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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG EARLY MATERNAL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT,
CAREER SATISFACTION, AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR BABY BOOM
WOMEN AT MIDLIFE

A clinical dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Psychology

by

Wendy Knight

October, 2009

Tomás Martínez, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This clinical dissertation, written by

Wendy Knight

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PSYCHOLOGY

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DEDICATION

To Elisha for everything, beginning with the index cards.

To Mike for being the apple of my eye and for inspiring me to be my best and truest self.

To my moms for being my biggest cheerleaders.

To my own incredible relational system of family, friends, and church who loved me through the ups and downs.

And to all women who persist until they reach their goal I offer the words of Nola Ochs:

“There's a great satisfaction in completing what you started.”

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I thank Dr. Robert deMayo who has been a welcome part of my graduate education since the beginning. His commitment to students, Pepperdine, and the field of psychology is expressed with caring and excellence. He always pointed me in the right direction.

I also thank Dr. Pamela Dirham who shared my interest in the lives of women. She is a role model for teaching, practice, and critical thinking.

I am indebted to the staff at Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology, especially Cheryl Saunders, Psy. D. program administrator, John Baker, communications facilitator, and Michael Bell, library staff member. They provided the help I needed with good cheer, efficiency, and love.

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The Relationships Among Early Maternal Emotional Support, Career Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction for Baby Boom Women at Midlife
Chairperson: Tomás Martínez, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

Maternal emotional support affects the early career behaviors of daughters, yet little is known about its contribution to the career outcomes of women later in life. This study used a lifespan approach along with relational theory to study the career satisfaction and life satisfaction of 101 employed, middle-aged women of the baby boom generation. Correlational analysis determined that career satisfaction and life satisfaction were strongly correlated, with much of the shared variance explained by supportive relationships at home and at work. Also strongly correlated with both career satisfaction and life satisfaction was the belief that one's career goals had been realistic. Maternal emotional support did not predict career satisfaction, but it may have contributed to the formulation of goals and to the development of relational skills that led to supportive relationships. Maternal emotional support did predict life satisfaction. The study is limited in its generalizability because of the restricted range of the sample's demographic variables. Recommendations for practice center around the acknowledgment of women's relational identity and the development of relational competencies.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This study investigates career and life satisfaction for the women of the generation born between 1946 and 1964, known as the baby boom generation. As with every generation, this generation was imprinted by the social and cultural events that dominated its adolescence (Duncan & Agronick, 1995). Going into the 1960s, traditional gender role expectations at the family and institutional levels, reinforced by the post-World War II social climate, exerted a powerful influence on young women's career opportunities and aspirations (Hoffman, 1977). However, the 1960s and 1970s saw social changes that challenged gender role expectations for women and men, at home and at work. An increased awareness of women's issues, largely as a result of the Women's Liberation Movement in the 1960s, led to legislation and federal programs that promoted women's rights in many areas, including college admissions and personnel practices, and paved the way for nontraditional careers for women. Career achievement appeared at least to become more of an option for these women than it had been for the prior generation, particularly for white, middle-class women.

In the ensuing 40 years, the women of this cohort experienced education, employment, and family life, each in her own way. At the turn of the 21st century, they are closer to the end of their work lives than they are to the beginning, and in a position to review their life accomplishments as part of preparing for the next stage of life (Landman & Manis, 1992; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). Studies have shown that a woman's level of satisfaction with her achievements in the areas of career, education, and family can affect her well being at midlife and beyond (Adams, Kaufman, Ostrove, & Stewart, 1998; Carr, 1997; Gilbert, 1993; Holahan, Holahan, & Wonacott,

1999; McQuaide, 1998a, 1998b). The primary focus of this study is on one area subject to the life-review process: career achievement. Specifically, it will explore women's feelings of satisfaction with their career achievement, otherwise known as subjective career success or career satisfaction (Judge, Kammermeyer-Mueller, & Bretz, 2004)

In this study, both career satisfaction and life satisfaction will be looked at in relation to early maternal emotional support. Emotional support is germane to the study of women and achievement since, according to feminist theorists, emotional support, or empathy, is a key component of relationship, and relationship is at the core of women's development (Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1993; Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver, & Surrey, 1991). As such, it would be unwise to study the issue of women and achievement without considering the impact of emotional support and relationship.

The earliest relationships are with parents. While both the mother-daughter and father-daughter relationships contribute to daughters' development, including career-related behaviors (Blustein, Walbridge, & Friedlander, 1991; Cutrona, Cole, Colangelo, Assouline, & Russell, 1994; Dillman, 1989; Lucas, 1997), the nature of these relationships is different. Fathers tend to be more instrumental, providing income, discipline, and protection, while mothers are typically more expressive, through caregiving, companionship, and shared activities (Finley & Schwartz, 2006; Paquette, 2004; Parsons & Bales, 1955). This study will focus primarily on one parent-child dyad, the mother-daughter relationship, and one aspect of that relationship, emotional support. The mother-daughter relationship is particularly important in this regard, since a woman's first relationship is with her mother (Chodorow, 1978) and it forms "the model of relationships" (Jordan et al., 1991, p. 54).

For African-Americans, a subgroup in the current study, parental emotional support is likely to take the form of expectations and encouragement. It is affected by socio-economic status with middle class parents being more likely than working class parents to expect their daughters to be successful in careers (Hill, 1997; Tate, 1996).

How maternal emotional support ultimately correlates with career achievement across the life course is not known, although recent studies have connected early emotional support with physical and emotional health status at midlife (Shaw, 2002; Thomas, 1995). Studies of college-aged women have shown that early emotional support is known to moderate the effects of a variety of conditions on a woman's career achievement potential (Arnold, 1993; Coyne-Schaefer, 1998; Cutrona et al., 1994; Kritis, 1998), yet there has been very little follow-up on how early emotional support affects career outcomes.

The current study proposed that the early emotional support provided by her mother, as recollected, would be positively correlated with the satisfaction that a woman felt when evaluating her midlife progress toward achieving career goals, as well as her overall satisfaction with life. A review of the literature has revealed several cultural variables that affected career achievement for this cohort, as well as ways in which maternal emotional support can positively influence career achievement through the development of relational competence.

This study differentiates between subjective and objective measures of achievement. Subjective (intrinsic and internal) career achievement focuses on perceptions of satisfaction with one's overall job experiences, while objective (extrinsic and observable) career achievement focuses on actual accomplishments in job level and salary (Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden, 2004). Subjective career success does not necessarily

covary with objective career success (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). In other words, one may be outwardly successful, but not satisfied with one's career; conversely, one may not be outwardly or objectively successful, but may still be satisfied with one's career.

This study also differentiates between career satisfaction and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction refers to "individuals' satisfaction with the challenge and meaning ascribed to their current jobs" (Erdogan et al., 2004, p. 309). Career satisfaction, on the other hand, refers to satisfaction with overall progress toward goals, and is based on one's accumulated life work (Judge et al., 1995).

Knowledge related to career satisfaction for women is important because career satisfaction correlates with overall life satisfaction (Holahan et al., 1999; Kalin, 1998; Stewart & Vandewater, 1999), and life satisfaction can have implications for one's physical and mental health at midlife and beyond (Holahan et al.; Shaw, Krause, Chatters, Connell, & Ingersoll-Dayton, 2004; Thomas, 1995). Career satisfaction "can also be viewed as an antecedent or component of an individual's overall quality of life, or life satisfaction" (Lounsbury, Park, Sundstrum, Williamson, & Pemberton, 2004, p. 396). As such, career satisfaction and life satisfaction will be studied together.

Purpose and Importance of the Study

This study is intended to add to the field of career theory for women. While there has been much research on achievement-related behaviors and influences among college-aged women, there has been little follow-up research in later adulthood. Stone (1996), in her work on women's career development, states that most research has been done with college populations regarding perceived choices and abilities, rather than with working

women. As such, it may be necessary to add to women's career development theory retrospectively, based on the actual experiences, rather than plans, of women.

The population under study is the first generation of women to come of age during the rapid, liberal social changes of the 1960s and 1970s. These women joined the workforce in record numbers. In 1950, 34% of women ages 25-34 participated in the workforce, while much of the remainder were home raising their baby boom children (Fuller, 1999). By 1980, 65% of women in the 25-34 year age bracket, baby boomers, participated in the workforce (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2005). Not only did these women begin working earlier than the prior generation, they expect to continue working full time past the traditional retirement age of 65 (University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, 2004). While women have always worked, the idea of work beyond typical "women's work" such as teaching and nursing became more of an option for the women of the baby boom generation.

Using developmental and life course perspectives, this study explored career and life satisfaction among a sample of employed, middle-aged women. These women are poised to review their life achievements through the process of life review (Landman & Manis, 1992; Levinson et al., 1978; Stewart & Ostrove, 1998; Stewart & Vandewater, 1999; Wrosch & Heckhausen, 2002). Achievements in the areas of career, education, and family are significant at midlife because these are the areas most commonly evaluated during the midlife review (Gilbert, 1993; Landman & Manis, 1992; Levinson, et al., 1978; Stewart & Ostrove, 1998; Stewart & Vandewater, 1999; Sudeck, 1992; Wrosch & Heckhausen, 2002). Life review is a developmental process of introspection and reexamination of earlier choices that occurs for most persons, whether or not they have achieved their goals (Jung, 1978; Levinson et al., 1978). The outcome of the life review

is clinically significant in that it affects the physical and psychological well being, currently and in later life, of middle-aged persons, which currently includes baby boom women (Carr, 1997; Holahan et al., 1999; Thomas, 1995). Also, with a potential labor shortage as this generation reaches retirement age (Callanan & Greenhaus, 2008) and the desire of many women to continue working after retirement age (University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, 2004); a broader understanding of factors affecting career satisfaction is needed. Using questionnaires to formalize an aspect of the life review process for a sample of the population, this study presents an opportunity to better understand career satisfaction for women.

The results of this study will also add to the body of knowledge that exists in relation to midlife, “the least studied and most ill-defined of any period in life” (Brim, 1997, ¶ 2), for the benefit of current and future generations of women. It will also add to the body of knowledge in one growing area in the study of women and achievement: the importance of relationships in women’s career development, beginning with the mother-daughter relationship (Coyne-Shaefer, 1998; Cutrona et al., 1994; Dankner, 1995; Dillman, 1989; Eichenbaum & Orbach, 1988; Jordan et al., 1991; Kritis, 1998; Lucas, 1997; O’Brien, Friedman, Tipton, & Linn, 2000; Tyson, 1999).

The purpose of this study is, for a sample of middle-aged, working women to

1. Assess levels of life satisfaction, career satisfaction, and early maternal emotional support.
2. Explore the relationship between life satisfaction and career satisfaction.
3. Determine whether early maternal emotional support correlates positively with life satisfaction.

4. Determine whether early maternal emotional support correlates positively with career satisfaction.

Review of the Literature

Baby Boom Women and Achievement

The review of the literature includes: (a) an overview of three key factors affecting achievement for baby boom women, (b) the role of early maternal emotional support in achievement, and (c) a discussion of subjective well being in the areas of life satisfaction and career satisfaction. This section looks at several key factors affecting achievement for baby boom women: historical context, including World War II and the Women's Liberation Movement; the cohort effect, or the intersection of historical context and life stage; and the attempt of women to balance work and family life.

Historical Context

In the 20 years following the end of World War II, middle class women were encouraged to primarily focus on motherhood and homemaking, as opposed to employment. This was a change from the World War II years, when a labor shortage due to the war led to a need for married women to fill jobs. From 1940 to 1945, women's participation in the workforce increased by 50%, with married women comprising 46% of working women (Hartmann, 1982). In the post-war period, however, the Selective Service Act guaranteed job priority to returning soldiers (Hartmann), and "the forces that had been used to get women into the workforce during the war were now used to get them to 'go home'" (Stone, 1996, p. 17). Gender role expectations for women swung to pre-War traditional levels and were reinforced by women's magazines that extolled the virtues of the happy housewife making a home for her family.

Polls taken after the war indicated that approximately 80% of women wanted to continue working (Chafe, 1972), yet many were met with obstacles. Most of the jobs available to them were in fields traditionally considered the domain of women, such as teaching, bookkeeping, nursing and secretarial, for which women were paid less than men were paid doing similar work. Newspaper ads separated jobs by sex; employers paid women less than men for the same work; banks denied women credit or loans; no women ran big corporations or universities, worked as firefighters or police officers, or sat on the Supreme Court (Rosen, 2000). Not surprisingly, in 1950, 98% of nurses and 62% of graduates from teachers colleges were women (Gatlin, 1987).

Betty Friedan, in her 1963 book *The Feminine Mystique*, addressed the role of post-war women and called it “the problem that has no name” (as cited in Friedan, 1983, p. 15). She objected to the redefinition of femininity and glorification of motherhood. Partly as a result of the work of Friedan (1983) and other feminist writers, a social movement that questioned the cultural status quo for women, known as Women’s Liberation or the Women’s Movement, emerged in the 1960s. Increased awareness of women’s issues, combined with legislation and federal programs that promoted women’s rights, led to improvements in college admissions policies, personnel hiring policies, and nontraditional career options, and generally challenged gender role expectations for women and for men. Women were variously affected by these changes, depending at least in part on their developmental or life stage at the time.

The Cohort Effect

While baby boom women, especially those born soon after the war, had grown up under one set of gender role expectations, the emerging Women’s Movement led to the adoption of a new set of expectations by many. This intersection of life stage and social

events, in this case adolescence and the Women's Movement, respectively, is called the cohort effect (Duncan & Agronick, 1995; Stewart & Ostrove, 1998). Stewart and Ostrove proposed that the same social event affects behavior and identity formation differently, depending on one's life stage. Specifically, social events that occur during childhood affect fundamental values and expectations, while social events that occur during adolescence and early adulthood affect opportunities and life choices. The linking of social events and cohort are illustrated in the studies of Agronick and Duncan (1998), and Duncan and Agronick. They studied women from the 1958 and 1960 senior classes of Mills College (Agronick & Duncan) and later compared them with a younger Radcliffe cohort. They found that the younger Radcliffe women were more responsive to the women's movement than were the Mills College women, who were in early middle adulthood by then. "Thus," they conclude, "identity formation processes taking place in early adulthood apparently facilitated an openness to influence by the women's movement" (Agronick & Duncan, p. 560).

Essentially all women of the baby boom cohort were exposed to feminist ideology (Josselson, 1987). In Sudeck's (1992) study of middle-aged, college educated women ($N = 125$), 88% said the Women's Movement had a personal impact on their lifestyle and career decisions. Included in feminist ideology was the idea of choice for women: Freedom of choice would allow each woman to make the career and family decisions that were best for her. While only one-fourth to one-third of American women call themselves feminist (Huddy, Neely, & Lafay, 2000), failure to define oneself as feminist does not preclude the internalization of feminist ideals (Huddy et al.; Sharpe, 2001).

Traditional gender role expectations persisted at all levels, however. At home, parents who themselves had been raised with traditional expectations often favored sons

over daughters with encouragement and financial support for pursuit of educational and career goals (Cutrona et al., 1994; Dillman, 1989; Hoffman, 1977). Traditional role expectations continued to result in discrimination in academic and employment settings (Richie et al., 1997; Rubin, 1979; Smith & Walker, 1993) and impacted career counseling (Arnold, 1993; Betz, 1994; Farley, 1970), career role modeling (Sudeck, 1992), motherhood (Crittenden, 2002; Gerson, 1985; Marron, 2002), division of labor at home, (Phillips-Miller, Campbell, & Morrison, 2000; Stoltz-Loike, 1992), and role balancing (Stahnke, 2001).

Balancing Career and Family

Data are becoming available to help us understand how baby boom women experienced work and family life. The Women's Movement raised the possibility for many that they could "have it all," a satisfying career and whatever form of family life they desired (Swanson-Kauffman, 1987). But it may have been, ironically, women of their mothers' generation, the World War II Silent Generation, who were in a position to take advantage of the changes.

Putney and Bengston (2005) analyzed data from the Longitudinal Study of Generations (LSOG), a 30-year cohort sequential design study that collected data from the same 346 families in seven waves between 1971 and 2000. They found that for the Silent Generation, having a first child at a younger age was significantly predictive of higher self-esteem and lower depression in midlife. With fewer family obligations, they were in a position to take advantage of the new opportunities for women without needing to balance the responsibilities of work and family in the same way that baby boom women did (Putney & Bengston). For baby boom women, having a first child at a younger age was significantly predictive of lower self-esteem and higher depression. It

could be that while their sense of identity was more greatly influenced by the Women's Movement than was that of women whose children were grown (Agronick & Duncan, 1998), they were not prepared for the realities of motherhood and its influence on their work lives. This could explain why baby boom women experienced more conflict related to time spent between work and family than did the older women (Putney & Bengston, 2005).

Many tried to resolve the work-family conflict by downscaling (Betz, 1994), choosing traditional careers (Ranson, 2003), reducing or interrupting employment, or sequencing (Marron, 2002), in order to accommodate family responsibilities. When a woman's occupation does not reflect her intellectual ability, interests, or career aspirations, Betz suggested that she may have downscaled in order to prepare for role balancing. In Stahnke's (2001) study of women at midlife, all had given up at least one of their education or career plans because they chose the needs of their family over their own plans, and arranged their lives so that their jobs were secondary. Traditional careers were often chosen because they would allow for an easier return to work after maternity leave, especially part-time work (Ranson, 2003). Sequencing is the phenomena of switching priorities from career to family, or vice versa. Marron (2002) studied female college graduates and found that 5-15 years after graduation, two-thirds had switched priorities from career to family, or vice versa. Most career women returned to work soon after the birth of a child, yet many decreased their hours or changed jobs or specialties to accommodate childrearing (Sudeck, 1992). Smith and Walker (1993) studied Harvard MBAs ($N = 594$) who were also mothers and found that 39% believed that having children slowed their careers. In a study of medical faculty, it was shown that women with children had fewer publications, slower self-perceived career progress, and lower

career satisfaction compared with female faculty without children and compared with men (Barnett et al., 1998).

Along with the effects of family life on career, were the effects of career on family life. Postponing or limiting the number of children was one way of minimizing that effect and was associated with higher educational attainment (Arnold, 1993). Not having children at all was also an option. “Now that the baby boom generation is middle aged, it is clear that more than one fourth of the educated women in that group will never have children” (Crittenden, 2002, p. 107). Of a group of Harvard MBA graduates studied ($N = 902$), 230 reported that fertility has been a problem for them (Smith & Walker, 1993). While Betty Friedan (1981) is chagrined when intelligent women sacrifice motherhood in order to get ahead, Spurling (2002) found that women who were voluntarily childless at midlife rated high in life satisfaction. In Smith and Walker’s study of Harvard MBAs, two-thirds reported that having a career affected parenthood, in terms of the timing of childbirth and number of children. Eighty-five percent said that they have been able to combine career and family successfully, even if everything has not gone according to their original plan.

Original plans included expectations of support from future husbands (Farley, 1970; Gerson, 1985). Spousal support proved to be important to the ability of women to balance work and motherhood. Baby boom women interviewed in their 40s reported that the critical factor enabling them to actualize career goals and balance career and family was a supportive husband (Miller, 2001; Smith & Walker, 1993; Sudeck, 1992). In Miller’s 2001 study of female psychologists born during the Baby Boom ($N = 25$), having husbands who provided emotional, financial, child care, and household support helped them to find a balance between their personal and professional dreams.

It seems that women who received this type of support did not leave it to chance but carefully chose their partners. Gerson (1985) found that women who decided to combine work and motherhood chose male partners who both wanted children and supported female partners' work careers. The women made participatory fatherhood a precondition to childbearing and viewed their male partners as supportive and trustworthy. Phillips-Miller et al. (2000), in their study of married veterinarians ($N = 242$), found that women who felt most successful in balancing work and family life also reported having selected spouses who were more supportive of their careers than the spouses of other women in the study.

Career-oriented baby boom women started off expecting a dual career marriage in which spouses shared household responsibilities. In 1970, Farley studied graduate students ($N = 263$) and found that the majority of career-oriented women expected their future husbands to take equal responsibility for housework and child care when she worked. In December, 1980, the New York Times (as cited in Friedan, 1983) reported that a survey of 3,000 students revealed that women "expected that the men they eventually married would share child rearing" (p. 277). These expectations persisted into the 1990s, when college women still assumed that their husbands would help with housework (Sharpe, 2001). They wanted a husband who would share in child rearing (Crittenden, 2002) and help with housework (Sharpe). By 2002, Gerson (1985) found that 9 out of 10 women "hoped" (p. 22) to share work and family in a committed, mutually supportive and egalitarian way, but most were skeptical.

Inadequate household support from husband is a source of marital/family stress that affects a woman's marital satisfaction and career, and contributes to role strain. Stoltz-Loike (1992) reviewed literature on husband's participation in household chores.

She found that there was a significant relationship between marital satisfaction and the wife's perceptions of the equitability of housework and child care distribution. Women in Phillips-Miller et al.'s (2000) study of married veterinarians scored significantly higher than men did on measures of the effect of marital/family stress on career. They also reported significantly less spousal support for their careers than their male counterparts did. Phillips-Miller et al. proposed, "The inequitable division of household labor reported by women in dual career relationships can be considered a form of lack of spousal support for career and may contribute to higher levels of stress at home and at work" (p. 16).

Husbands with traditional values often provide less household support, which can create role strain and even role overload for their wives (Sudeck, 1992). In Sudeck's study, 100% of women with traditional husbands had role strain and role overload; more than 80% of women with participatory husbands had role strain, and role overload; and only 50% of women with a role sharing husband experienced role strain and role overload.

Having a supportive spouse was key for many women to their ability to balance work and family. While beyond the scope of this study, it would be interesting to know if the quality of early maternal emotional support affects a woman's ability to choose a partner who supports her career and family goals (see Harris, Brown, & Bifulco, 1990), and how support from partner contributes to career satisfaction.

A review of relevant literature has shown that changes in politics, policies, and options that favored career achievement for baby boom women were partly offset by the persistence of traditional gender role expectations in society and at home. The next

section explores another element in women's lives, emotional support from mother, and its role in career achievement for women.

Early Maternal Emotional Support and Career Achievement

This section focuses on emotional support, an interpersonal and developmental influence on achievement for women. Included are emotional support as provided by both father and mother; the affects of parental support on the career-related behaviors of high school and college-aged women; and a discussion of relational theory, a feminist view of female identity development that is based in maternal emotional support and includes a process of separation, empowerment, and achievement for women.

Research suggested that access to emotional support, particularly support which is provided by parents, is critical for the maintenance of health and well being (Bowlby, 1980; Geuzaine, Debry, & Liesens, 2000; Shaw et al., 2004) and correlates with positive mental and physical health outcomes over the life course (Franz, McClelland, & Weinberger, 1991; Ryff, Singer, Love, & Essex, 1998). The failure to receive adequate parental support during childhood threatens to disrupt key processes involved in developing supportive social relationships and a sense of control and self-worth throughout life. In contrast, receipt of adequate parental support leads to an increased ability to manage challenges, which leads to further accumulation of these psychosocial resources (Ryff et al., 1998; Shaw et al.). Women, in particular, with inadequate support as children tend to develop a poor sense of personal control and are apt to form close ties with unsupportive persons as adults. These poor choices further impair a woman's sense of control and self esteem, ultimately leading to poor mental health in adulthood (Harris et al., 1990).

In 1957, Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (as cited in Franz et al., 1991) studied child-rearing practices of mothers ($N = 379$) of 5-year olds—baby boom children. Thirty-six years later, the children were 41 years old and the subject of a prospective study by Franz et al. The most important finding was that a mother's report of mother or father warmth measured at age 5 significantly associated with her child's conventional social accomplishment 36 years later. While the Franz et al. study is based on mother's report of parental warmth, the current study is based on adult recollections of emotional support received.

Defining Parental Emotional Support

Parental emotional support includes the parent's (a) attempt to understand, (b) expression of love and affection, (c) provision of time and attention, (d) effort expended in child's upbringing, (e) teaching about life, as well as (f) child's ability to confide in mother or father, as assessed in the Parental Affection scales of the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (Brim et al., 1996). This definition is consistent with other theorists' definitions of emotional support, which include sympathetic listening (Wills & Shinar, 2000), caring, warmth, esteem, affection, reassurance of worth and support of esteem (Cutrona et al., 1994; Scholte, Van Lieshout, & Van Aken, 2001; Wills & Shinar), and acceptance and respect for autonomy (Wills & Shinar; Scholte et al.). Emotional support and warmth are key components of the parent-child relationship and are included in measures of (a) parental rearing behaviors (Markus, Lindhout, Boer, Hoogendijk, & Arrindell, 2003), (b) parental attachment (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991), and (c) parental support (Dillman, 1989). According to Wills and Shinar, emotional support generally refers to the availability of others who will listen sympathetically when

an individual is having problems and show signs of caring and acceptance towards the individual.

Parental Emotional Support and Career-Related Behaviors in High School and College

Emotional support from parents contributes to specific behaviors that enhance academic and career achievement for women (Crittenden, 2002; Richie et al., 1997; Rubin, 1979). It has been correlated with such career-related behaviors as college attendance (Dillman, 1989) and GPA (Cutrona et al., 1994), career aspiration (Arnold, 1993), and career decision making (Fox, 1998; O'Brien et al., 2000) in college-aged women. Research on parental support conducted while baby boom women were of college age shows that parental encouragement has a stronger relationship to college plans than socioeconomic status (SES) or intelligence, and more affect on daughters' than sons' aspirations (Sewell & Shaw, 1968, as cited in Dillman, 1989). Halas (1974) reported that families often discouraged educational and career aspirations and upheld marriage as the ideal for girls. More than one-third of daughters thought their parents supported and expected more men than women to obtain a college education (Halas), and it was shown that many parents in the 1970s did desire career or job success more for their sons than their daughters (Hoffman, 1977). Twice as many parents wished that sons, compared to daughters, would be hard working and aspiring. Moore (1975, as cited in Dillman, 1989, p. 414) referred to the process of *cooling out* (reducing and redirecting) women's college and career aspirations. Cooling out occurred when parents disliked daughter's career choice, when parents believed women should be housewives, or when parents were amused by their daughters' career plans. Women said that, if they were men, their fathers would not only approve of their career choices, but would also be willing to pay for their education. Because of these attitudes, daughters often felt great

resentment against their fathers (Dillman, 1989). Unfortunately, this phenomenon was not limited to women of the baby boom. As recently as 1985, fathers emphasized college and careers for their sons, although they had become more cognizant of the importance of higher education for their daughters (Intons-Peterson, 1985).

The absence of parental support, in one study, did not affect college attendance but did have negative repercussions for the father-daughter and mother-daughter relationship. Dillman (1989) conducted a study of female undergraduates ($N = 159$) titled "Effects of Negative Parental Attitudes on Female Undergraduates." The students were surveyed regarding attitudes of their parents toward higher education for their daughters. Eighty-nine percent reported perceived maternal encouragement, while 11% did not perceive maternal encouragement. Twice as many daughters perceived that their fathers did not encourage them to attend college, as compared with daughters who perceived that their mothers did not encourage them to attend college. Affirmative answers to these questions were highly correlated with being encouraged by mother: "You confide in your mother," "Mother gives financial support for school," "You feel your mother cares about you" (although 88% of the nonencouraged felt that way also). Affirmative answers to these questions were highly correlated with feeling nonencouraged: "You are more emotionally distant from your mother now than you were in high school," "You have anger, bitterness or resentment against your mother," "It would please your mother for you to marry rather than have a career after college" (Dillman, 1989, p. 417). Nonencouraging parents provided little or no financial support for their daughters' college education, although this did not prevent their daughters from attending college. Dillman suggested that "perhaps the women's movement, the awareness of the value of a college education, the divorce rate or financial information about one and two-income

households made the difference” (p. 418). Nonmaternally encouraged women worked more hours per week to pay for their schooling than did maternally encouraged women. Dillman noted that regarding financial support, nonencouraging mothers were not as strong in their position as nonencouraging fathers, suggesting that mothers may have simply been unwilling to challenge their spouses and may even have given financial support in spite of their husband or without his knowledge.

African-American Parental Influence on Achievement

For African-American women, the largest non-white racial group in the current study, parental support that includes expectations seems to be especially salient (Hill, 1997; Reeder & Conger, 1984; Tate, 1996). Tate studied African American baby boom career military officers and found daughters’ dreams and careers were significantly influenced by father’s expectations of achievement for them. Also important to these women were mentoring and/or role modeling within the Black church, family ties, and the historical significance of the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s.

Within African-American families, SES affects parental expectations. In a retrospective study of working class and middle class African-American families, middle class fathers held higher expectations for their daughters’ careers and educational attainment, and were more involved in their daughters’ education, than were working class fathers (Hill, 1997). Hill studied socialization for achievement in middle class African-American women (30-67 years old) who had come from working class and middle class families ($N = 243$). More middle class parents expected their daughters to be successful in careers than did working class parents. Subjects from working class families did receive parental support, but not as much as subjects from middle class families.

Parental encouragement, which is a form of support, was found to play a greater role in the educational process of young Black women than young White women. Reeder and Conger (1984) studied the differences between maternal and paternal influences on the educational attainment of Black women and White women. Specifically, they attempted to learn whether Black women experienced the effects of parental education, parental occupation, and parental encouragement on their educational attainment in the same manner as did White women. They analyzed a subset of data from the National Longitudinal survey of Labor Market Experience (NLS) that focused on college-aged baby boom women. Their subjects were young women aged 14-17 in 1968, the time of the initial survey, and 17-21 years of age when they were surveyed in 1971. At that time, they were asked how much encouragement they received from their parents to continue in school and what their educational goals were. By 1975, when the cohort was 21-25 years of age, educational attainment was measured. Parental expectation variables, and mother's occupation, were more important for Black women than for White women. For White women, parental education variables were more important.

Paternal Emotional Support

While the focus of this study is on maternal emotional support for daughters, it would be incomplete without considering the role of paternal emotional support. Research since the 1970s has shown the importance of the father-child relationship to the well being of the child (McGrath & Repetti, 2000; Pruett, 2001; Willams & Radin, 1999). Mackey (2001) proposed that an independent father-to-child bond exists across cultures and observed that fathers acted toward their children "in a manner consonant with mother-to-child behaviors" (p. 61). In fact, in an analysis of more than 100 studies on parent-child relationships, Rohner and Veneziano (2001) found that having a loving and

nurturing father was as important for a child's happiness, well being, and social and academic success as having a loving and nurturing mother. For daughters, for example, paternal involvement was associated with cognitive development and career success (Deb & Gulati, 1989), self esteem (Hunter, 2003; Wexler, 1996), life satisfaction (Wenk, Hardesty, & Morgan, 1994), courage, autonomy (Paquette, 2004), confidence, empathy, and well being (Pruett, 2001). The role of a loving and nurturing father is different from that of a loving and nurturing mother; however (Parke, 2002; Parsons & Bales, 1955), in terms of style and content.

Differences in the roles of father and mother were the topic of Parsons and Bales' (1955) classic work, *Family, Socialization and Interaction Process*. In it, they developed a parental role theory that involved dividing parenting roles and responsibilities into two categories: expressive and instrumental. Expressive involvement characterizes the mother's role and includes care giving, companionship and sharing activities. Instrumental involvement characterizes the father's role and includes providing income, discipline, and protection.

Paquette's (2004) theory of the father-child relationship proposed that while the role of the mother is to provide warmth, an expressive function, the role of the father is to place the child in situations in which the child is obliged to confront the surrounding environment directly. Through an emotional bond, protection, and physical proximity with father, which includes play, the child is able to discover her/his own abilities. Paquette referred to this relationship as the father-child activation relationship. Through it, the child becomes open to the world, autonomous, more competitive, and braver. This concept is compatible with Parsons and Bales' (1955) instrumental versus expressive interaction theory.

In 2006, Finley & Schwartz followed-up on Parsons and Bales' (1955) parental role theory to learn whether the father's role continued to be primarily instrumental or had expanded to include expressive functions. When they asked university students ($N = 1,492$), 68% of whom were female, to retrospectively report on their fathers' involvement, "Strikingly, and strongly consistent with Parsons and Bales, young adults continue to characterize their fathers as having been more instrumentally than expressively involved" (Finley & Schwartz, p. 53).

There appears to be similarity among fathers regarding their relationships with their children. Finley and Schwartz (2006) found that fathers in eight ethnic groups, including Caucasian, African American, Hispanic, and Asian, were more instrumentally than expressively involved. When Mackey (1996) studied levels, not types, of paternal involvement, he found no significant differences between fathers from the U.S. and 23 other countries and cultures.

Fathers differ from mothers in frequency, as well as style, of parenting. However, it was quality, as opposed to frequency, of the father-daughter relationship that correlated positively with career-related skills for daughters. Hunter (2003) investigated paternal influence on the development of competencies that contribute to academic and vocational success in women. In her study of women college aged and older ($N = 200$), Hunter found that, consistent with Parsons and Bales (1955), they had traditional expectations of maternal and paternal roles, which were essentially expressive for mothers and instrumental for fathers. Participants reported that mothers contributed more frequently to their development. Fathers contributed as frequently as mothers did to self-esteem and perseverance, two competencies that the subjects identified as most important. The quality of subjects' relationships with their fathers was predictive of their ability to

maintain a positive self-concept. This was not true for the mother-daughter relationship. Career-related skills that correlated positively with paternal warmth and acceptance were (a) skills in obtaining career information, (b) understanding of the nature of work, (c) understanding of male and female roles, and (d) ability to maintain balance between career and family life.

Maternal Emotional Support

Emotional support from mother is especially important for women, with increased maternal support associated with fewer chronic conditions in adulthood and a decreased level of depressive symptoms (Shaw, 2002). In a review of data from the MIDUS survey, a random, national sample of adults aged 25-74 ($N = 3,044$; Brim et al., 1996), Shaw concluded that, compared to paternal support, “among females, early maternal support is a consistently stronger predictor of adult mental and physical health” (p. 116). This is due to its influence on psychosocial resources, specifically, increased personal control, increased self esteem, more abundant support from friends and family, and less conflict with friends and family (Shaw; Ryff et al., 1998).

A feminist view of maternal emotional support. Recent feminist theorists have focused on the mother-daughter relationship as a way of understanding women’s development (Chodorow, 1978; Eichenbaum & Orbach, 1988; Gilligan, 1993; Jordan et al., 1991). Formerly, development was conceptualized as a series of eight childhood, adolescent, and adulthood separations that eventually led to the desired goal of autonomy (Erikson, 2000; Surrey, 1991). However, emphasizing autonomy and independence as the goals of development ignores the relational bases of female development: specifically, empathy and connection (Gilligan, 1993; Horney, 1967; Miller, 1976; O’Brien et al., 2000).

The relational approach to psychological understanding, as proposed by Jean Baker Miller and her colleagues at the Stone Center for Developmental Services and Studies at Wellesley (Jordan et al., 1991), also known as the *self-in-relation* model (Surrey, 1991), proposed that the basic goal of development is relationship, not individuation. Accordingly, it is proposed that critical aspects of self—creativity, autonomy, and assertion—develop within the context of relationships, not despite them (Surrey).

The first relationship an infant has is with her primary caretaker, who is most often the mother (Chodorow, 1978). Chodorow explained that this is because “women are themselves mothered by women, they grow up with the relational capacities and needs, and psychological definition of self-in-relationship, which commits them to mothering... women mother daughters who, when they become women, mother” (p. 208). Jordan (1991) added that since mother and daughter share similar bodies and the same gender, the mother identifies more with a daughter than with a son, contributing to an empathic and affective connection that becomes the model for all future relationships

When traditional theorists emphasize the importance of the primary caretaker to a child’s development and future relationships, the focus is on attachment rather than empathy and relationship. Relational theory describes the difference between attachment and relatedness this way: attachment requires the presence of the object for a sense of well being and security, the object ultimately becomes internalized, and separation can occur (Surrey, 1991). Relational theory differs in that there is no need to separate or to need the other less. Relationship is described as an intersubjective experience that involves an ongoing awareness of the other, and an expectation of mutuality (Jordan et al., 1991, p. 83). Empathy occurs within this relational frame.

The Stone Center theorists described empathy as a process that begins between a mother and daughter through a combination of the daughter's desire to be connected to her mother, and the mother's view of her daughter as an outgrowth of herself (Surrey, 1991). Mutual empathy occurs when mother and daughter are able to be mutually present to and "see" the other (Surrey, p. 55). Through mutual empathy, mother and daughter become highly sensitive to the feelings of each other, with the daughter seeing her mother's needs as her own (Chodorow, 1978; Surrey). At the same time, a daughter is aware that she is separate from her mother. This is not a process of merger, but of willingness to identify with another's affective arousal for the purpose of mutual empowerment and growth. Empathy requires a well-differentiated sense of self and sensitivity to the differentness, as well as the sameness, of another person (Jordan et al., 1991, p. 69).

As mutual empathy develops, mutual empowerment arises, wherein the mother empowers her daughter by validating the daughter's empathic competence. From this empowerment as a relator, the daughter is empowered to act in general. Her inner sense of relational connection to others, especially her mother, leads to her sense of empowerment. By college age, a woman's developmental task is to enhance her sense of competency by building on these early relationships, and thereby becoming empowered toward the fullest utilization of her abilities (Jordan et al., 1991).

Maternal influence on achievement. Presence of mother as a career role model had a positive affect on daughters' aspirations (Arnold, 1993), and mothers who attended college were vastly more likely to want their daughters to attend than mothers who had not (Cross, 1975, p. 346). Yet, as few as 10% to 20% of the mothers of baby boom women attended college (Josselson, 1987; Sudeck, 1992). In Sudeck's study of midlife,

baby boom women ($N = 128$), 10% of the participants had college-educated mothers, and all of those daughters attended college. Fifty-seven percent of the participants; however, had mothers who had been homemakers or unskilled workers. Participants were asked about the presence of role models while they were growing up or as young adults. Fourteen percent said their mothers were role models, and 67% reported having no role models or mentors. For 68%, mothers were considered influential, not as role models but through support. Of this group, 78% said that they specifically wanted a different lifestyle than their mother's. While not seen as role models, fathers were considered influential for 59% of the participants.

This trend has continued. In a 2003 study (Casey-Cannon, 2003), high school-aged daughters from public and private, urban, and rural high schools wanted lives different from their mothers'. They wanted to go further in school, marry later, and have children later than their mothers did. It was determined that mother-daughter closeness, as opposed to mother as role model, combined with daughter's satisfaction with mothers' work life, were positively related to daughters' career aspirations. Mother-daughter closeness, in particular, was positively related to daughters' career aspirations, preparation, and commitment to career choice, and negatively related to premature career selection (Blustein et al., 1991; Hill, 1997; O'Brien et al., 2000). Viewing mother as a role model seems less important to daughter's achievement than the overall quality of the mother-daughter relationship.

O'Brien and colleagues (2000) began their longitudinal study of female high school seniors in 1991 ($N = 400$). The students were surveyed to determine their educational and career aspirations as well as the role of attachment and separation in their vocational development. The initial phase of research concluded that women who

experienced attachment to their mothers were interested in pursuing careers, selected careers that were mostly consistent with their abilities, and felt highly efficacious with regard to choosing careers. They suggested that mothers might support the development of confidence in their daughters in that they may verbally encourage their daughters to pursue career paths that lead to happiness and success, precursors to self-efficacy.

Maternal emotional support and the selection of goals. Warm, autonomy-supportive mothering is associated with the development of stronger intrinsic goals; uninvolved, controlling parenting is associated with the development of strong relative extrinsic goals (Kasser, Ryan, Zax, & Sameroff, 1995; Williams, Cox, Hedberg, & Deci, 2000). Having strong aspirations for intrinsic goals is positively associated with mental health indicators; having strong aspirations for extrinsic goals is negatively associated with mental health indicators (Kasser & Ryan, 2001).

Achievement Through Empowerment: Balancing Connectedness and Separateness

Object relations theorists proposed that the primary task of late adolescence involves psychological separation, autonomy, and individuation (Erikson, 2000; Jung, 1978). Chodorow (1978) proposed that this is true for boys, since they experience themselves as different from their mothers; however, it may not be true for girls.

There is a separation process for women, however. Relational theorists use the term relationship-differentiation to describe this process (Surrey, 1991). Ideally, following the development of mutual empowerment through the mother-daughter relationship, the daughter becomes empowered to act in the world. Problems occur for women when the mother-daughter relationship does not mature from its early form to this more complex pattern (Surrey). If mutual care taking and identification remain as the daughter's core structure, it will be hard for her to take care of herself when she believes

that someone else may be hurt. That extends to the mother-daughter relationship, where the daughter may fear destroying her mother if she becomes self-determining. Because of this vulnerability, the mother's reaction to her daughter's separation is crucial. Ideally, the mother is able to support and approve of her daughter's independence. Failure to achieve this could lead to the daughter's sacrifice of her own growth and autonomy in order to preserve her bond with her mother.

The balance of simultaneous connectedness and separation is illuminated by J. A. Hoffman's (1984) concept of conflictual independence, defined as freedom from intense anger, guilt, anxiety, and resentment toward parents. In studies of separation phenomena in college females, conflictual independence was related to better general personal adjustment (Hoffman, & Weiss, 1987) and greater commitment to and less foreclosure of career choices and school adjustment (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991), when combined with a moderate degree of attachment to parents (Blustein et al., 1991). Hoffman and Weiss also found that the opposing concept, conflictual dependence, is more distressing and detrimental to women than to men. Consistent with relational theory, when women feel free from conflict regarding their relationships with their parents, they are freer to separate in a more emotionally comfortable manner (Kritis, 1998). This was also borne out in Ruebush's (1994) study of maternal empathy and psychological separation within the mother-daughter dyad, when the theoretical assumption that the greater the mother's understanding of her daughter, the freer the daughter is "from excessive guilt, anxiety, mistrust, responsibility, inhibition anger, and resentment" (Hoffman & Weiss, 1987, p. 171), was supported.

Relational Skills in the Workplace

A person with relational competence at work has a more collective and interconnected perspective and often facilitates collective achievement and team building. Richie and colleagues (1997) studied influences on the career development of prominent, highly achieving African-American and White women ($N = 18$). These women demonstrated a relational orientation and tended to think from a collective rather than an individual perspective about work and personal life. They were aware of how their families of origin and others had contributed to their achievement. The authors reported that these women maintained their femininity and displayed expressive characteristics that contrast with traditionally masculine styles of achievement. Interconnectedness was the overall theme of the model developed by the researchers. These women discussed their reliance on the support they received professionally and personally and attributed their successes to the networks of which they were a part. For many of the women studied by Richie et al., “the people in their lives and the messages they received were the salient background influences that led them to believe they could be whatever they wanted to be” (p. 139). Many of these women described their mothers’ influence as very positive and important, often serving as inspirational models for them. The women also reported receiving solid support from the people currently involved in their personal lives—spouses, families, and friends. Also, support by other women seemed to be critically important for all of these participants.

How women utilize interconnectedness and social support at work can be determined by job status (Harris et al., 2001; Zavella, 1987). For women with greater job status, relational skills are emphasized through a collaborative approach to work (Fletcher, 2004; Richie et al., 1997). For women with fewer chances for advancement,

relational skills are manifest in social support, which is more likely to provide relief from the frustrations of work--through friendship (Andrew & Montague, 1998; Zavella, 1987), improved working conditions (Harris et al., 2001), and sometimes political action.

Harris and colleagues (2001) found that social support was more important for women than for men, but noted that, in general, the men in their study had the higher status jobs, while women had the lesser status jobs. The authors proposed that workers with comparatively less social and economic power might be more motivated by the emotional and instrumental aspects of social support, as they relate to job security and compensation.

Zavella (1987) studied the work-related relationships of Chicana—Mexican-American women—cannery workers in the 1970s. She found that as women became middle aged and the demands of motherhood diminished, the women had more time and desire to socialize. In fact, “the desire to interact with work-related friends became an important reason for informants to continue working, even if they were financially stable and no longer had to work,” (p. 9). “Friendships added meaning to the work culture and allowed women to look past the negative aspects of work” (p. 10).

There can be drawbacks to women’s friendships in the workplace. Friendships can allow women to overlook workplace problems (Zavella, 1987), or avoid dealing directly with conflict. Andrew and Montague (1998) are British sociologists who have studied women’s friendships at work, including analyzing their own workplace friendship. While their conversations do often center on strategies for dealing with work problems, they also question, “If we did not have each other we may be forced to confront, to deal with the conflict” (p. 361).

The workplace is rarely set up to accommodate women's relational ways of achieving. "Work organizations, like most of society's structures, are based on models of growth and success that implicitly privilege separation, autonomy, competition and independence" (Fletcher, Jordan & Miller, 2000, p. 251). The authors studied six female engineers and concluded that the women used growth-fostering skills such as empathic and emotional competence, authenticity, and vulnerability; they also employed a relational logic of effectiveness, for example, that "achievement occurs within a network of connection and support" (p. 255). However, "growth-in-connection is not the model of growth that underlies most workplace practices" (p. 255). The women were considered to be nice, compliant, or nurturing but deficient in organizational skills, "with the assumption that their behaviors are an expression of personal attributes rather than the enactment of a set of beliefs about growth and effectiveness" (p. 257).

When relational skills are not valued, some women workers leave their jobs. Silverstein (2001) studied professional women after they left corporate life. The women reported that the corporations they worked for didn't value their need to work interdependently but valued individuality, competitiveness, and self-sufficiency over the relationships and collaboration that the women sought. Frustrated by their inability to use their relational skills, they ultimately left corporate life.

This section has addressed some of the ways in which early parental, particularly maternal, emotional support influences career achievement for women. Key to this is a mother's support and approval of daughter's independence (Hoffman & Weiss, 1987; Jordan et al., 1991; Kenny & Donaldson, 1991; Ruebush, 1994). Without this, the daughter could sacrifice her own growth and autonomy in order to preserve the mother-daughter bond (Surrey, 1991). This could include the downscaling of college and career

aspirations, leading to resentment toward mother (Dillman, 1989), and possibly further loss of support.

Maternal emotional support affects career achievement through influencing early academic and career-related behaviors (Crittenden, 2002; O'Brien et al., 2000); increasing psychosocial resources (Shaw, 2002) and the ability to balance personal and professional lives (Richie et al., 1997); the development of relational competence that leads to autonomy and empowerment (Surrey, 1991) and an interconnected perspective at work; and the selection of intrinsic goals that lead to greater well being. The relational foundation through which a daughter is empowered to act is built upon during daughters' adult endeavors, enabling them to achieve success by "maintaining interconnectedness, valuing social support, and balancing their personal and professional lives" (Richie et al., 1997, p. 140). . The next section looks at one measure of career achievement, career satisfaction, and a measure of overall life satisfaction.

Subjective Well Being

Subjective well being (SWB) refers to how people evaluate their lives (Diener, Suh & Oishi, 1997), and is measured from the person's own perspective. Hence, "if a woman thinks her life is going well, then it is going well within this framework," (Diener et al., 1997, p. 2). The other components of SWB are pleasant affect and low levels of unpleasant affect. Subjective well being is not synonymous with mental health or psychological well being, which includes additional characteristics such as purpose in life (Ryff, 1989). SWB may lend itself to feminist research however, because it is based on personal experience and not on an external standard.

Satisfaction and the Life Review

The life review is a subjective midlife and later evaluation of one's life that encompasses career, education, and family goals and achievements (Gilbert, 1993; Landman & Manis, 1992; Levinson et al., 1978; Stewart & Ostrove, 1998; Stewart & Vandewater, 1999; Sudeck, 1992; Wrosch & Heckhausen, 2002). Life review is a developmental process of introspection and reexamination of earlier choices that occurs for most persons, whether or not they have achieved their goals (Jung, 1978; Levinson et al., 1978). The outcome of the life review is clinically significant in that it affects the physical and psychological well being, currently and in later life, of middle-aged persons, which currently includes baby boom women (Carr, 1997; Holahan et al., 1999; Thomas, 1995).

Diener et al. (1997) discussed differences in SWB between individualistic cultures and collectivistic cultures. Individualistic cultures, such as the United States and most Western nations, emphasize the individual. Collectivistic cultures place higher value on the group than on individual functioning. While individualistic cultures report higher levels of SWB, they also have higher levels of divorce and suicide. Diener and colleagues (1997) proposed that in these cultures, individuals might experience more fulfillment from following their dreams; however, they may be more prone to attribute bad outcomes to themselves. They also discussed context approaches, in which SWB varies according to the relevant theory. For example, indulging in counterfactual thinking, called "what might have been" by Landman and Manis (1992, p. 478), makes the individual's ideals the context for SWB (Diener et al.). Landman and Manis noted that current social norms, rather than the norms that existed when the decision being evaluated was made, are often applied to "what might have been" (p. 473). The authors gave the example: "It was

common for the adult women to imagine having put off marriage in favor of finishing their education and establishing a career. What they were mentally altering was more conventional when they made those decisions than when they reported their might-have-beens” (p. 478). In their study, counterfactual thinking was pronounced in the areas of education, career, and marital relationships, in order of frequency.

Levinson (1996) proposed another aspect of counterfactual thinking for baby boom women. He suggested that due to the “myth of the successful career woman,” (p. 370) women might be inclined to believe that they should have been more successful, and subsequently feel that failure is their entire fault. Therefore, women may believe that they could have made the liberal decisions in their youth that contemporary young women are allowed to make, and if they had, they would have achieved the status of successful career women (which, ironically, may not be more of an option for contemporary young women than it was for them).

Wrosch and Heckhausen (2002) studied young, middle aged, and older adults ($N = 122$). They discovered a counterfactual element: The belief that if one had done a particular behavior, one would be happier. Such scenarios can affect quality of life, depression, and low life satisfaction, as well as serve a motivational function. The top five life regrets, in order, related to work/education, family/partnership, self development, leisure, and friendship.

Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is one aspect of SWB that has been studied extensively. One standard measure of life satisfaction, the Satisfaction With Life Scale (see Appendix F; Diener, Emmons, & Larsen, 1985), has been used in at least 50 studies in the past 7 years. Studies center on the relationship between life satisfaction and physical and mental

health, among others, in a variety of populations including older persons, college students, numerous ethnic groups (Vietnamese, Iranian immigrants in Norway, Arabic-speaking Irish, etc.), and a variety of professions (interior design, speech pathology, police, university faculty, etc.).

Ed Diener, co-creator of the Satisfaction With Life Scale, and Martin Seligman, a leader in the field of positive psychology, endorse the idea of a national well being index as preferable to economic indices (Diener & Seligman, 2004). “As societies grow wealthy, differences in well being are less frequently due to income, and are more frequently due to factors such as social relationships and enjoyment at work” (p. 1).

Goals play a role in SWB. Brunstein, Schultheiss, and Grassman (1998) found that perceived progress toward goals caused positive changes in SWB (life satisfaction). The type of goal, intrinsic or extrinsic, also affects SWB. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, and Deci (1996) proposed that goals that meet intrinsic needs such as autonomy and relatedness predict SWB, as opposed to extrinsic goals such as for financial success and social recognition. Ryan and colleagues went on to show that pursuit of extrinsic goals can be predicted by having controlling, cold, and uninvolved parents. Conversely, pursuit of intrinsic goals can be predicted by having warm, involved parents who are autonomy granting. Furthermore, self report of attainment of intrinsic aspirations is positively associated with well being, while attainment of extrinsic aspirations is not (Kasser & Ryan, 2001; Ryan, Chirkov, & Little, 1999).

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction, also known as subjective (intrinsic and internal) career achievement, focuses on perceptions of satisfaction with one’s overall job experiences, while objective (extrinsic and observable) career achievement focuses on actual

accomplishments in job level and salary (Erdogan et al., 2004). Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley (1990) defined career satisfaction as relating to progress toward goals in the areas of income, advancement, and skill development. Because career satisfaction is a subjective measure of career success, measured by progress toward self selected goals, it is appropriate to the study of women. Women's work lives often do not unfold in a linear manner, as is typical for men's work lives, but must be flexible to allow for family obligations (Carr, 2002; Gerson, 1985; Gilligan, 1993; Levinson, 1996; Marron, 2002). As such, extrinsic indicators of career success, such as job title or income, might not be appropriate to the study of women.

Callanan and Greenhaus (2008) address career satisfaction for baby boom workers as they approach retirement in terms of an incentive for them to remain in the workforce longer. They propose a new criterion for success that goes beyond prestige, power, money and advancement and includes intrinsic factors such as the opportunity to develop social networks. "When workers view career success in these subjective terms, the focus shifts to individual satisfaction with the job and how well it has met personal goals and expectations" (p. 78).

Career satisfaction differs from job satisfaction in that it is based on one's overall progress toward goals and one's accumulated life work (Judge et al., 1995), whereas job satisfaction refers to "individuals' satisfaction with the challenge and meaning ascribed to their current jobs" (Erdogan et al., 2004, p. 309). In studies, job satisfaction and career satisfaction emerged as distinct variables (Erdogan et al., 2004) that were predicted by different variables (Judge et al., 1995).

Subjective career success does not necessarily covary with objective career success (Judge et al., 1995). In other words, one may be outwardly successful but not be

satisfied with one's career; conversely, one may not be outwardly or objectively successful, but may still be satisfied with one's career. In 2004, however, Judge and colleagues studied industrial-organizational psychologists ($N=154$) and found that intrinsic career success (career satisfaction) was positively influenced by extrinsic career success (rank, salary, prestige etc.) and universalistic performance (production).

Lounsbury and colleagues (2004) conducted a study with the assumption that career satisfaction leads to life satisfaction, and that personality traits would predict both career and life satisfaction. Path analysis showed a link from career satisfaction to life satisfaction. "This result is consistent with the idea that overall life satisfaction . . . represents as an overarching outcome of a person's total career experiences" (p. 402). Personality traits, however, explained much of the variance in life satisfaction attributable to career satisfaction resulting in a drop from 15% to 4% after accounting for personality traits.

Research regarding career satisfaction for women is important because career satisfaction correlates with overall life satisfaction (Holahan et al., 1999; Kalin, 1998; Stewart & Vandewater, 1999), and life satisfaction can have implications for one's physical and mental health at midlife and beyond (Holahan et al., 1999; Shaw et al., 2004; Thomas, 1995). Career satisfaction "can also be viewed as an antecedent or component of an individual's overall quality of life, or life satisfaction" (Lounsbury, et al., 2004, p. 396).

The primary purpose of this study is to ascertain the direction and strength of the relationships among early maternal emotional support, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction for baby boom women. While a review of the literature suggests a number of

ways in which these variables could be related, it is beyond the scope of this study to determine a specific behavior or pattern that might connect them.

Statement of the Problem

This study examines the relationships among early maternal emotional support, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction for baby boom women. Career satisfaction is important to this generation because the majority of women worked outside the home, and many plan to continue working beyond age 65. Many were influenced by the liberal social ideals of their youth that promoted equality for men and women. A retrospective look provides evidence that social institutions did not adequately support women's efforts toward equality. Barriers to achievement existed in the culture, the workplace, and within the family. Career role models were scarce (Sudeck, 1992), and career counseling did not address the unique developmental needs of women (Cross, 1975). Some women experienced inner barriers to achievement as well, with a felt threat to connection with others, especially mother, if they achieved success (Stiver, 1991).

As baby boom women matured, they confronted the challenge of balancing work and family life. They adopted various methods to meet this challenge, often downscaling or sacrificing original education and career goals in order to meet the needs of their families. Support from husbands was appreciated, but not received to the degree that many women expected.

When these women evaluate their career success, as part of the normal life review, several things may happen. Women may overestimate the options regarding career and family that were available to them (Levinson, 1996); they may underestimate the influence of culture on their early career and marriage decisions (Landman & Manis, 1992); and, as part of an individualistic culture, they may blame themselves for

unsatisfactory outcomes (Diener et al., 1997), but may not acknowledge other possible variables. They may also experience satisfaction with the way their careers have progressed. Women exposed to similar cultural and institutional factors may vary in terms of satisfaction with life and with career. This study was interested in factors that contribute to career satisfaction (which is associated with life satisfaction) for women. It proposed that the emotional support that women received in their youth, from mother, can predict career satisfaction at midlife.

Research Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that, for a sample of employed, midlife women

1. Career satisfaction will have a positive link with life satisfaction.
2. Early maternal emotional support will have a positive link with life satisfaction
3. Early maternal emotional support will have a positive link with career satisfaction.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to learn whether early maternal emotional support positive correlates with career satisfaction and life satisfaction for baby boom women at midlife. The relationship of career satisfaction to life satisfaction was also explored. This chapter describes the methods and procedures, including: (a) design of the study, (b) selection and consent of participants, (c) procedures, (d) data collection, (e) data analysis, and (f) limitations of the study.

Design

This study employed descriptive research using regression to determine the extent to which the independent variable, early maternal emotional support, explains a proportion of the variance in the dependent variables, career satisfaction and life satisfaction, at a significant level. Correlational analysis was used to determine the degree and direction of the relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction, as well as between responses to the Career and Family Questionnaire and responses to the formal scales.

Participants

The sample for this study was drawn from employees of a community college located in Southern California. The total participant pool for this study was comprised of the 545 female employees of the college born between 1946 and 1964. One hundred and one women participated. The community college employee sample was chosen because of its diversity of backgrounds and occupations plus the availability of career tracks for employees. The college employs 1,240 certificated employees and 444 noncertificated, classified, or support staff. Certificated employees are typically instructors. Classified

staff members are employed in job “classifications,” such as grounds keeper, secretary, personnel analyst, electrician, and others. Other staff includes managers, administrators, and consultants. Employees may be full time, part time, temporary, permanent, or under other terms approved by contract or the Personnel Commission. For this study, managers, administrators, consultants, and others have been grouped as “other” in order to avoid small groupings that could compromise confidentiality.

The vice-president of academic affairs was contacted and permission was granted to conduct research on the campus, including solicitation of employees and use of the mailroom for distribution of materials related to the study (see Appendix A). Leaders of the Faculty Senate were contacted and permission was granted for this researcher to speak at a monthly membership meeting, for the purpose of introducing the study and encouraging members to participate. All female employees of the required age, whether or not they heard this researcher's presentation at their respective employee organization meeting, were sent a research packet through campus mail.

Selection criteria

To be included in the population of this study, each participant (a) had to be female, (b) had to have been born between 1946 and 1964, (c) had to have spent at least half of her childhood in the United States, (d) had to have been raised by a mother or other primary female caretaker in the home, (e) had to be capable of reading English, (f) must be an employee of XYZ College, and (g) had to consent to take part in the study. Participants were screened with the Study Participation Questionnaire (see Appendix B).

Consent of Participants

A Consent Form (see Consent for Participation in Research Study – Appendix C) for participants explained the advantages and disadvantages of participating in the

research project and the voluntary nature of the study, and provided a reasonable estimate of how long it would take to complete the packet of assessment instruments.

Confidentiality and participants' rights were explained. The consent form did not request or require participants' signatures. Anonymity was facilitated, although not guaranteed, by not collecting participants' names or other individually identifying information.

Participants were also asked on the Study Participation Questionnaire, "Do you give your consent to participate in this study, based on the terms outlined in the attached "Consent for Participation in Research Study" form? A "yes" or "no" response was required.

There was no potential for compensation for study participation. This eliminated possible financial pressure upon participants and any further need for the researcher to request personally identifying information.

Procedures

Sample Selection Procedure

This researcher obtained permission from an administrator at a suburban community college to distribute survey materials to all female employees born between 1946 and 1964. The study was approved by the college's Institutional Review Board. The researcher also obtained permission from leaders of an employee organization to attend a regular membership meeting for the purpose of explaining the study and encouraging participation. Participants who attended the voluntary monthly membership meeting heard a brief, scripted presentation by the researcher (see Script of Presentation to Employee Groups - Appendix D), describing the study, its risks and benefits, criteria for inclusion, compensation, and the voluntary nature of the study. The Consent Form and

the Cover Letter/Instruction Sheet (Appendix E) were made available to those at the meetings who wished to see it.

Data Collection Procedures

All potential participants were sent a personally addressed research packet through campus mail. Participants were informed of a preferred time limit of 2 weeks in which to complete and return the packet. The research packet was expected to take approximately 30 minutes to complete and included a Study Participation Questionnaire, the Satisfaction With Life Scale (see Appendix F; Diener et al., 1985), the Career Satisfaction Scale (see Appendix G; Greenhaus et al., 1990), the Parental Affection in Childhood Scales of the MIDUS survey (see Appendixes H & I; Brim et al., 1996), a Career and Family Questionnaire developed for this study (see Appendix J), and a Demographic Data Form (see Appendix K). Also included in the packet were a Consent Form, Cover Letter/Instruction Sheet, and information regarding Pepperdine University Psychology Counseling Clinics (Appendix L). Participants were instructed to complete the packet on their own time, preferably away from the workplace. Participants were asked to mail the completed packets, leaving out all identifying information, within 2 weeks in the envelope provided. The reminder postcard (see Appendix M) was not sent.

Instrumentation

The study included a Study Participation Questionnaire, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985), the Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990), the Parental Affection in Childhood Scales of the MIDUS survey (Brim et al., 1996), a Career and Family Questionnaire developed for this study, and a Demographic Data Form.

Study Participation Questionnaire

The Study Participation Questionnaire was used to determine whether a potential participant was eligible for the study. To be included in the population of this study, each participant (a) must be female, (b) must have been born between 1946 and 1964, (c) must have spent at least half of her childhood in the United States, (d) must have been raised by a mother or other primary female caretaker in the home, (e) must be capable of reading English, (f) must be an employee of XYZ College, and (g) must consent to take part in the study. Participants who responded with “no” to any of the questions were not included in study results.

Satisfaction With Life Scale

The measure used in the current study to assess life satisfaction is the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985). Life satisfaction is the cognitive component of subjective well being. According to Pavot and Diener (1993), life satisfaction "is a conscious cognitive judgment of one's life in which the criteria for judgment are up to the person" (p. 164).

In constructing the scale, Diener and colleagues (1985) emphasized the need for overall, or global, evaluation of one's life, rather than evaluation by specific domains such as health or energy. The theoretical basis for generation of items for the scale is the principle that life satisfaction "represents a judgment by the respondent of his or her life in comparison to standards" (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p. 1041). From an initial 48 questions, 5 items were left after eliminating items related to affect, low satisfaction factor load, and semantic duplications. The self-report scale consists of 5 items that are answered on a 7-point Likert scale.

Pavot and Diener (1993) provide psychometric information on the scale in "Review of the Satisfaction with Life Scale." Normative data is given from diverse populations, which include older adults, prisoners, college students, abused women, and others. Considerable variability in life satisfaction was reported, with group means varying from 12 for an alcoholic inpatient sample to 28 for a group of older Canadians. Within the normative group data, most groups fall in the range of 23 to 28, or the range of slightly satisfied to satisfied.

Reliability is addressed in the original study (Diener et al., 1985), with an alpha coefficient of .87 for the scale and a 2-month test-retest coefficient of .82 reported. Temporal reliability has been reported in various studies. There is some consistency over time of life satisfaction; however, good and bad events in the respondents' lives predict changes in life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

Lounsbury and colleagues (2004) found a positive relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction using path analysis. They stated, "overall satisfaction represents a critical outcome measure for research on career activities" (p. 402).

Construct validity of the scale is evidenced by (a) negative correlation of the SWLS with measures of negative affect (Diener et al., 1985), (b) positive correlation of the SWLS with extraversion and well being (Diener et al., 1985), and (c) inverse correlation with neuroticism. The scale also shows discriminant validity from measures of emotional well being.

Pavot and Diener (1993) suggested three limitations of the scale. One limitation relates to the narrowness of the instrument, which precludes it from directly measuring emotional well being. Another limitation is that since the SWLS is a self-report measure, respondents can consciously distort their responses if they are motivated to do so. Also,

there is no way of knowing to what standard the person has compared the conditions of her or his life. Because of these limitations, Pavot and Diener suggest that we don't yet understand the meaning of life satisfaction.

The SWLS was included in this study to explore the relationship between early maternal emotional support and life satisfaction, and the relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction. The scale is in the public domain, not copyrighted, and available for use without charge and without permission (Pavot & Diener, 1993; see Appendix N).

Career Satisfaction Scale

The measure used in the current study to assess career satisfaction was the Career Satisfaction scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The scale was developed for measuring career satisfaction in the study, "Effects of Race on Organizational Experiences, Job Performance Evaluations and Career Outcomes," which included 820 subjects: 449 women (228 Black and 221 White) and 371 men (140 Black and 231 White).

The self-report scale consists of five questions that are answered on a 5-point Likert scale: 1=*Strongly disagree* to 5=*Strongly agree*. Reliability of this scale in the original study was .88. Mean item score in the original study was 3.38, with 1.02 *SD*.

At least five studies have used the Career Satisfaction scale since its development in 1990. In 1993, Aryee studied 230 engineers in Singapore in "A Path-Analytic Investigation of Determinants of Career Withdrawal Intentions of Engineers." Reliability for the Career Satisfaction scale as used in the Aryee study is expressed in a Cronbach alpha of .89. Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999) studied university alumni ($N = 496$) in "Proactive Personality and Career Success." Reliability is expressed in a Cronbach alpha of .83. Erdogan and colleagues (2004) studied teachers ($N = 520$) in "Work Value

Congruence and Intrinsic Career Success." The item related to income was dropped because it had a negative effect on reliability. The researchers attribute this to teachers' low income. The study measured two components of intrinsic career success: job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Job satisfaction and career satisfaction emerged as distinct variables in the study. Reliability for the Career Satisfaction scale as used in the Erdogan et al. study is expressed in a Cronbach alpha of .89. Mean Career Satisfaction score 4.69, *SD* 1.52. Burke, Oberklaid, and Burgess (2004) studied female psychologists ($N = 324$), half of whom are middle aged, in "Workaholism Among Australian Women Psychologists." The study measured career satisfaction with the Career Satisfaction scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Reliability for the Career Satisfaction scale as used in the Burke et al. study is expressed in a Cronbach alpha of .91. Finally, Judge and colleagues (2004) studied industrial-organizational psychologists ($N = 154$) in "A Longitudinal Model of Sponsorship and Career Success: A Study of Industrial-Organizational Psychologists." They found that intrinsic career success (career satisfaction) was positively influenced by extrinsic career success (rank, salary, prestige etc.) and universalistic performance (production). Reliability for the Career Satisfaction scale as used in the Judge et al. study is expressed in a Cronbach alpha of .86. Mean Career Satisfaction score is 3.9, *SD* .73. Permission to use the scale was provided by Greenhaus, Ph.D. (see Appendix N).

Parental Affection in Childhood Scale of the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS)

The measure used in the current study to assess early parental emotional support was the Parental Affection in Childhood Scale, one of 34 scales that comprise MIDUS (Brim et al., 1996). The Parental Affection in Childhood Scale (PTSAFF) is divided into two parallel scales. One scale, the Maternal Affection Scale (MOAFF; Appendix H),

measures the availability of emotional support from the respondent's mother or female caretaker; the other scale, the Paternal Affection Scale (FAAFF; Appendix I), measures the availability of emotional support from the respondent's father or male caretaker.

From 1995-1996, data were collected from adults who comprise a nationally representative, randomly chosen sample of non-institutionalized, English-speaking adults, age 25-74, who resided in the United States ($N = 3,044$). The data were collected via telephone interview and follow-up mailed questionnaire. The overall response rate for the entire MIDUS survey was 60.8%. Approximately 55.5% of the MIDUS sample is female. At the time of the survey, 52% of the respondents were between the ages of 36-60, with a racial composition similar to that of the U.S. population.

The PTSAFF addresses mother's and father's (a) attempt to understand, (b) expression of love and affection, (c) provision of time and attention, (d) effort expended in child's upbringing, (e) teaching about life, as well as (f) child's ability to confide in mother. This conceptualization is consistent with other theorists' definitions of emotional support, which include sympathetic listening (Wills & Shinar, 2000), caring, warmth, esteem, affection, reassurance of worth, and support of esteem (Cutrona et al., 1994; Scholte et al., 2001; Wills & Shinar), and acceptance and respect for autonomy (Wills & Shinar; Scholte et al., 2001). Emotional support and warmth are key components of the parent-child relationship, and are included in measures of parental attachment (Kenny, 1987) and parental support (Dillman, 1989).

The scale consists of seven questions: Question 1 is answered on a 5-point Likert scale, and questions 2-7 are answered on a 4-point Likert scale. Scale means (items 2-7) for the original MIDUS study were 19.08 (SD 4.24) for the Maternal Affection Scale and 16.72 (SD 4.96) for the Paternal Affection Scale. Reliability for the scales is expressed in

a Cronbach alpha of .91 for the Maternal Affection Scale and .92 for the Paternal Affection Scale. Higher scores on both the Maternal and Paternal scales reflect greater emotional support.

As of 2002, there were 87 published articles and chapters using MIDUS data, as well as 34 articles and chapters in press. Research has centered on social responsibility, stress, control beliefs, aging, health behaviors, aspects of work and mental and physical health, mental health, emotional well being, and work and family roles.

The Parental Affection in Childhood Scale was included in this study because it is consistent with emotional support theory, addresses early life, and was normed on a large sample of adults. The purpose of using the scale was to measure early maternal emotional support and see whether it predicts career satisfaction and life satisfaction, as well as to measure early paternal emotional support and see how it correlates with maternal support. Permission to use the scale is presented in Appendix N.

Career and Family Questionnaire

A 20-item Career and Family Questionnaire (see Appendix J) was developed for this study. Responses to items in three areas: maternal support for goals; maternal empathy; and life review/looking back, were compared to results of the formal scales included in the research packet. All items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale, with higher scores reflecting greater levels of agreement with the items. Questions regarding maternal support for goals were included because they illuminate a specific area of maternal emotional support that relates to career/education and family goals for daughters. Questions about maternal empathy were included in order to expand the concept of emotional support for women. Questions related to life review were included because they provide information about early goals regarding career and family, as well

as outcomes at midlife. Data from the Career and Family Questionnaire is included in the discussion of the study, in order to provide a broader understanding of study data and to contribute to the clinical implications of the results.

Demographic Data Form

The Demographic Data Form (see Appendix K) includes the following: year of birth, marital status, ages of children, level of education completed, level of income, number of years and occupational group (classified, certificated or other) at XYZ College, mother's educational level, and occupation of both parents. These questions were included to better understand the participant's current job status, and to investigate how some environmental variables may help or hinder a woman's life and career satisfaction. For example, does being married or having children make a difference in a woman's career satisfaction? Is there a connection between a woman's levels of career satisfaction and her income level? Does the level of education of mother influence a daughter's career satisfaction? Does earlier (older participant) or later (younger participant) year of birth relate to career satisfaction for this cohort of women? Tables 1-3 provide demographic data for the total sample.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics are provided for the instruments used to measure the dependent variables: career satisfaction (CS) and life satisfaction (SWLS); and the independent variable, early maternal emotional support (MOAFF), as well as demographic variables and the Career and Family Questionnaire.

Correlational analysis was used to determine the strength and direction of relationships among the independent and dependent variables. Items in the "Career and Family Questionnaire" were correlated with the independent and dependent variables for

the purpose of better understanding the data (see Table 7). Backward elimination regression produced models for predicting life satisfaction and career satisfaction (see Table 8 and Table 9). The results will be presented concerning the hypotheses and the findings.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was, for a sample of middle-aged, working women to (a) assess levels of life satisfaction, career satisfaction, and early maternal emotional support, (b) explore the relationship between life satisfaction and career satisfaction, (c) determine whether early maternal emotional support correlates positively with life satisfaction, (d) determine whether early material emotional support correlates positively with career satisfaction, and (e) determine whether early maternal emotional support correlations positively with life satisfaction and career satisfaction. A total of 101 women participated in this study.

Table 1 through Table 3 display the frequency counts for selected variables. The women in this study ranged in age from being born in 1946 (62 years old) to 1964 (44 years old) with a median birth year of 1953 (55 years old). Eighty-six percent of the women had at least a bachelor's degree with 74.3% had earned an advanced degree. For marital status, the most selected categories were married (46.5%) and divorced (21.8%). Forty-eight percent had children and the most identified racial/ethnic group was Caucasian (72.3%). The median personal annual income was \$71,000 per year and 56.4% and an annual household income of \$80,000 per year or more (Table 1).

Hours of weekly work ranged from "Less than ten" to "More than 40" with a median of 33 hours per week. Almost two-thirds (63.4%) were certificated employees. The total years working at the college ranged from "Less than 5 years" to "30 years and beyond" (*Mdn* = 14.5 years). Most (81.2%) had jobs that required a 5-year college degree (Table 2).

Table 1

Personal Characteristics: Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 101)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Birth Year	1946-1950	23	22.8
	1951-1955	37	36.6
	1956-1960	25	24.8
	1961-1964	16	15.8
Education	Some college	14	13.9
	BA/BS	10	9.9
	Some master's work	2	2.0
	Master's degree	54	53.5
	Some doctoral work	2	2.0
	Doctorate	19	18.8
Marital Status	Never married	16	15.8
	Currently married	47	46.5
	Living with partner–Opposite gender	5	5.0
	Living with partner–Same gender	3	3.0
	Divorced	22	21.8
	Widowed	8	7.9
Have Children	Yes	48	47.5
	No	53	52.5
Race/Ethnicity	Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	73	72.3
	Latina/Hispanic	5	5.0
	Asian-American	5	5.0
	African-American	7	6.9
	Missing or Other	11	10.9

(table continues)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Personal Annual Income			
	Less than \$10,000	2	2.0
	\$10-\$24,000	6	5.9
	\$25-\$34,000	8	7.9
	\$35-\$44,000	8	7.9
	\$45-\$54,000	12	11.9
	\$55-\$64,000	10	9.9
	\$65-\$79,000	19	18.8
	More than \$80,000	36	35.6
Household Annual Income			
	\$10-\$24,000	3	3.0
	\$25-\$34,000	4	4.0
	\$35-\$44,000	5	5.0
	\$45-\$54,000	8	7.9
	\$55-\$64,000	11	10.9
	\$65-\$79,000	13	12.9
	More than \$80,000	57	56.4

Table 2

Professional Characteristics: Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 101)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Occupational Group			
	Classified	25	24.8
	Certificated	64	63.4
	Other	12	11.9

(table continues)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Hours of Weekly Work	Less than 10	26	25.7
	10-19	17	16.8
	20-29	4	4.0
	30-35	15	14.9
	36-40	23	22.8
	More than 40	16	15.8
Total Years of Work at College	Less than 5 years	21	20.8
	5-9 years	16	15.8
	10-19 years	35	34.7
	20-29 years	24	23.8
	30 years and beyond	5	5.0
Job Require Four-Year Degree	Yes	82	81.2
	No	19	18.8

All except for 4 of the participants (96.0%) were raised by their biological mother. Thirty percent of the primary female caretakers had at least a bachelor's degree. Of the primary female caretakers who were homemakers at different points of participants' developmental years, 70.3% were homemakers before participants were five years old; 56.4% were homemakers when participants were in the 5 to 11 year old range; and 37.6% were homemakers when participants were in the 12 to 18 year old range. For 90.1% of the women, the primary male in their life was their biological father (Table 3).

Table 3

Parental Characteristics: Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 101)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Primary Female	Biological mother	97	96.0
	Stepmother	2	2.0
	Grandmother	1	1.0
	Aunt	1	1.0
Primary Female-Education	Some high school	11	10.9
	High school/GED	31	30.7
	Some college	29	28.7
	BA/BS	17	16.8
	Some master's work	2	2.0
	Master's degree	11	10.9
Primary Female-Work Before Age 5	Homemaker	71	70.3
	Part-time	13	12.9
	Full time	17	16.8
Primary Female-Work Ages 5-11	Homemaker	57	56.4
	Part-time	18	17.8
	Full time	26	25.7
Primary Female-Work Ages 12-18	Homemaker	38	37.6
	Part-time	22	21.8
	Full time	41	40.6
Primary Male	Biological father	91	90.1
	Stepfather	6	5.9
	Grandfather	1	1.0
	No consistent father or father figure	3	3.0

Table 4 displays the psychometric characteristics for the six summated scale scores. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranged from $r = .82$ to $r = .93$ with a median alpha of $r = .91$. This suggested that all scales had adequate levels of internal reliability.

Table 4

Psychometric Characteristics for Summated Scale Scores (N = 101)

Score	Number					
	of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Low	High	Alpha
Satisfaction with Life Scale	5	5.24	1.30	1.40	7.00	.90
Career Satisfaction	5	3.91	0.95	1.00	5.00	.88
Maternal Affection	7	2.91	0.83	0.96	3.96	.93
Paternal Affection	7	2.61	0.80	0.96	3.96	.92
CF Maternal Empathy ^a	5	3.60	1.24	1.00	5.00	.93
CF Maternal Support of Goals ^a	4	3.65	1.14	1.00	5.00	.82

^aCF = *Career and Family Scale*.

Research Hypothesis One

Research Hypothesis One predicted, “Career satisfaction will have a positive link with life satisfaction.” Table 5 displays the Pearson product-moment correlation for the career and life satisfaction scores. The correlation was significant ($r = .61, p = .001$) which provided support for Research Hypothesis One.

Research Hypothesis Two

Research Hypothesis Two predicted, “Early maternal emotional support will have a positive link with life satisfaction.” To test this, Table 5 displays the Pearson product-moment correlations life satisfaction with three measures of early maternal emotional support. All three correlations were significant. Specifically, life satisfaction was positively correlated with maternal affection ($r = .36, p < .001$), CF maternal empathy ($r = .35, p < .001$) and CF maternal support of goals ($r = .30, p < .003$). These findings provided support for Research Hypothesis Two.

Table 5

Intercorrelations Among the Summated Scale Scores (N = 101)

Score	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Satisfaction with Life Scale	1.00					
2. Career Satisfaction	.61****	1.00				
3. Maternal Affection	.36****	.17	1.00			
4. Paternal Affection	.24*	.16	.28***	1.00		
5. CF Maternal Empathy ^a	.35****	.19	.92****	.22*	1.00	
6. CF Maternal Support of Goals ^a	.30***	.18	.82****	.30***	.83****	1.00

^aCF = *Career and Family Scale*.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Research Hypothesis Three

Research Hypothesis Three predicted that, “Early maternal emotional support will have a positive link with career satisfaction.” To test this, Table 5 displays the Pearson product-moment correlations career satisfaction with three measures of early maternal emotional support. All three correlations were not significant. Specifically, career satisfaction was not significantly related to maternal affection ($r = .17$), CF maternal empathy ($r = .19$) and CF maternal support of goals ($r = .18$). These findings provided no support for Research Hypothesis Three.

Additional Findings

Cohen (1988) suggested some guidelines for interpreting the strength of linear correlations: a *weak correlation* typically had an absolute value of $r = .10$ (about one percent of the variance explained), a *moderate correlation* typically had an absolute value of $r = .30$ (about nine percent of the variance explained) and a *strong correlation* typically had an absolute value of $r = .50$ (about 25 percent of the variance explained). For the sake of parsimony, this Results chapter will primarily highlight those correlations that were at least *moderate* strength to minimize the potential of numerous Type I errors stemming from interpreting and drawing conclusions based on potentially spurious correlations.

Table 6 displays the Pearson product-moment correlations for 16 selected demographic variables with life and career satisfaction. Life satisfaction was significantly correlated with 4 of 16 variables at the $p < .05$ with 1 of the 4 variables being on moderate strength when using the Cohen (1988) criteria. Specifically, life satisfaction had a significant moderate sized correlation with household annual income ($r = .42, p < .001$). Career satisfaction was significantly correlated with 3 of 16 variables at

the $p < .05$ with all 3 variables being on moderate strength when using the Cohen (1988) criteria. Specifically, career satisfaction had a significant moderate sized correlation with being certificated ($r = .30, p < .003$), personal annual income ($r = .37, p < .001$), and household annual income ($r = .43, p < .001$).

Table 6

Correlations for Selected Demographic Variables with Life and Career Satisfaction Scales (N = 101)

Variable	Life	Career
Birth Year	.00	-.05
Hours of Weekly Work	-.05	.13
Certificated ^a	.22*	.30***
Total Years of Work	.01	.15
Education	.04	.16
Job Require Four-Year Degree ^a	.11	.16
Married ^a	.27**	.10
Have Children ^a	.09	.00
Total Number of Children	.08	-.02
Caucasian ^a	.09	.04
Personal Annual Income	.15	.37****
Household Annual Income	.42****	.43****
Primary Female-Education	.00	-.06
Primary Female-Work Before Age 5 ^b	-.02	.01
Primary Female-Work Ages 5-11 ^b	-.13	-.06
Primary Female-Work Ages 12-18 ^b	-.20*	-.15

^a Coding: 0 = No 1 = Yes.

^b Coding: 1 = Homemaker 2 = Part-time work 3 = Full time work.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Table 7 displays the Pearson product-moment correlations for 24 selected scales and individual CF items with life and career satisfaction. Life satisfaction was significantly correlated with 18 of 24 variables at the $p < .05$ with 10 of the 18 variables being at least moderate strength when using the Cohen (1988) criteria. Specifically, life satisfaction had a significant moderate or large sized correlation with career satisfaction ($r = .61, p = .001$), maternal affection ($r = .36, p < .001$), CF maternal empathy ($r = .35, p < .001$), CF maternal support of goals ($r = .30, p < .005$), CF Item 1, “My mother was interested in me as an individual” ($r = .30, p < .005$), CF Item 3, “My mother expressed love and affection toward me” ($r = .39, p < .001$), CF Item 4, “My mother tried to understand my point of view” ($r = .30, p < .005$), CF Item 11 “I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects” ($r = .38, p < .001$), CF Item 12, “Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic” ($r = .44, p < .001$), and CF Item 18, “A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family” ($r = .35, p < .001$).

Table 7

Correlations for Scales and Individual Career and Family (CF) Items with Life and Career Satisfaction Scales (N = 101)

Variable	Life	Career
Satisfaction with Life Scale	1.00	
Career Satisfaction	.61****	1.00
Maternal Affection	.36****	.17
Paternal Affection	.24**	.16
CF Maternal Empathy	.35****	.19
CF Maternal Support of Goals	.30***	.18

(table continues)

Variable	Life	Career
1. My mother was interested in me as an individual.	.30***	.14
2. My mother was emotionally available when I needed her.	.29***	.16
3. My mother expressed love and affection toward me.	.39****	.20*
4. My mother tried to understand my point of view.	.30***	.19
5. My mother supported and approved of my independence.	.28***	.14
6. My mother approved of my goals.	.27**	.19*
7. My mother encouraged me to go to college.	.19	.04
8. My mother was my mentor.	.27**	.15
9. Reversed-I had no mentor	.19	.26**
10. I like coming to work because of the friendships I've made.	.24*	.39****
11. I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects.	.38****	.31***
12. Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic.	.44****	.61****
13. It was my goal to focus on my family and make work secondary.	.17	.01
14. It was my goal to have professional success.	.15	.11
15. It was my goal to work to make the world a better place.	.20*	.07
16. It was my goal to be wealthy.	-.14	-.08
17. The ideas of the Women's Movement influenced my career and family choices.	.08	.14
18. A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family.	.35****	.32****
19. Reversed-I have achieved what I have in life with very little help from my mother	.23*	.17
20. Reversed-I have achieved what I have in life with very little help from my father	.10	.14

Note. CF ratings used a five-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

Some items were reverse-scored because in some cases, a rating of *Strongly Disagree* was deemed to be most favorable.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Career satisfaction was significantly correlated with 7 of 24 variables at the $p < .05$ with four of the 7 variables being at least moderate strength when using the Cohen (1988) criteria. Specifically, career satisfaction had a significant moderate or large sized correlation with CF Item 10 “I like coming to work because of the friendships I’ve made” ($r = .39, p < .001$), CF Item 11 “I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects” ($r = .31, p < .002$), CF Item 12, “Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic” ($r = .61, p < .001$), and CF Item 18, “A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family” ($r = .32, p < .001$; Table 7).

Table 8 displays the results of the backwards elimination regression model that predicted life satisfaction based on 41 candidate variables. The final nine-variable model was statistically significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 60.4% of the variance in the dependent variable. Specifically, life satisfaction was related to: (a) greater career satisfaction ($\beta = .46, p = .001$); (b) less education ($\beta = -.25, p = .001$); (c) less personal annual income ($\beta = -.25, p = .001$); (d) more household annual income ($\beta = .38, p = .001$); (e) having a mother who was a homemaker during ages 12 to 18 ($\beta = -.14, p = .05$); (f) more agreement with CF Item 3, “My mother expressed love and affection toward me” ($\beta = .26, p = .001$); (g) more agreement with CF Item 14, “It was my goal to have professional success” ($\beta = .15, p = .04$); (h) more agreement with CF Item 15, “It was my goal to work to make the world a better place” ($\beta = .19, p = .006$); and (i) less agreement with CF Item 16, “It was my goal to be wealthy” ($\beta = -.12, p = .07$).

Table 8

*Prediction of Life Satisfaction Based on Selected Variables. Backward Elimination**Regression (N = 101)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
Intercept	0.68	0.68		.32
Career Satisfaction	0.63	0.11	.46	.001
Education	-0.21	0.06	-.25	.001
Personal Annual Income	-0.16	0.05	-.25	.001
Household Annual Income	0.29	0.07	.38	.001
Primary Female-Work Ages 12-18 ^a	-0.20	0.10	-.14	.05
3. My mother expressed love and affection toward me. ^b	0.24	0.06	.26	.001
14. It was my goal to have professional success. ^b	0.18	0.09	.15	.04
15. It was my goal to work to make the world a better place. ^b	0.25	0.09	.19	.006
16. It was my goal to be wealthy. ^b	-0.15	0.08	-.12	.07

Note. Final Model: $F(9, 91) = 15.45, p = .001. R^2 = .604.$ Candidate variables = 41.

^aCoding: 1 = *Homemaker* 2 = *Part-time work* 3 = *Full time work*.

^bCareer and Family scale item.

Table 9 displays the results of the backwards elimination regression model that predicted career satisfaction based on 41 candidate variables. The final six-variable model was statistically significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 52.7% of the variance in the dependent variable. Specifically, career satisfaction was related to: (a) more personal annual income ($\beta = .23, p = .003$); (b) having a mother who was a homemaker during

ages 12 to 18 ($\beta = -.17, p = .02$); (c) more agreement with CF Item 11, “I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects” ($\beta = .22, p = .006$); (d) more agreement with CF Item 12, “Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic” ($\beta = .51, p = .001$); (e) less agreement with CF Item 15, “It was my goal to work to make the world a better place” ($\beta = -.18, p = .02$); and (i) more agreement with CF Item 18, “A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family” ($\beta = .18, p = .01$).

Table 9

Prediction of Career Satisfaction Based on Selected Variables. Backward Elimination Regression (N = 101)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
Intercept	1.20	0.42		.005
Personal Annual Income	0.10	0.03	.23	.003
Primary Female-Work Ages 12-18 ^a	-0.18	0.08	-.17	.02
11. I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects. ^b	0.19	0.07	.22	.006
12. Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic. ^b	0.45	0.07	.51	.001
15. It was my goal to work to make the world a better place. ^b	-0.17	0.07	-.18	.02
18. A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family. ^b	0.10	0.04	.18	.01

Note. Final Model: $F(6, 94) = 17.46, p = .001$. $R^2 = .527$. Candidate variables = 41.

^aCoding: 1 = *Homemaker* 2 = *Part-time work* 3 = *Full time work*.

^bCareer and Family scale item

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a summary of key findings of the research, critical review of findings in comparison with the literature, and conclusions and implications of the results. In addition the chapter includes recommendations for further research and policy and recommendations for practitioners.

The purpose of this study was to learn about career satisfaction and life satisfaction for women born between 1945 and 1964, the era known as the Baby Boom. Early maternal emotional support was the primary independent variable. Maternal emotional support was considered in terms of maternal affection, maternal empathy as defined in relational theory, and maternal support for goals. A guiding assumption of the research was that a woman who received affection, attention, understanding, and acceptance from her mother would be able to act in the world while secure in her connection to her mother, and to subsequently experience higher satisfaction in her career and her life overall. Also studied, along with demographic variables, were the influence of the women's movement, the importance of paternal emotional support, attempts to balance career and family, work relationships, and the nature and support of career goals as they relate to life satisfaction and career satisfaction.

Women employed at a Southern California community college were selected as a pool of potential participants because of their range of ethnicity, income, and breadth of job classifications. Perhaps due to the composition of the sample, the relatively low response rate of 18%, or the element of self selection, the final sample had a restricted range of demographic variables; therefore, results should not be generalized beyond the sample studied.

Two of the research hypotheses were supported: Hypothesis One—career satisfaction will have a positive link with life satisfaction, and Hypothesis Two—early maternal emotional support will have a positive link with life satisfaction. Hypothesis Three, Early maternal emotional support will have a positive link with career satisfaction, was not supported. Table 5 displays the Pearson-product moment correlations for career satisfaction, life satisfaction, and three measures of early maternal emotional support, suggesting that all scales had adequate levels of internal reliability.

The data provide an interesting look at the 101 women who completed the study and suggest some trends as well as directions for further research. This section will first look closely at the participants as a group and see how they compare with women in the general population as well as women of similar academic achievement. Next, significant findings will be discussed in light of the literature.

The sample was drawn from among 545 female employees of a Southern California community college who were 44 to 63 years of age; 101 women responded before the cut-off. Ethnically, the women are similar to the make-up of the city where the community college is located. No correlation was found between birth year and the study's dependent variables of life satisfaction and career satisfaction. Even the oldest of these women would not have been past their childbearing years when the Women's Movement of the 1960s and 1970s emerged; therefore, decisions regarding marriage and motherhood were imminent for these women. The percentage of participants who were married at the time of the study, 46.5%, is a little lower than the overall prevalence of 55.3% of current marriage for all adults (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008). In this study, being married was correlated with life satisfaction ($r = .27, p < .01$) but not correlated with career satisfaction. Women in the current study were at least 50% more likely to never

marry than women the same age in the general population (15.8% vs. 10%).

Remarkably, 52% of study participants report childlessness, approximately twice the rate for similarly educated women in the general population, and two and a half times that of all women (Dye, 2008). Spurling (2002) found that women who were voluntarily childless at midlife rated high in life satisfaction; however, childless women in the current study did not experience higher, or lower, levels of life satisfaction or career satisfaction.

Balancing career and family was a concern of baby boom women, and postponing or limiting the number of children were strategies employed by many. Women in this study who did not have children may be more like the women of the Silent generation whom Putney & Bengtson (2005) studied, who, having already raised their families and with fewer family obligations, were in a position to take advantage of the new opportunities for women without needing to balance the responsibilities of work and family. For women anticipating an academic career, the risk of having fewer publications, slower career progress and lower career satisfaction (Barnett et al., 1998) might have affected their childbearing patterns.

In the current study, spousal support was important for balancing career and family. Agreement with “A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family” (see Table 7, CF#18) was significantly correlated (.001) with both career satisfaction ($r = .35$) and life satisfaction ($r = .32$). This agrees with the work of Miller, A. (2001), Smith and Walker (1993), and Sudeck (1992).

Another way in which women may attempt to balance their career and family lives is by downscaling (Betz, 1994). Betz suggested that when a woman’s occupation does not reflect her intellectual ability, interests, or career aspirations, she might have

downscaled in order to prepare for role balancing. It seems unlikely that women of the current study have used downscaling to balance career and family, since 86% of participants have at least a bachelor's degree and 82% say that their jobs require at least a bachelor's degree. It is possible, though, that some participants who have master's or doctoral degrees are in jobs that require less education, and that some participants with bachelor's degrees may have aspired to higher academic achievement but downscaled.

Study participants' mothers were also well educated. Twice as many of the participant mothers, compared to other women in the same birth cohort, held a bachelor's degree or higher. However, most mothers were homemakers when their daughters were small. Few of the mothers worked full time before participants were 5 years of age, but 40.6% were employed full time when participants were 12-18 years of age (see Table 3). There was a small but significant negative correlation ($p < .05$) between higher life satisfaction and mothers' work hours when participants were between 12 and 18 years of age. This could suggest that the fewer hours that mom worked when daughters were teens, the happier their daughters are now at midlife.

Participants' levels of academic achievement are similar to full time faculty nationwide (American Association of Community Colleges, 2008). This is significantly higher than for the same age cohort in the general population, of which 27% of women have a bachelor's degree or higher (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.).

The median personal annual personal income for participants was \$71K. The median earning of the participants is higher than the \$38,216 median earnings for U.S. women with bachelor's degrees as well as the \$50,483 for women with graduate or professional degrees (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.). In the current study, personal income was associated with career satisfaction, but not with life satisfaction. However, household

income was significantly correlated ($p > .001$) with both life satisfaction ($r = .42$) and career satisfaction ($r = .43$). A shortcoming of the present study is that the upper limits for both personal and household income were cut off at “\$80,000 and above.” There is no way of knowing what was earned by the 56.4% of households reporting an annual household income of \$80,000 or more per year or what proportion of the household income might have been earned by a spouse or partner. Racially, white respondents in this study are overrepresented. Although 63% of faculty and 34% of staff at XYZ College are white, similar to the mean rate for all California community colleges (California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, 2008), more than 72% of total participants in this study describe themselves as being white. This suggests a selection bias among the participants leading to a sampling error.

In some ways the women in this study suggest a recipe for success. They exhibit factors that enhance the career success of women, which include supportive family background, strong educational qualifications, later marriage and/or single status, few or no children, and the rejection of traditional attitudes toward women’s roles (Betz, 1994). This snapshot of the women in the current study is intended to make the discussion of the hypotheses more meaningful. While the results cannot be generalized, they may be useful with other academic and professional women and in a limited way to women in general.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One predicted that career satisfaction would be positively linked with life satisfaction. Career satisfaction was measured by participant’s level of satisfaction regarding progress toward various career goals (Career Satisfaction Scale, see Appendix G), and life satisfaction was measured with the Satisfaction with Life Scale (see Appendix F). Data were analyzed using correlation and backward elimination regression.

Career satisfaction and life satisfaction were strongly correlated with 37% of the variance shared. Researchers have found not only a correlation between career satisfaction and life satisfaction (Holahan et al., 1999; Kalin, 1998; Stewart & Vandewater, 1999), but also a link from career satisfaction to life satisfaction determined by path analysis (Lounsbury et al., 2004).

Five items emerged from additional analysis of the data that were significantly correlated with both life satisfaction and career satisfaction. These items relate to goals, work collaboration, a supportive spouse, mother's employment, and household income. There were also ways in which life satisfaction and career satisfaction differed.

The first item moderately correlated with both life satisfaction ($r = .44, p < .001$) and career satisfaction ($r = .67, p < .001$) was in agreement with the statement, "Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic" (item #12 CF, Table 7). In fact, this was the single item most highly correlated with either dependent variable. Participants were free to define "realistic" in their own way. A basic definition of realistic is "Tending to or expressing an awareness of things as they really are" ("Realistic," n.d.). It appears that for many participants in this study, career goals were set high, and judging from academic achievement and professional status, those goals were at least partially, if not completely achieved. Something in the backgrounds of these women may have enabled them to set goals that matched their abilities and resources, making their goals attainable and therefore realistic. The high academic accomplishment of their mothers made college a realistic goal for participants (Cross, 1975; Sudeck, 1992). Higher maternal levels of education and the less need for mother to work outside the home (see Table 3) point toward higher socioeconomic status within the childhood homes of study participants.

This made it more likely that the participants' goals would be achievable, and therefore, be realistic.

Agreement with a second item, "A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family" (item #18 CF, Table 7) was significantly correlated with both life satisfaction ($r = .35, p < .001$) and career satisfaction ($r = .32, p < .001$). Baby boom women interviewed while in their 40s reported that the critical factor enabling them to actualize career goals and balance career and family was a supportive husband (Miller, 2001; Smith & Walker, 1993; Sudeck, 1992).

The third of five items with a moderate and significant correlation with both life satisfaction and career satisfaction was household income (.42, $p < .001$ and .43, $p < .001$, respectively). The association of income with subjective well being is unclear. In poorer countries there is a greater correlation between life satisfaction and income than in affluent countries (Diener et al., 1997).

Agreement with a fourth item, "I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects" (item #11 CF, Table 7) was significantly correlated with both life satisfaction (.38, $p < .001$) and career satisfaction (.31, $p < .005$). According to Self-in-Relation theory (Jordan et al., 1991), a mutually empathic mother-daughter relationship leads to relational competence in the daughter. For women with greater job status, relational skills are emphasized through a collaborative approach to work (Fletcher, 2004; Richie et al., 1997; Silverstein, 2001.)

Women with lesser job status employ relational skills through friendship and other social support that improve working conditions, such as union activity (Andrew & Montague, 1998; Harris et al., 2001; Zavella, 1987). In this study, the question, "I like coming to work because of the friendships I've made," (CF #10) was significantly

correlated with career satisfaction ($r = .39, p < .001$). This was unexpected, considering the proportion of participants in higher status jobs. A reason for this could be that XYZ College, as a public educational institution, operates under what Callanan and Greenhaus (2008) call the “traditional, relational psychological contract,” promising “long-term job security in exchange for worker loyalty” as opposed to a “transactional contract” based solely on economic value (p. 75). Almost two-thirds of the participants have worked for this employer for more than 10 years (see Table 2) and many are members of campus labor unions and/or professional organizations. Many participate in departmental or campus-wide committees. In this stable and collegial environment, it would follow that relational skills would be important and friendships would develop.

A fifth item, relating to mother’s work status during participants’ childhood, predicted both life satisfaction and career satisfaction on the respective backward elimination regression analyses (see Table 8 and Table 9). The fewer hours worked outside the home by mothers when daughters were 12-18 years old, the higher life satisfaction and career satisfaction for daughters at mid-life. However, in the correlational analysis of demographic variables (see Table 6), there appeared to be a trend in this direction but too little of a correlation to warrant exploration.

No direct correlation was shown between life satisfaction or career satisfaction and any of the education-related variables: participant’s education, mother’s education, or “My mother encouraged me to go to college” CF #7. Higher academic achievement is associated with occupational status and income, which comprise socioeconomic status and affect SWB. Ryff and colleagues (1998) suggested that education alone is enough to determine SES because “income and occupational status are, to a great extent, consequences of educational achievement” (p. 263) and educational achievement

provides access to further opportunities and resources. Being an instructor at XYZ College, a professional designation that comes with higher income and status, was associated with greater career satisfaction. In the current study, both occupational status and personal income were correlated with career satisfaction. Household income was correlated with both career satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Research that links personality with career satisfaction and life satisfaction might disagree with the current findings. The amount of variance in life satisfaction explained by career satisfaction dropped significantly, from 15% to 4%, when personality factors were accounted for (Lounsbury et al., 2004).

One area that figured prominently in the current study in predicting life satisfaction, but not career satisfaction, was maternal emotional support. That is the basis of hypothesis two.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis Two predicted that early maternal emotional support would be positively linked with life satisfaction. Early maternal emotional support was measured with the Maternal Affection scale of the MIDUS (see appendix H), and life satisfaction was measured with the Satisfaction with Life scale. There was a significant correlation ($r = .35, p \leq .001$) between the two measures, and the hypothesis was supported. The Maternal Empathy and Maternal Support for Goals scales devised for this study showed significant correlations with each other ($r = .83, p < .001$) as well as with the Maternal Affection scale (see Table 5). All three scales were significantly correlated with life satisfaction.

Agreement with the statement, “My mother expressed love and affection toward me,” (CF #3, $r = .39, p < .001$) was surpassed only by “Looking back, I think my career

goals were realistic” in its correlation with life satisfaction. Most theorists would agree with the significance of maternal love and affection for the mental health outcomes, in this case happiness, of daughters. One explanation is that early love and affection lead to the development of relational skills that lead to supportive social relationships (Jordan et al., 1991; Richie et al., 1997; Ryff et al., 1998; Shaw et al., 2004). In the workplace, supportive social relationships take the form of friendships and collaboration with others (Andrew & Montague, 1998; Richie et al.; Zavella, 1987). Agreement with “I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects,” (CF #11, see Table 7) was significantly correlated with life satisfaction ($r = .38, p < .001$).

Another way that maternal emotional support affects life satisfaction is through its affect on goals (Ryan, et al., 1996). The Maternal Support of Goals scale created for this study was significantly correlated with life satisfaction ($r = .30, p < .005$). It was beyond the scope of this study to determine whether maternal emotional support correlated with type of goal, such as intrinsic or extrinsic. But it is known that pursuit of intrinsic goals can be predicted by having warm, involved parents who are autonomy granting (Ryan et al., 1996). In this study, more agreement with “It was my goal to work to make the world a better place” and less agreement with “It was my goal to be wealthy” predicted life satisfaction, when using the backward elimination regression model.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis Three predicted that early maternal emotional support would be positively linked with career satisfaction. Career satisfaction was measured by participant’s level of satisfaction regarding progress toward various career goals (Career Satisfaction Scale, see Appendix G). None of the three measures of maternal emotional

support were shown to have significant correlation with career satisfaction, and the hypothesis was not supported.

The item most correlated with career satisfaction was “Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic” (CF #12, $r = .61$, $p < .001$). Literature shows the relationship between maternal emotional support and career behaviors. Women who are attached to their mothers were interested in pursuing careers, selected careers that were consistent with their abilities, felt highly efficacious with regard to choosing careers (O’Brien et al. 2000), and experienced greater commitment to and less foreclosure of career choices and school adjustment (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991). There are demographic reasons why the women in this study may have found their career goals realistic. This is a highly educated group. All of these women were raised in the U.S. during the post World War II period of economic growth, and they are predominantly white. Twice as many of participants’ mothers, compared to other women in their mothers’ birth cohort, held a bachelor’s degree or higher, and mothers who attended college are vastly more likely to want their daughters to attend than mothers who had not (Cross, 1975). In Sudeck’s (1992) study of baby boom women, all of the daughters of college-educated mothers attended college. College attendance; therefore, would have been a realistic goal for the women of the current study. More than half of the mothers were full-time homemakers until their daughters were 12 years old. Higher maternal levels of education and less need for mother to work outside the home, along with the advantages that might come with being white in mid-century America, point toward higher socioeconomic status within the childhood homes of study participants. This made it more likely that their goals would be achievable, and therefore, realistic.

Three of the four items that correlated significantly with career satisfaction involved supportive relationships. “I like coming to work because of the friendships I’ve made” (CF #10, $r = .39$ $p < .001$); “I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects” (CF #11, $r = .31$, $p < .005$); and “A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family” (CF #18, $r = .32$; $p < .001$).

The notion that early maternal emotional support would be correlated with career satisfaction is consistent with feminist relational theory. In relational theory, a woman becomes empowered toward the fullest utilization of her abilities through a mutually empathic relationship with her mother (Chodorow, 1978; Surrey, 1991). As her sense of relational connection to others emerges, she becomes empowered to act in the world by building on these early relationships (Jordan et al., 1991). This is not to say that an empowered woman would achieve higher status or income, but that she would feel free to express her desires and abilities without fear of threatening her primary relationship to her mother, and possess important relational skills. It seems that, for the most part, the women of this study have utilized their career-related abilities. They have achieved higher than average academic accomplishments, income, and job status. They express an average level of career satisfaction (see Table 4), comparable to the research of Erdogan et al. (2004), Greenhaus et al. (1990), and Judge et al. (2004), but much of it is explained by status as a certificated employee, plus personal and household income.

The lack of a direct correlation between maternal emotional support and career satisfaction could have several explanations. One is that maternal emotional support is not important for career satisfaction and that there are more relevant independent variables, some that were and some that were not included in this study. Or, that the restricted range of values in the data precludes illustration of a trend. Another explanation

could lie with the methodology. While it is very likely that the measures of maternal emotional support used in this study are reliable and valid (see Table 4 and Table 5), it is possible that the Career Satisfaction Scale (Appendix G) does not adequately measure the construct under study, career satisfaction for adult women.

This study adds to a relatively new field of study, career development for women, using a relatively new theory of women's identity development, Self-in-Relation or relational theory. Because of the lack of appropriate scales or measures in either area, there was a risk of depending on measures that could be inconsistent with the theory behind this study. Therefore, this study was conducted using traditional measures that approximated the chosen constructs, and supplemented with additional questions based in the literature. It must be considered, however, that at this early stage these issues might be better studied qualitatively, which might contribute to theory rather than attempt to confirm hypotheses.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Since believing that one's career goals had been realistic was highly correlated with life satisfaction and career satisfaction, future research could look more deeply into the influences on and content of those goals. Formation of realistic goals may also be important to women planning the next stage of their lives.
2. This study has shown a strong correlation among the traditional concept of maternal emotional support and relational theory. Research on women is compromised by the lack of suitable measures, as noted by Fox (1998) and Kritis (1998). Continued research that would culminate in the development of a measure that would encompass the mother-daughter relationship, consistent with feminist theory and suiting the complexity of women's experiences, is needed.

3. Current measures of career success, including the subjective Career Satisfaction Scale, do not adequately address women's development and values. A measure is needed that acknowledges the importance of relationships and would encompass women's relational ways of working, growing and achieving.
4. The rate of childlessness in this sample was much higher than for women in general or even women in academia; although, motherhood status was not correlated with either life satisfaction or career satisfaction. Future research could explore the meaning of childlessness for society and for individual women of this generation over the entire life course.
5. Supportive relationships at work and home were correlated with life satisfaction and career satisfaction. There's some evidence that the quality of support received in childhood can affect a woman's ability to form ties with supportive persons in adulthood (Harris et al., 1990), and that women who successfully balance career and family have deliberately chosen supportive partners (Gerson, 1985; Phillips-Miller et al., 2000). Future research could determine the nature of the relationship between early support and a woman's ability to choose supportive adult partners.

Methodological Limitations

This study was limited by the usual constraints of time and resources that are a part of dissertation research, as well as limitations inherent in survey research.

Limitations associated with the research design include the cooperative nature (Isaac & Michael, 1997) and sense of social responsibility (Krosnick, 1999) of persons who participate in research.

Delimitations of the sample affect the study's generalizability. All participants are currently employed and employed by the same organization. This was somewhat

mediated by the fact that while participants all work in the same geographic location, many live well outside the city limits, in several adjacent counties. Also, women at XYZ College work in a number of capacities, but for purposes of protecting anonymity these categories were limited to instructional/certificated, support/classified, and other. All participants are part of a single age cohort. All women included in the study spent at least half of their childhood in the United States; and since the study was concerned with maternal emotional support, only women who were raised by a female caregiver were included in this study.

Aside from the chosen delimitations, an effort was made to include women from a variety of demographic and occupational groups as reflected in the composition of XYZ College employees. Despite this, the study suffered from a restriction of range and therefore does not reach the standards of Gravetter and Wallnau (1996): “For a correlation to provide an accurate description for the general population, there should be a wide range of X and Y values in the data” (p. 511). The women in this study are similar to each other and different from the general population in that they have high academic achievement and above average income, almost all participants were raised by their biological parents, and half of the participants never had children. Ethnically, the group is reflective of state and local populations; there are too few members of any minority group to warrant any meaningful discussion of diversity. Results of this study may have meaning for other academic women, especially community college instructors, and can contribute to the pool of knowledge about the lives of baby boom women.

This study could be enhanced in several ways. A small, purposive sample of study participants could be interviewed to obtain in-depth information regarding key issues that arose from this study. Also, the availability of a larger group of participants ranging from

homemakers to nontraditional workers would have improved the generalizability of the study. An option of completing this survey on the Internet could provide a much larger pool of participants. Additional analysis of the existing data could explore the correlation of maternal emotional support with key items that emerged from this study, such as supportive relationships and goals. Additional analysis could help to explain why concepts such as the Women's Movement that had been expected to correlate with life satisfaction and career satisfaction had not.

Recommendations

A review of the literature and the results of this study emphasize the importance of relationships to the well being of women. Since a supportive mother-daughter relationship in childhood predicts life satisfaction at midlife, and supportive adult relationships at home and at work contribute to career satisfaction and life satisfaction, policies and practices that value and strengthen women's relational needs and abilities are called for. In therapy and in the workplace, this means not pathologizing women's collaborative behaviors and dependence on relationship, but acknowledging the validity of a relational style. Corporate policies that allow a more relational contract that encourages collaboration, friendships and dedication to a common goal would help in the satisfaction and retention of female employees (Silverstein, 2001) and could encourage baby boom workers on the verge of retirement to remain in the workforce longer (Callanan & Greenhaus, 2008.)

Relational/cultural therapy (Jordan et al., 1997) works on two levels to restore and improve women's connections. First, a mutually empathic therapeutic relationship can bring the person back into empathic connection with others and facilitate healing and growth (Fletcher et al., 2000). Second, since relational/cultural therapy is both

multicultural and feminist, it addresses the real life experiences of women, immigrants, and minority peoples. It uses a collectivist, rather than individualistic, approach to problem solving. With a therapist's help, a woman can understand more about the societal and family forces that affected her life choices and outcomes, and with increased self empathy can make plans for the rest of her life. Through it all, a therapist may "subtly and sometimes directly encourage the ongoing turning to others for support and assistance rather than emphasizing an ultimate state of self reliance and independence" (Jordan et al., 1991, p. 288).

Conclusion and Implications for Psychology

Western psychology has been criticized for being too focused on psychopathology and the medical model; too focused on the individual; and not concerned enough with wider economic, political, and social issues. This study sought to avoid those criticisms by using a bio-psycho-social, lifespan approach to studying healthy adults, with a theoretical underpinning that sees persons as existing in relation to one another. It adds to our knowledge of the women of the 20th century baby boom generation in a manner cognizant of the identity development of women.

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APPENDIX A

Permission to Conduct Study at XYZ College

COLLEGE

January 9, 2008

Wendy Knight
Doctoral Student
Pepperdine University

Dear Wendy:

I give permission for you to conduct your research study, "The relationship between career achievement satisfaction and early maternal emotional support", at ██████████ College. Specifically, you have permission to:

1. address campus employee organizations at their monthly meeting to introduce the study;
2. invite ██████████ employees to participate in the study;
3. obtain a campus mailing list of potential participants; and
4. distribute research materials through the campus mailroom.

As we discussed, you have agreed to:

1. protect the confidentiality and anonymity of participants;
2. limit the impact that the study has on the daily workings of the College; and
3. notify participants that participation in this study is voluntary and not endorsed by myself or ██████████ College.

Good luck with your study. Let me know if I can be of further assistance.

Sincerely,

Executive Vice President

APPENDIX B

Study Participation Questionnaire

Today's Date: _____

INSTRUCTIONS:

- You may choose to not answer any questions, and you may discontinue taking this survey at any time, with no negative consequences.
- Read the instructions for each set of questions, as they are not always the same.
- Make sure that you do not put your name or other personally identifying information anywhere on this or any form in this packet.

Study Participation Questionnaire

Please respond to the items below.

1. Yes ___ No ___ Were you born between 1946 and 1964?
2. Yes ___ No ___ Are you female?
3. Yes ___ No ___ Are you employed at ~~XYZ College~~? This includes temporary, permanent, full-time, part-time, consultants, etc.
4. Yes ___ No ___ Did you live in the U.S. during at least half of your childhood (i.e., for at least 9 of the first 18 years of your life)?
5. Yes ___ No ___ Are you able to read and understand English?
6. Yes ___ No ___ Was there a female caretaker in your home when you were growing up? This includes any of the following who may have been your primary female caretaker: biological mother, adoptive mother, stepmother, foster mother, grandmother, aunt, sister, other female relative, or female non-relative.
7. Yes ___ No ___ Do you give your consent to participate in this study, based on the terms outlined in the attached "Consent for Participation in Research Study" form?

If you answered NO to any of the above questions, you do not fit the requirements for participation in this study. I thank you so much for your effort. Please return this form with the incomplete study packet in the stamped envelope provided. Do not put your name anywhere on the materials. Also, you may contact me at ~~zyx@xyz.com~~ if you have questions about your eligibility to participate.

APPENDIX C

Consent to Participate in Research Study

My name is Wendy Knight and I am a doctoral candidate in psychology at Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, who is currently in the process of recruiting individuals for my study titled “The Relationships Among Early Maternal Emotional Support, Career Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction for Baby Boom women at Midlife.” The professor supervising my work is Dr. Tomas Martinez. The study is designed to investigate the relationship between a woman’s career satisfaction and her early relationship with her mother, and I am inviting employed women of the Baby Boom generation to participate in my study. It is important to note that participation in this study is strictly on a voluntary basis. The college has granted permission for me to invite female employees to participate in the study; however, this does not imply an endorsement of the study by ~~XYZ COLLEGE~~ or its employee organizations. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time during the study. You will not benefit from the study, in terms of gaining favor with the employer; nor will you be vulnerable to negative consequences if you choose not to participate. The results of the study will be presented in group format only; the researcher will not have the ability to match any of the research measures to any participant in the study.

The following is a description of what your study participation entails, the terms for participating in the study, and your rights as a study participant. Please read this information carefully before deciding whether or not you wish to participate.

If you should decide to participate in the study, you will be asked to complete a research packet containing 6 short questionnaires and a Demographic Data Form. It should take less than 30 minutes to complete the total survey. Please complete the survey alone in a single sitting, preferably not at work.

Although minimal, there are potential risks that you should consider before deciding to participate in this study. One risk is the possibility of boredom. Also, you will be reading and responding to specific questions related to your level of satisfaction with your life and your career, as well as your early relationship with your mother. Completing the questionnaires may lead you to think more about these topics. If you experience unpleasant emotions, thoughts or memories related to your experiences with your mother or your feelings about your career, you may call one of the referrals from the psychotherapy referral list. You may also contact me at ~~zyx@xyz.com~~. While this study may be of no direct benefit to you, you may possibly benefit by having the opportunity to

think about your feelings and experiences in a new way. If you decide to participate and find you are not interested in completing the survey in its entirety, you have the right to discontinue at any point with no negative consequences whatsoever. You also do not have to answer any of the questions that you prefer not to answer--just leave such items blank.

A summary of the study will be available in approximately one year. You may request a copy by emailing me at ~~zyx@xyz.com~~.

Two weeks after the beginning of the study, you will be sent a reminder postcard via campus mail. The purpose of the postcard is to remind you to complete and return the survey, if you wish to, and to thank you if you have already done so. Because of the anonymous nature of the study, you may receive this postcard although you have already completed the study. I apologize and thank you in advance.

If the findings of the study are presented to professional audiences or published, no information that identifies you personally, or the college, will be released. I am committed to protecting the confidentiality of all participants. Data will be kept in a secure manner for at least 5 years, and destroyed when no longer needed.

If you have any questions regarding the information that I have provided above, please not hesitate to contact me at the address and phone number provided below. If you have further questions or do not feel that I have adequately addressed your concerns, please contact Tomas Martinez, Ph.D., (xxx) xxx-xxx. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Stephanie Woo, Ph.D., Institutional Review Board, Pepperdine University, (xxx) xxx-xxxx. By completing the survey and returning it to me, you acknowledge that you have read and understand what study participation entails, and are consenting to participate in the study. You do not need to return this consent form.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information, and I hope you decide to complete the survey. Please mail the survey back to me, whether you decide to participate in the study or not.

Sincerely,

Wendy Knight, M.A.

Principal researcher

APPENDIX D

Script of Presentation to Employee Groups

Hello. My name is Wendy Knight and I am a doctoral candidate in clinical psychology at Pepperdine University. I'm completing this research project to meet dissertation requirements for my doctoral degree, and I'm here today to introduce the study to (the Academic Senate) (the Classified Senate) and to ask interested persons to participate in the study at a later date.

I am interested in finding out more about the career satisfaction of Baby Boomer-aged women and how that relates to the early mother-daughter relationship. The formal title of the study is "THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG EARLY MATERNAL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT, CAREER SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION FOR BABY BOOM WOMEN AT MIDLIFE." The study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University for use with human subjects. My study requires that participants (a) must be female, (b) must have been born between 1946 and 1964, (c) must be employed at ~~XYZ College~~, (c) must have been primarily raised in the United States, (d) must have had a mother or other primary female caretaker in the home, (e) must be able to read and understand English, and (f) must consent to take part in the study. My study requires participants to complete 6 short questionnaires and a demographic data form that will take a total of about 30 minutes to complete. Questionnaires address eligibility for participation in the study, life satisfaction, career satisfaction, emotional support from parents, and career and family goals and support. The demographic questionnaire asks questions such as the highest level of education achieved by yourself and by your mother.

It is important to note that participation in this study is strictly on a voluntary basis. ~~XYZ College~~, through ~~the vice president~~, has granted permission for me to conduct the study on campus. However, this does not imply an endorsement of the study by ~~XYZ COLLEGE~~ or (the Academic Senate) (the Classified Senate). Participants may refuse to participate or may withdraw at any time during the study. Care has been taken to protect the privacy of participants by not asking for any personally identifiable information, which makes it impossible to connect the data to individuals. To further help insure the privacy of all involved, the name of the college will not be mentioned in my dissertation or in any professional publication that might follow from this research.

Potential participants will receive a research packet through campus mail containing: a consent form, a cover letter explaining the study, 6 short questionnaires and

a Demographic Data Form, information regarding Pepperdine Counseling Clinics, and a pre-addressed, stamped envelope for returning the packet to me.

I want to express my deep appreciation for your time and cooperation. I hope the information gained from this study will help improve the lives of women. If you have any questions or need additional information, please email me at zyx@xyz.com.

APPENDIX E

Cover Letter/Instructions

Dear participant:

My name is Wendy Knight and I am a doctoral student in clinical psychology at Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology. I am conducting this research to meet dissertation requirements for my doctoral degree. The purpose of this research is to learn more about mid-life women's career satisfaction and the relationship it has to the early mother-daughter relationship. Dr. Tomás Martinez will be supervising this research project. Thank you for your willingness to participate. This study is conducted on a voluntary basis. You may choose not to participate at any time.

Please read this page of instructions carefully before you begin filling out the questionnaires.

Please read the Consent Form. If you understand and agree to all of the terms, keep it for your files, complete the packet of questionnaires, and mail them to me **without your name on them.**

Included in this packet are the following questionnaires: (1) Study Participation Questionnaire, (2) Satisfaction with Life Scale, (3) Career Satisfaction Scale, (4) Maternal Affection Scale, (5) Paternal Affection Scale, (6) Career and Family Questionnaire and (7) Demographic Data Form. Each questionnaire has its own instructions. Please take time to read each one. I anticipate this taking 30 minutes to complete. It is important that you answer all questions honestly, knowing that *there are no right or wrong answers*. I ask that you do not discuss the questions or responses with co-workers or anyone else until you, and they, have completed the questionnaires. Also, please help me to ensure that this study does not impinge on the ~~XYZ COLLEGE~~ workday by completing this packet at home or otherwise away from work.

When all forms have been completed, please place the questionnaires in the preaddressed, stamped envelope provided and mail the envelope to me. **Please do not put your name or address on any of the questionnaires. Please do not put your name or return address on the large envelope.**

Contact information for Pepperdine University's three Psychology Counseling Clinics is included in the packet. Services are provided on a sliding fee scale. You may contact the clinic to discuss potential negative feelings that may be elicited by completing the packet of questionnaires.

A summary of the study will be available in approximately one year. You may request a copy by emailing me at zyx@xyz.com.

I want to express my deep appreciation for your time and cooperation. I hope the information gained from this study will contribute to women's career literature.

Sincerely,

Wendy Knight, MA.
Pepperdine University—Doctoral Student
Principal Investigator
(xxx) xxx-xxxx

Tomás Martínez, Ph.D.
Pepperdine University
Chairperson
(xxx) xxx-xxxx

APPENDIX F

Satisfaction With Life Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding the question. On this scale, “7” represents the strongest agreement and “1” represents the strongest disagreement.

7= Strongly agree

6= Agree

5= Slightly agree

4= Neither agree nor disagree

3= Slightly disagree

2= Disagree

1= Strongly disagree

1. ___ In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2. ___ The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. ___ I am satisfied with my life.
4. ___ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5. ___ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

APPENDIX G

Career Satisfaction Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are five statements regarding your career that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1-5 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding the item. On this scale “5” represents the strongest agreement and “1” represents the lowest agreement.

5= Strongly agree

4= Agree to some extent

3= Uncertain

2= Disagree to some extent

1= Strongly disagree

For purposes of this questionnaire, a career is defined as your accumulated life work, as it relates to your occupation or profession.

1. ____ I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career
2. ____ I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
3. ____ I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
4. ____ I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
5. ____ I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.

APPENDIX H

Parental Affection in Childhood Scale: Maternal Affection

INSTRUCTIONS: This set of questions is about your mother, or the woman who raised you if that was not your mother. Please answer the first item by filling in the number on a scale of “5” (Excellent) to “1” (Poor) that best describes your response.

5= Excellent

4= Very good

3= Good

2= Fair

1= Poor

1. ____ How would you rate your relationship with your mother during the years you were growing up?

Please rate the following characteristics of your mother (or the woman who raised you if that was not your mother) during the years you were growing up. In the space next to each question, please enter a number from “4” (A lot) to “1” (Not at all).

4= A lot

3= Some

2=A little

1= Not at all

2. ____ How much did she understand your problems and worries?
3. ____ How much could you confide in her about things that were bothering you?
4. ____ How much love and affection did she give you?
5. ____ How much time and attention did she give you when you needed it?
6. ____ How much effort did she put into watching over you and making sure you had a good upbringing?
7. ____ How much did she teach you about life?

Appendix I

Parental Affection in Childhood Scale: Paternal Affection

INSTRUCTIONS: This set of questions is about your father, or the man who raised you if that was not your father. Please answer the first item by filling in the number on a scale of “5” (Excellent) to “1” (Poor) that best describes your response.

5= Excellent

4= Very good

3= Good

2= Fair

1= Poor

1. ____ How would you rate your relationship with your father during the years you were growing up?

Please rate the following characteristics of your father (or the man who raised you if that was not your father) during the years you were growing up. In the space next to each question, please enter a number from “4” (A lot) to “1” (Not at all).

4= A lot

3= Some

2=A little

1= Not at all

2. ____ How much did he understand your problems and worries?
3. ____ How much could you confide in him about things that were bothering you?
4. ____ How much love and affection did he give you?
5. ____ How much time and attention did he give you when you needed it?
6. ____ How much effort did he put into watching over you and making sure you had a good upbringing?
7. ____ How much did he teach you about life?

APPENDIX J

Career and Family Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS: Using the 1-5 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding the item. On this scale “5” represents the strongest agreement and “1” represents the lowest agreement.

- 5= Strongly agree
 4= Agree to some extent
 3= Uncertain
 2= Disagree to some extent
 1= Strongly disagree

In the following questions, “mother” refers to the woman who raised you.

1. ____ My mother was interested in me as an individual.
2. ____ My mother was emotionally available when I needed her.
3. ____ My mother expressed love and affection toward me.
4. ____ My mother tried to understand my point of view.
5. ____ My mother supported and approved of my independence.
6. ____ My mother approved of my goals.
7. ____ My mother encouraged me to go to college.
8. ____ My mother was my mentor.
9. ____ I had no mentor.
10. ____ I like coming to work because of the friendships I’ve made.
11. ____ I enjoy collaborating with others on work projects.
12. ____ Looking back, I think my career goals were realistic.
13. ____ It was my goal to focus on my family and make work secondary.
14. ____ It was my goal to have professional success.
15. ____ It was my goal to work to make the world a better place.
16. ____ It was my goal to be wealthy.
17. ____ The ideas of the Women’s Movement influenced my career and family choices.
18. ____ A partner/spouse provided the support I needed to balance my career and family.
19. ____ I have achieved what I have in life with very little help from my mother.
20. ____ I have achieved what I have in life with very little help from my father.

APPENDIX K

Demographic Data Form

Please place the letter that corresponds with your answer in the space provided. Thanks.

1. ___ What is your year of birth?
(a) 1946-1950 (b) 1951-1955
(c) 1956-1960 (d) 1961-1964
2. ___ How many hours per week do you work at ~~XYZ COLLEGE~~?
(a) Less than 10 (b) 10-19
(c) 20-29 (d) 30-35
(e) 36-40 (f) More than 40
3. ___ To which ~~XYZ College~~ occupational group do you belong? (Choose one)
(a) Classified (including management)
(b) Certificated (including management)
(c) Other
4. ___ How many years total have you worked at ~~XYZ College~~?
(a) Less than 5 (b) 5-9
(c) 10-19 (d) 20-29 (e) 30 and beyond
5. ___ What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
(a) Some high school (b) High school/GED
(c) Some college (d) B.A/B.S.
(e) Some master's work (f) Master's degree
(g) Some doctoral work (h) Doctorate
6. ___ Does your current job require a 4-year college degree or higher?
(a) Yes (b) No (c) Don't know
7. ___ What is your marital status?
(Please choose the one that best describes your current situation):
(a) Never married (b) Currently married
(e) Divorced (f) Widowed
(c) Living with partner – opposite gender
(d) Living with partner – same gender
8. ___ Do you have children? (a) Yes (b) No
9. ___ If you have children, what are their current ages? _____

10. ___ What is your ethnicity?
- (a) Latina/Hispanic (b) Asian-American
 (c) African-American (d) Caucasian/NonHispanic
 (e) Native American/American Indian
 (f) Other (please explain) _____
11. ___ What is your personal (not household) annual income?
- (a) Less than \$10,000/yr (b) \$10,000-24,999/yr
 (c) \$25,000-34,999/yr (d) \$35,000-\$44,999/yr
 (e) \$45,000-54,999/yr (f) \$55,000-\$64,999/yr
 (g) \$65,000-79,999/yr (h) More than \$80,000/yr
12. ___ What is your household's annual income?
- (a) Less than \$10,000/yr (b) \$10,000-24,999/yr
 (c) \$25,000-34,999/yr (d) \$35,000-\$44,999/yr
 (e) \$45,000-54,999/yr (f) \$55,000-\$64,999/yr
 (g) \$65,000-79,999/yr (h) More than \$80,000/yr
13. ___ The woman who had the primary role in raising you was your . . .
- (a) Biological mother (b) Adoptive mother
 (c) Stepmother (d) Grandmother
 (e) Aunt (f) Sister
 (g) Other female relative (h) Foster mother
 (i) Other female non-relative (j) Other (please explain) _____
- In the following questions, "mother" refers to the woman who had the primary role in raising you.*
14. ___ What is the highest level of education that your mother completed:
- (a) Some high school (b) High school/GED
 (c) Some college (d) B.A/B.S.
 (e) Some master's work (f) Master's degree
 (g) Some doctoral work (h) Doctorate
 (i) Don't know

15. ___ In a typical week, how much did your mother work outside the home before you were 5 years old?

- (a) part-time (b) full time
(c) not at all (d) don't know

16. ___ In a typical week, how much did your mother work outside the home when you were 5-11 years old?

- (a) part-time (b) full time
(c) not at all (d) don't know

17. ___ In a typical week, how much did your mother work outside the home when you were 12-18 years old ?

- (a) part-time (b) full time
(c) not at all (d) don't know

18. ___ The man who had the primary role in raising you was your . . .

- (b) Biological father (b) Adoptive father
(c) Stepfather (d) Grandfather
(e) Uncle (f) Brother
(g) Other male relative (h) Foster father
(i) Other male non-relative (j) Other (please explain) _____
(k) There was no consistent father or father figure in my home.

APPENDIX L

Pepperdine University Psychology Counseling Clinics

Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education and Psychology manages three counseling clinics, which offer support to the Pepperdine and external communities.

West Los Angeles	Tel: (310) 568-5752
Encino	Tel: (818) 501-1678
Irvine	Tel: (949) 223-2570

The university's campuses in Irvine, Encino, and West Los Angeles are staffed by Pepperdine master's and doctoral-level interns who are trained and supervised by licensed psychologists. The counseling clinics offer a wide range of high quality, affordable psychological services to individuals of all ages and backgrounds, as well as couples and families. Evaluations and therapy plans are specifically tailored for each individual client.

Business Hours:

To accommodate our clients' schedules, appointments are available during day and evening hours, Monday through Friday.

Fees:

The fees paid by our clients are based on a sliding scale (between \$15-\$90) according to annual income and number of dependents. At the West Los Angeles and Encino clinics the cost of an initial evaluation is \$25; and most clients at our clinics pay from \$15 to \$35 per session for ongoing appointments. For information on Irvine's fees please contact the office.

APPENDIX M
Reminder Postcard

Reminder Postcard

Participation in Research Study Reminder

“The Relationships Among Early Maternal Emotional Support, Career Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction for Baby Boom Women at Midlife”

If you have not already done so, please read the Cover Letter/Instructions and Consent to Participate in Research Study Form in the research packet that you received this month from Wendy Knight. If you agree to participate, please complete the questionnaires and return them in the pre-addressed, stamped envelope.

If you have already returned the materials, thank you so much for your participation. I appreciate it from the bottom of my heart.

Sincerely,

Wendy Knight, M.A.

Pepperdine University—Doctoral Student

APPENDIX N

Permission to Use Scales

Permission to Use the Satisfaction With Life Scale

<http://www.psych.uiuc.edu/~ediener/hottopic/letter.html>

*Ed Diener, Ph.D.
Psychology Department
University of Illinois
603 E. Daniel St.
Champaign, IL 61820
217-333-4804 ediener@s.psych.uiuc.edu*

Dear Requester:

Thank you for requesting the Satisfaction with Life Scale. As you may know, there is an article in the 1985, Volume 45, issue of Journal of Personality Assessment, which reports on the validity and reliability of the scale. In addition, we currently have another article titled, "Review of the Satisfaction With Life Scale" in Psychological Assessment*. The results reported in this second article are extremely encouraging. The SWLS correlates substantially with reports by family and friends of the target person's life satisfaction, with number of memories of satisfying experiences, and with other life satisfaction scales. The SWLS was examined in both a college student and elderly population. In both populations the scale was valid and reliable (internally consistent and stable).

The SWLS is in the public domain (not copyrighted) and therefore you are free to use it without permission or charge. You will, however, have to type or reproduce your own copies.

Best wishes,

Ed Diener, Ph.D.
Professor

*Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 5, 164-172.

Permission to use the Career Satisfaction Scale

December 14, 2004

Dear Wendy,

You certainly have my permission to use the scale. In terms of its validity, I know that many other researchers have used the scale in their studies. So I think that you could examine those studies and find plenty of evidence that scores on the scale are related to other variables as theory would suggest, thereby helping to establish the scale's construct validity.

Good luck in your research. It looks interesting.

Best wishes,

Jeff Greenhaus

Jeffrey H. Greenhaus
William A. Mackie Professor of Management
Director of the PhD Program in Business
LeBow College of Business
Drexel University
Philadelphia, PA 19104

(215) 895-2139 (Phone)

(215) 895-2891 (Fax)

Greenhaus@drexel.edu (e-mail)

Permission to use the Maternal Affection (MIDUS) Scale

MIDUS - Midlife in the United States

<http://src.isr.umich.edu/cgi-bin/comment/midus/data/>

The logo for MIDUS (Midlife in the United States) features the word "MIDUS" in a large, bold, black, hand-drawn style font.

Midlife in the
United States

Download Mail and Phone Questionnaires:

We hereby grant you permission to use questions contained in the questionnaires, scales based on those questions, or the entire instrument. A condition of this permission is that in any publications using data collected by using these questions you acknowledge the source of the questions using the acknowledgement below.

To maintain continuity of information and to allow researchers to compare related findings, we also suggest that in scientific articles you reference one or more of the articles from the original study.

We are interested in knowing how the instrument is being used and the results of studies using the instruments. Therefore, we would appreciate it if you would send us preprints or reprints of published articles resulting from work using the instruments to:

Orville Gilbert Brim, Director
The John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation
Research Network on Successful Midlife Development
2145 14th Avenue, Suite #19
Vero Beach, Florida 329604416

These questions were adapted from the MIDI (The Midlife Development Inventory) developed by the MacArthur Foundation Research Network on Successful Midlife Development.

- [Download Mail Questionnaire](#) (Adobe Acrobat 274kB)
- [Download Phone Questionnaire](#) (Adobe Acrobat 114kB)

If you need the Adobe Acrobat reader to view these files, you may download it for free from Adobe's website:



[Return to Midus homepage](#)
