carpenter
4.9____Radio announcer
4.10____Coal Miner

Question 5   Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN HAVE by the time you are 30 YEARS OLD?

5.1____Civil engineer
5.2____Bookkeeper
5.3____Minister or Priest
5.4____Streetcar motorman or city bus driver
5.5____Diplomat in the Canadian Foreign Service
5.6____Share croper (one who owns no livestock or farm machinery, and does not manage the farm)
5.7____Author of novels
5.8____Plumber
5.9____Newspaper columnist
5.10____Taxi driver
Question 6  Of the jobs listed in this question, which ONE would you choose to have when you are 30 YEARS OLD, if you were FREE TO HAVE ANY of them you wished?

6.1_____Airline pilot
6.2_____Insurance agent
6.3_____Architect
6.4_____Milk route man
6.5_____Mayor of a large city
6.6_____Garbage collector
6.7_____Captain in the army
6.8_____Garage mechanic
6.9_____Owner-operator of a printing shop
6.10_____Railroad section hand

Question 7  Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN HAVE by the time you are 30 YEARS OLD?

7.1_____Artist who paints pictures that are exhibited in galleries
7.2_____Travelling salesman for wholesale concern
7.3_____Chemist
7.4_____Truck driver
7.5_____College professor
7.6_____Street sweeper
7.7_____Building contractor
7.8_____Local official of a labor union
7.9_____Electrician
7.10_____Restaurant waiter
Question 8  Of the jobs listed in this question, which ONE would you choose to have when you are 30 YEARS OLD, if you were FREE TO HAVE ANY of them you wished?

8.1 Owner of a factory that employs about 100 people
8.2 Playground director
8.3 Dentist
8.4 Lumberjack
8.5 Scientist
8.6 Shoeshiner
8.7 Public school teacher
8.8 Owner-operator of a lunch stand
8.9 Trained machinist
8.10 Dock worker
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My classmates make fun of me</td>
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<td>2. I am a happy person</td>
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<td>3. It is hard for me to make friends</td>
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<td>4. I am often sad</td>
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<td>5. I am smart</td>
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<td>6. I am shy</td>
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<td>7. I get nervous when the teacher calls on me</td>
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<td>8. My looks bother me</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. When I grow up, I will be an important person</td>
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<td>10. I get worried when we have tests in school</td>
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<td>11. I am unpopular</td>
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<td>12. I am well behaved in school</td>
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<td>13. It is usually my fault when something goes wrong</td>
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<td>14. I cause trouble to my family</td>
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<td>15. I am strong</td>
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<td>16. I have good ideas</td>
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<td>17. I am an important member of my family</td>
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<td>18. I usually want my own way</td>
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<td>19. I am good at making things with my hands</td>
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<td>20. I give up easily</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
21. I am good in my school work Yes No
22. I do many bad things Yes No
23. I can draw well Yes No
24. I am good in music Yes No
25. I behave badly at home Yes No
26. I am slow in finishing my school work Yes No
27. I am an important member of my class Yes No
28. I am nervous Yes No
29. I have pretty eyes Yes No
30. I can give a good report in front of the class Yes No
31. In school I am a dreamer Yes No
32. I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s) Yes No
33. My friends like my ideas Yes No
34. I often get into trouble Yes No
35. I am obedient at home Yes No
36. I am lucky Yes No
37. I worry a lot Yes No
38. My parents expect too much of me Yes No
39. I like being the way I am Yes No
40. I feel left out of things Yes No
41. I have nice hair Yes No
42. I often volunteer in school Yes No
43. I wish I were different Yes No
44. I sleep well at night Yes No
45. I hate school Yes No
46. I am among the last to be chosen for games
Yes No
47. I am sick a lot
Yes No
48. I am often mean to other people
Yes No
49. My classmates in school think I have good ideas
Yes No
50. I am unhappy
Yes No
51. I have many friends
Yes No
52. I am cheerful
Yes No
53. I am dumb about most things
Yes No
54. I am good-looking
Yes No
55. I have lots of pep
Yes No
56. I get into a lot of fights
Yes No
57. I am popular with boys
Yes No
58. People pick on me
Yes No
59. My family is disappointed in me
Yes No
60. I have a pleasant face
Yes No
61. When I try to make something, everything seems to go wrong
Yes No
62. I am picked on at home
Yes No
63. I am a leader in games and sports
Yes No
64. I am clumsy
Yes No
65. In games and sports, I watch instead of play
Yes No
66. I forget what I learn
Yes No
67. I am easy to get along with
Yes No
68. I lose my temper easily
Yes No
69. I am popular with girls
70. I am a good reader
71. I would rather work alone than with a group
72. I like my brother (sister)
73. I have a good figure
74. I am often afraid
75. I am always dropping or breaking things
76. I can be trusted
77. I am different from other people
78. I think bad thoughts
79. I cry easily
80. I am a good person
APPENDIX C - REVISED EGO IDENTITY SCALE

Name_________________________________________

Directions

The following pages contain a number of statements which are related to opinions and feelings about yourself and life in general. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Thus, you should give YOUR OWN personal opinion in answering the statements.

Read each statement, decide how you really feel about it, and mark your answer in the appropriate column. If the statement is one with which you agree or generally agree as it applies to you or what you believe, mark it AGREE. If you disagree or generally disagree with the statement, mark it DISAGREE on the answer sheet.

It is important that you work right through the statements and answer each one. Don't spend too much time on any one statement, but try to be as accurate as possible in deciding whether you generally agree or disagree with the statements. Several of the above statements may sound the same, but don't worry about this. Answer each one as you come to it.

CHECK ONE ANSWER ONLY FOR EACH STATEMENT

1. I seem to have regrets when I have to give up my pleasures right now for goals or things I want in the future. agree_____ disagree_____

2. No one seems to understand me. agree_____ disagree_____ 

3. I have a fear of being asked questions in class because of what other people will think if I don't know the answer. agree_____ disagree_____

4. Working is nothing more than a necessary evil that a person must put up with to eat. agree_____ disagree_____
5. It doesn't pay to worry much about decisions you have already made. agree____ disagree____

6. People are usually honest in dealing with each other. agree____ disagree____

7. From what others have told me, I feel I am a person who is very easy to talk to. agree____ disagree____

8. When given a job, I try never to get so tied up on what I am doing at the moment so as to lose sight of what comes next. agree____ disagree____

9. I work best when I know my work is going to be compared with the work of others. agree____ disagree____

10. I have no difficulty in avoiding people who may get me in trouble. agree____ disagree____

11. When I have to work, I usually get pretty bored no matter what the job is. agree____ disagree____

12. It doesn't worry me if I make a mistake in front of my friends. agree____ disagree____

13. The decisions I have made in the past have usually been the right ones. agree____ disagree____

14. Although I sometimes feel very strongly about things, I never show other people how I feel. agree____ disagree____

15. After I do something, I usually worry about whether it was the right thing. agree____ disagree____

16. I am confident that I will be successful in life when I finally decide on a career. agree____ disagree____
17. It's best not to let other people know too much about your family background if you can keep from it. 

agree____ disagree____

18. I really don't have any definite goals or plans for the future. I'm content to let the university decide what I should do. 

agree____ disagree____

19. I never enjoyed taking part in school clubs or student government activity. 

agree____ disagree____

20. If I am not careful people try to take advantage of me. 

agree____ disagree____

21. In general, people can be trusted. 

agree____ disagree____

22. It is very seldom that I find myself wishing I had a different face or body. 

agree____ disagree____

23. I would get along better in life if I were better looking. 

agree____ disagree____

24. At my age a person must make his own decisions, even though his/her parents might not agree with the things he/she does. 

agree____ disagree____

25. It's not hard to keep your mind on one thing if you really have to. 

agree____ disagree____

26. It seems as if I just can't decide what I really want to do in life. 

agree____ disagree____

27. I am always busy doing something, but I seem to accomplish less than other people even though they don't work as hard as I do. 

agree____ disagree____
28. When I'm in a group, I find it hard to stand up for my ideas if I think other people won't agree with me.  agree___ disagree___

29. I have at least one close friend with whom I can share almost all of my feelings and personal thoughts.  agree___ disagree___

30. I do not feel that my looks and actions keep me from getting ahead in life.  agree___ disagree___

31. Even when I do a good job in my work, other people don't seem to realize it or give me credit.  agree___ disagree___

32. One of the hardest things for a young person to overcome is his family background.  agree___ disagree___

33. The best part of my life is still ahead of me.  agree___ disagree___

34. In a group, I can usually stand up for what I think is right without being embarrassed.  agree___ disagree___

35. I seem to have the knack or ability to make other people relax and enjoy themselves at a party.  agree___ disagree___

36. I can't seem to say no when the group does something which I don't think is right.  agree___ disagree___

37. Being without close friends is worse than having enemies.  agree___ disagree___

38. I am not sure what I want to do as a lifetime occupation, but I have some pretty definite plans and goals for the next few years.  agree___ disagree___
39. It is easier to make friends with people you like if they don’t know too much about your background.

agree____ disagree____

40. I don’t like sports or games where you always have to try and do better than the next guy.

agree____ disagree____

41. A person who can be trusted is hard to find.

agree____ disagree____

42. I believe that I must make my own decisions in important matters as no one can live my life for me.

agree____ disagree____

43. In order to be comfortable or feel at ease, a person must get along with others but he doesn’t really need close friends.

agree____ disagree____

44. I am proud of my family background.

agree____ disagree____

45. I cannot keep my mind on one thing.

agree____ disagree____

46. It is a good idea to have some plan as to what has to be done next, no matter how much you have to do at the moment.

agree____ disagree____

47. During the past few years, I have taken little or no part in clubs, organized group activity, or sports.

agree____ disagree____

48. I have found that people I work with frequently don’t appreciate or seem to understand my abilities.

agree____ disagree____

49. For some reason, it seems that I have never really gotten to know the people I have worked with, even though I liked them.

agree____ disagree____
50. I am pretty content to be the way I am.

51. I can't stand to wait for things I really want.

52. A person is a lot happier if he doesn't get too close to others.

53. Even though I try, it is usually pretty hard for me to keep my mind on a task or job.

54. One of the good parts of being a teenager is getting together with a group which makes its own rules and does things as a group.

55. When it comes to working, I never do anything I can get out of.

56. My way of doing things is apt to be misunderstood by others.

57. A person who hasn't been a member of a well organized group or club at some time in his teens has missed a lot.

58. When I think about my future, I feel I have missed my best chances for making good.

59. I like to tackle a tough job as it gives me a lot of satisfaction to finish it.

60. I am always busy but it seems that I am usually spinning my wheels and never seem to get anywhere.
61. It is very important that your parents approve of everything you do. agree disagree

62. It doesn't bother me when my friends find out that I can't do certain things as well as other people. agree disagree

63. As a rule, I don't regret the decisions I make. agree disagree

64. I feel pretty sure that I know what I want to do in the future and I have some definite goals. agree disagree

65. I don't have any trouble concentrating on what I am doing. agree disagree

66. A person can't be happy in a job where he is always competing against others. agree disagree

67. I feel I have missed my opportunity to really be a success in life. agree disagree

68. If a person wants something worthwhile, he should be willing to wait for it. agree disagree

69. At home, I enjoyed work or spare time activities where I had to compete against others. agree disagree

70. I never make any important decisions without getting help or advice from my family. agree disagree

71. It is better to say nothing in public than to take a chance on other people hearing you make a mistake. agree disagree
72. I lose interest in things if I have to wait too long to get them. 

agree____ disagree____
APPENDIX D - LETTER OF CONSENT

Dear Parent/Guardian,

I am writing this letter in order to seek your permission for your son or daughter to participate in research I am undertaking as part of my Masters program in Counselling Psychology. The study would require about an hour of your child's time and would be conducted during the school day. To participate in this research your child would need to fill out three questionnaires which would focus on your son's or daughter's career aspirations, and self concept. None of the questionnaires would require your son or daughter to identify themselves. Of course, should your child wish to discuss the specific results of their own questionnaire I would be most willing to accommodate them. Otherwise, in keeping with the University of British Columbia's research guidelines all materials gathered in the study will be destroyed in a year's time. Should you require any more information please do not hesitate to call me.

Given your child's age, the University requires that I receive written permission to include your son or daughter in such a study. Therefore, if you would be so kind as to allow your child to answer these questionnaires please sign this letter and have your son or daughter return this letter to me.
Thank you for considering my request.

Yours truly,

M. Loncaric

I hereby grant permission for my SON/DAUGHTER to participate in this study.

(Parent or Guardian)