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**Gordon Institute  
of Business Science**  
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# **The influence of family circumstances on the career goals of managers**

**Research Report**

**By**

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A research project for the Gordon Institute of Business Science in partial  
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of a

**Master of Business Administration**

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## **Abstract**

As there are now more dual income earners in the workforce, people are facing greater pressure from both their families and their place of work to commit more of their time and energy. Unfortunately, time and energy are limited resources so either their family or careers may have to endure some form of compromise. Clearly family situations can have an impact on one's career yet little has been done to measure how much people do in fact consider their families with respect to their careers. The purpose of this report then is to bridge this gap in the literature and provide meaningful recommendations for businesses.

This research report explores the difference in attitudes that male and female managers have towards compromising their career goals for their family. It then examines if aging and having children have any influence on these attitudes. In order to measure these attitudes a quantitative analysis using primary data from a questionnaire was conducted. The findings indicate that compromising one's career for family is not only a feminine problem and that when people do compromise their career goals they are more willing to compromise on extrinsic career goals rather than intrinsic career goals.

## **Keywords**

Work-life balance, turnover, career counselling

**Declaration**

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

**Name:** Daniel Robert Cox

**Signature:**

**Date:**

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## Chapter 1: Problem Definition

### 1.1 Introduction

The world is seeing an increase in labour participation of women in the labour force which has resulted in more single parents who are contributing within the workforce as well as more dual income earners (Bimrose, McMahon, & Watson, 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). People are facing greater pressure from both their family situation, where they are expected to cater for their loved ones needs and demands as well as be responsible for them, and from their workplace where they may be expected to work long hours, travel far distances and make stressful decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

According to Fitzsimmons, Callan, & Paulsen (2014) there has been much debate over the scarcity of female CEO's in major corporations with statistics (EOWA, 2012) that indicate that this a phenomenon that occurs in many countries. From Chiloane-Tsoka (2010) the statistics for South Africa reveal that even though 52% of the population is female, only 14.7% of all senior executive managers are female. Sandberg (2010), the COO of Facebook, argues that many women are dealing with the challenge of balancing work with life by deciding to leave management positions, which may have seen them fast tracked into senior management positions, long before they are required to balance their work with family matters. Frome, Alfeld, Eccles, & Barber (2006) found that there were even women in high school who had ambitions to participate in male dominated careers who ultimately changed careers in order to balance their careers with family responsibilities. Also Kmec (2011) contends that society's notion of the ideal worker and the ideal mother are at odds. Despite all the evidence that family is influential on the career path for a significant number of women there is little research regarding the extent of the influence and the amount of consideration that people have for their families (Ganginis Del Pino, O'Brien, Mereish, & Miller, 2013; Westring & Ryan, 2011). This is partly due because no such scale to measure the influence has been developed (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013).

Furthermore, Powell & Butterfield (2013) contend that the research of the aspirations for top management and consideration for family of males in this space has not been sufficiently considered. Evans, Carney, & Wilkinson (2013) agree with this sentiment as they argue that females have received the most attention for the majority of the research in this field. Men might be undergoing more stress because of the constant pressures to balance their family life with their careers (Evans et al., 2013). However, in the past the traditional role of the male was that they focus more attention towards their

careers as they were seen as the “breadwinner” of the family (Eagly & Wood, 1999). This research will explore whether the increase in dual income earners has affected the role expectations of males and females.

The study will observe the influence that children, partners, and age have on the career goals of participants. One of the objectives of the study will be to determine the difference in attitudes, on average, of those individuals with children and those without. Because resources (such as time and energy) of an individual are limited, when a child is born within a family the parents could, according to Baltes & Heydens-Gahir (2003), choose to focus these resources either towards work goals (intrinsic or extrinsic goals) or family goals. Powell & Greenhaus (2012) argue that children do influence career decisions as people generally look to make decisions that align their family identity. Family planning is known to be a hindrance to long term career plans (Schueller-weidekamm & Kautzky-willer, 2012). Westring & Ryan (2011) proclaim that the more children in a family the more interference the family will have on work of the parents. Young children are expected to require a lot of time and energy which can also create stress for parents (Schueller-weidekamm & Kautzky-willer, 2012). These extra demands would mean that managers with children should have less energy than those without children (Schueller-weidekamm & Kautzky-willer, 2012). Clearly having children has an impact on the careers of parents so an objective of this study is to illuminate the perceptions of individuals before children and after children. Furthermore, Basuil & Casper (2012) add that little research has been done to recognise the attitudes that young adults have towards career and family planning.

Both Ng & Feldman (2013) and Pocock, Charlesworth, & Chapman (2013) acknowledge that there is an increasing trend that the mean age of the population in industrialised countries is gradually increasing. By 2020, 25 percent of the labour force in the United States of America will be above the age of 55 (Toossi, 2012). According to Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer, & Dikkers (2011) there is a need for researchers, in the work motivation field, to better understand the motives of the aging work force. Human Resource strategies could benefit from such knowledge because theories relating to work motivation in modern times tend to focus on the younger generation who are entering the workforce (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). However, according to Kooij et al. (2011) recognising the effect that aging has on the motivation of employees has been challenging for managers.

This study will explore if an individual’s career goals change as they age and how this relates to the demands of their families. Comparisons will be drawn between the

younger generation with the older generation on the basis of their willingness to compromise for their family (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). From the above, observations relating to the potential influences that age has on an individual's career goals and their family can be established. The importance of intrinsic and extrinsic career goals of the younger and older generations will be measured in order to observe the priorities of the population. From this data, observations can be made about the type of goals the participants may be willing to compromise for their families.

The study will be conducted on a sample of MBA students who are completing their degree in 2014. The relevance of MBA students as the sample originates from the fact that the pursuit of an MBA is seen as a vehicle for career change for individuals searching for better organisational fit through higher levels of performance and career satisfaction (Seibert, Kraimer, Holtom, & Pierotti, 2013). According to Muja & Appelbaum (2014) younger employees, in particular, seek an MBA in order to redirect and advance their careers and it provides them the opportunity to increase their business management skills. However, an MBA can also offer individuals the competencies required to pursue a career involving entrepreneurship. In this domain, individuals are capable of structuring their work and family lives which is a luxury less afforded by those who work in the corporate world (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Also the MBA allows its participants to reflect on their career goals and refine them so that they are better able to minimise the differences between their intended career path and the realised one (Latham & Brown, 2006; Muja & Appelbaum, 2014). Therefore, MBA students are appropriate candidates to participate in the study as they are encountering a career change which may have evoked consideration for their family. As access for the part time and modular MBA students for 2014 was not granted, a sample from management at Steffanutti Stock's (a large South African construction company) was also included in the study. This sample is also appropriate as the management was heterogeneous because it included managers from the various departments who have varying work experiences and qualifications. This heterogeneity is similar to that of the full time MBA programme. However, as this sample is currently working the participants may be currently satisfied with their careers and may not wish to advance any further so a question was included in the questionnaire so that such participants could be excluded.

## 1.2 Research Scope

The data will be collected from individuals on the full time MBA programme at the Gordon Institute of Business Science in Johannesburg and Stefanutti Stocks. Therefore, the findings will be limited to the South African context. The various groups that participate in the study, within the MBA, will be compared using data collected from a questionnaire. The groups will be categorised according to gender, age, marital status, number of children and number of income earners in the family. The variables by which the groups will be compared are career related goals, which includes intrinsic and extrinsic goals (Seibert et al., 2013), and the *Consideration for Children and Partner scales* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). Other variables such as perceived social status (Metheny & McWhirter, 2013), financial ability (Seibert et al., 2013) and career shocks (Seibert et al., 2013) will not be considered for this study. Work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) is outside of the scope of the research (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012) because of the period under consideration for these measures. Also a comparison between business owners and those who are employed by others is out of the scope of this study yet it is still relevant (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

These above measures consider influence at the current moment in time at the current career of the individual (Greenhaus, Ziegert, et al., 2012) whereas this study will focus on the career goals of the students after the MBA. A longitudinal study of the changes in career goals and family considerations over time would have been ideal but due to time constraints this was not possible. Also the study will not be measuring and observing the actual acts of compromise that people have to make to accommodate either their family or work. However, the study will be measuring the espoused attitudes concerned with compromising their career goals for their families. Although this research is only considering the measurement of attitudes, it is understood from Bandura (2006) that ,from an agentic perspective, people are self-reactive to the environment that they operate within and are able to alter their career path in order to achieve outcomes that relate to their espoused attitudes. This could potentially trigger the reaction of accepting a promotion to an opportunity that allows for more time and energy for the family.

### 1.3 Research Motivation

From a firm point of view, if they can understand the extent to which certain family situations affect the work decisions of employees they may be able to attract talented individuals and manage their current work force more effectively (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). It also presents them with the opportunity to understand the espoused values of their workforce. With such an understanding they will be able to realign their own values with that of the workforce. According to Khandelwal & Mohendra (2010) this will influence the employees to feel a greater sense of loyalty and commitment to the firm. Also employment policies can be altered accordingly to aid employees to achieve a sense of work-life balance. Men and women who have realized a better balance have been shown to exhibit higher levels of performance at work combined with less absenteeism (Atkinson & Hall, 2011; Evans et al., 2013). At the same time there is substantial evidence that when employees experience conflict between the work and family domains there are negative outcomes for both the firm and the employee (Westring & Ryan, 2011). Examples of the negative consequences include increased turnover intentions, decreased job satisfaction as well as decreases in performance (Westring & Ryan, 2011). An understanding of the contemplation that employees give towards their families when making career decisions is important, yet it has been neglected in work related decision making literature (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). According to Greenhaus & Powell (2012) the degree of influence that family has on career decisions has not been examined sufficiently. Westring & Ryan (2011) concur with the above as they believe that although much research has been covered that considers the choice of career but little has been done relating to the interactions between work and family decisions. This research will attempt to bridge this gap in the literature and shed some light on these issues.

This research will also attempt to offer an explanation for the low percentage of female CEO'S in firms (EOWA, 2012) and the opt-out revolution (Sandberg, 2010). Wocke & Heymann (2012) argue that demographic variables of employees, such as age and gender, are influential on the voluntary turnover decisions of employees. Wocke & Heymann (2012) then proclaim that current turnover models have not sufficiently covered the influence of these variables. According to Maree (2013, p.409) the "20<sup>th</sup>-century approaches to career counselling no longer adequately serve the needs of 21<sup>st</sup>-century". Maree (2013) also proclaims that the traditional models of career counselling are not inclusive enough and should be more contextually based. Lent (2013) agrees, to a certain extent, with this statement because the traditional models of career counselling have been established with a stable work environment as

a core assumption, whereas this is not the case in modern times as work has become faster paced and is less predictable. However, Lent (2013) also argues that the traditional models are not obsolete but simply require supplementary information to fill the gaps.

#### **1.4 Research Question**

The focus of the research will aim to answer the following research question:

***To what extent does the contextual variables of gender, children, and age affect a manager's willingness to compromise on their career goals for their family?***

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

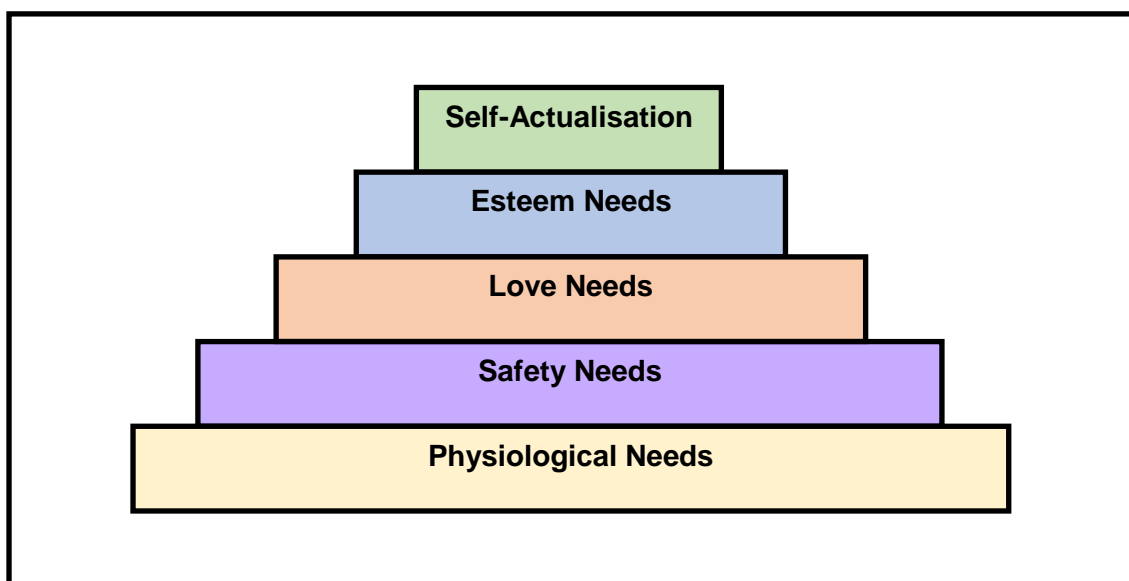
### 2.1 Historical Origins of Career Preferences

#### 2.1.1 Parsons Matching Paradigm

Since Parsons (1909) the literature concerning career development and preferences has been geared towards *the matching paradigm*. In the days of Parsons (1909) career counsellors would analyse their patients, find a suitable job which was in accordance with the market and attempt to marry the two. Parsons (1909) referred to this process as “true reasoning” (p. 5). According to Lent (2013) the career counselling field over the last 100 years has been predominantly concerned with matching people to jobs. However, the problem is that neither people nor jobs are stable which means that achieving a satisfying career path that satisfies your goals is more challenging than simply making a decision in one point in time (Lent, 2013; Parsons, 1909).

#### 2.1.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

One of the first attempts to understand the extent to which peoples motives, values and needs change over their lifespan was Rhodes (1983) review article of the age-related differences concerning work behaviour and attitudes. Unfortunately, of the 185 studies that she collected which dealt with age as the independent variable there were only ten studies which actually looked at age in conjunction with needs. One of the predominant theory's which numerous authors were making use of at the time was Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943). Maslow (1943) describes all humans as desiring at least five categories of goals of which he later refers to as needs. These goals are categorised as physiological needs, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation (Maslow, 1943).



**Figure 1:** Diagram representing Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943).

According to Maslow (1943) the “most prepotent goal will monopolize consciousness and will tend of itself to organize the recruitment of the various capacities of the organism” (p.388). When one of the needs has become well satisfied its presence in the conscious diminishes and the next higher need takes its place (Maslow, 1943). Once a need is satisfied it no longer serves as a motivator for the individual (Maslow, 1943). The need which is most pertinent to this study is the need for love. Once an individual has satisfied the need for safety and physiological needs his attention will be firmly placed on acquiring friends, a wife or sweetheart, or children (Maslow, 1943). Maslow (1943) also points out that in order for the love need to be fulfilled one must be both a giver and receiver of love. What is interesting is in the Rhodes (1983) review article little attention was placed on the need for love whereas the other needs had far more consideration. After the bottom four needs have been satisfied, a human will then be dissatisfied if he/she has not reached a sense of fulfilment through reaching their potential by doing what they were made to do (Maslow, 1943). Maslow (1943) provides the example that a musician must create music and a poet should write if they are to find happiness. This final need is termed to be self-actualisation (Maslow, 1943).

Rhodes (1983) concluded in her findings that there was evidence supporting a decrease in self-actualisation and growth needs with age but the opposite with regards to affiliation and security Other findings of the studies were that extrinsic goals increased with age. However, Kooij et al. (2011) criticise the work from this paper as have too little all-encompassing theories in the research which made these few descriptive studies difficult to interpret.

### **2.1.3 Work life balance**

The literature concerned about work life balance only started to establish itself in the 1960's and 1970's when women began to enter the labour market in numbers (Buonocore & Russo, 2013). Before this period, people viewed work and life as separate domains which have no influence over each other (Buonocore & Russo, 2013). However, over this time there was the general assumption that work-life balance was purely a feminine problem (Buonocore & Russo, 2013). Greenhaus & Beutell (2014) developed conflict theory, which recognises that work and life are two domains which are not compatible, and it became prominent in most articles concerning work life balance in the 1980's and 1990's (Buonocore & Russo, 2013). Work life was for long considered as a zero sum game whereby when one domain, such as work, receives more attention it would be expected that the other should lose (Friedman, Christensen, & Degroot, 1998). However, recent research has revealed that work life balance can have positive effects for both domains as both Evans et al. (2013) and



Perrone, Wright, & Jackson (2009) found that men who achieved a balance between work and life reported greater work satisfaction and performance than those who were unable to achieve the same levels.

#### **2.1.4 Edgar Schein's Career Anchors**

Schein (1977) recognised the purposes for people to work and for them to leave their occupation. Schein (1977) believed if their career anchors were not satisfied people would leave their work. A career anchor as defined by Schein (1977, p.49) is the "motives, values, and self-perceived talents which guides and constrains the person's career." Anchors help to describe which motives, ideals and values that individuals will not sacrifice when faced with a decision (Schein, 1996). Schein developed 8 career anchors over time which are autonomy, security, technical-functional competence, general managerial competence, entrepreneurial creativity, service, pure challenge and life style (Schein, 1996). The three anchors of pure challenge, autonomy and service all reflect the values of an individual whereas the two anchors of lifestyle and security refer to the psychological needs of the individual (Rodrigues, Guest, & Budjanovcanin, 2013). The last three anchors, general managerial competence, technical-functional and entrepreneurial creativity are linked to the competencies and abilities of the individual (Rodrigues et al., 2013).

An individual might have a distinctive service anchor whereby they would be inclined to enter work that has a greater meaning (Rodrigues et al., 2013). Career anchors also explain why two individuals, who are in the same field, would prefer different work roles. The career anchor of lifestyle is the most pertinent to this study. Schein (1996) describes the lifestyle anchor as those individuals who integrate their careers (sometimes two or more careers) with their family responsibilities so that they obtain alignment with their lifestyle pattern. An example would be those individuals who refuse to relocate to a new office or be promoted as it would destabilise their lifestyles. Schein (1996) believes that this anchor has changed the most since its inception in the 1970's. When Schein (1996) performed his first study, the majority of executive students were thought of as having a dominant general managerial or technical-functional competency. However, as more dual income earners increased in the United States of America, Schein (1996) discovered that there was an increase in total percentage of executives who identified their dominant anchor as the lifestyle anchor. Schein (1996) believed that promises of employment security or golden handcuffs would no longer be ample to secure talented employees. Schein (1996) then argued that firms will have to supply more family support systems in the form of child care units and part time work and that individuals will become more self reliant than observed in the past. However,

the work of Schein (1996) and Bandura (1977, 2006) emphasis agency over external influence and take on an individualist perspective for career formation. It can be contended that Schein did not adequately consider the contextual influences of family and social pressures (Rodrigues et al., 2013).

If an individual is unable to identify which anchor is their dominant one then Schein argues that they have not developed their occupational identity (Rodrigues et al., 2013). An occupational identity is established by an individual within their first few years of work and aids them to determine their deeper career motivations through work experiences (Rodrigues et al., 2013). Rodrigues et al. (2013) took this concept further by exploring what is known as career orientations. Career orientations according to Rodrigues et al. (2013) can be defined as the “relatively stable career preferences emerging inter alia from the interaction between self-identity, family relationships, social and cultural background, education, work experiences and labor market conditions” (p.143).

## **2.2 Social Cognitive Theory**

This theory is the study of the influences between three elements known as person, behaviour and environment (Bandura, 2006). According to Alexander, Holmner, Lotriet, Mathee, Pieterse, Naidoo, & Jordaan (2011) the element of person contains the intrinsic factors of “cognitive ability, affective and physical ability” (p. 302). The environment refers to the external factors affecting the person such as economic, political and social circumstances. The combination of person and environment influences the overall behaviour of the person.

However, people are not just spectators of their own behaviour but also influencers of their own circumstances (Bandura, 2006). Human agency is the concept of people having the capability of adjusting their life circumstances through planning, self-reflection, and self-regulation (Lent, 2013). There are four main characteristics that make up human agency which include intentionality, forethought, self-reactiveness and self-reflectiveness (Bandura, 2006). Intentionality refers to the strategy and plans that individuals establish in order to realise their intentions (Bandura, 2006). Bandura (2006) explains that forethought is “a form of anticipatory self-guidance” (p.164) because individuals adjust their current behaviour in accordance with their set goals and expected outcomes. The visualisation of future goals motivates individuals to adjust their behaviour so that these goals can be realised (Bandura, 2006). However, human agency is not only concerned with plans to achieve intentions and forethought but also the execution of these concepts. The actions required to execute the plans are

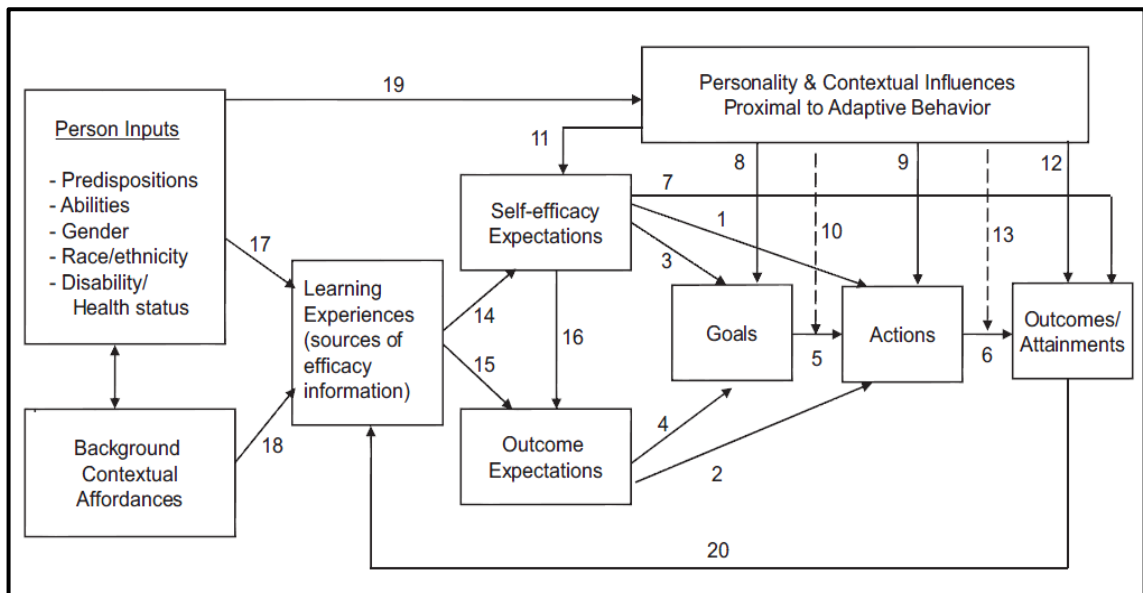
self-reactive as the agentic perspective means that people are able to form an appropriate course of action to achieve the desired outcome (Bandura, 2006). After the implementation has taken effect, people can reflect upon their thoughts and the outcomes of their action and make appropriate modifications (Bandura, 2006).

Some authors have argued that external influences have altered the course of a career decision and that the concept of human agency has become over emphasised (Bright, Pryor, & Harpham, 2005; Blustein, 2011). Lent (2013) states that although “People may wish to be active agents...But none of us can predict or control all events” (p.7). The three elements, person, behaviour and environment, therefore have bidirectional relationships with each other instead of the external and intrinsic factors simply influencing the behaviour of an individual.

## 2.2 Social Cognitive Career Theory

### 2.2.1 Introduction

Lent, Brown, & Hackett (1994) developed social cognitive career theory from social cognitive theory. Figure 2 demonstrates how career choice behaviour can be explained through social cognitive theory. It can be observed, as before, that person and contextual influences (the environment) have an influence on the behaviour of individuals; however this model further expands the behaviour of individuals to the decision of career choice.



**Figure 2:** Flow diagram representing the career choice behaviour that is affected by person, experience (behaviour) and context (environment) (Lent et al., 1994 p.93; Lent & Brown, 2013 p.562).

### **2.2.3 Career Goals and Actions**

Seibert et al. (2013) define career goals as the “career outcome that an individual strives to obtain” (p.170). From Figure 2 it can be noted that contextual influences can promote or hinder career goals directly (path 8) and moderate the relationship between goals and actions (path 10) (Lent & Brown, 2013). An individual’s career goals can also be indirectly affected by their contextual influences through self-efficacy (path 11) or actual outcomes (path 12) (Lent & Brown, 2013). Career goals can either be equated to an individual’s desire to obtain a certain career title (such as Chief Executive Officer) or the qualities related to the career such as flexibility, prestige, income, interesting and challenging work, employment security and skill development (Seibert et al., 2013). Seibert et al. (2013) separate career goals into two categories, namely intrinsic and extrinsic career goals. Intrinsic career goals are defined as those career goals which are appealing due to intrinsic qualities such as obtaining new knowledge through work or having fulfilling work as it benefits the community (Seibert et al., 2013). The definition of Intrinsic, according to Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries (2014), is “belonging to or part of the real nature of something/somebody” (p.1). Extrinsic career goals are those which possess extrinsically appealing qualities such as the prestige associated with a new position, visible success or financial remuneration (Seibert et al., 2013)

The expected time of completion for career goals is also an important component to consider and this is linked to labour market information. The delivery of information regarding the labour market is critical for successful career guidance (Kumar & Arulmani, 2014). Even in the early 20th century, the information concerning the labour market was considered as an important component of career guidance (Parsons, 1909). Parsons (1909) defined labour market information as “a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work” (p. 5). Labour market information affects the goals of individuals in social cognitive career theory (Figure 1). The shorter the time period for goal achievement and the more specific the goals are of an individual the greater the commitment they will have to realise their goals (Lent et al., 1994).

### **2.2.4 Contextual Influences**

Lent (2013) argues that human agency is not without its limits as environmental factors, such as social networks and financial assets, can be both an asset and a hindrance for an individual to achieve their goals. Even individuals who begin their career with large levels of support will face obstacles later in their lifetime (Lent, 2013). From Figure 1 it

can be seen that career goals, actions, outcomes and self-efficacy are all affected by contextual influences.

## **2.3 Contextual Influence of Family**

### **2.3.1 General Influence of Family on Career goals**

Both the family of origin and the interactions between family are influential in general career development (Metheny & McWhirter, 2013). Lent & Brown (2013) (Figure 2) agree as they believe that gender, which is one of their person inputs, influences career goals both directly (path 8) and indirectly. Lent & Brown (2013) argue that an individual's career goals will be affected by their social circumstances as they will elect goals that are culturally or socially normative. However, the role of family origin on career development diminishes as individuals get older (Metheny & McWhirter, 2013). As women are now increasingly participating in the labour workforce and the trend is that both individuals in a couple are pursuing careers, the work decisions made by employees are increasingly influenced by the family situation (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). In particular, when an individual is making a work decision they will only take their family into account if the decision affects their family domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). For example, if an individual has the option to work longer hours they might not accept the proposition until their children are accepted into school (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Rodrigues et al. (2013) acknowledge that family and social contexts affect the career preferences of individuals. Greenhaus & Powell (2012) claim that when an individual does take their family into consideration when faced with a work problem they will generally follow their own heuristic rules. These heuristic rules are made in accordance with the individual's social identity (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Hastie, 2001). Individuals develop multiple social identities such as being an employee, parent or a spouse (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Individuals will base their decisions on how appropriate it is with their social identity (Hastie, 2001). Greenhaus & Powell (2012) claim that the identity that people have during work is often in conflict with the identity they use at home.

As Lent (2013) argues that human agency has its limitations, an individual's career goals and decisions are not only determined by their own self-identity but also influenced by external variables. The organisation that an individual is a part of can also influence the extent to which they consider their family roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Those organisations where supervisors and company culture show no interest in the family responsibilities of their employees will expect these individuals to ignore that aspect of their life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Greenhaus & Powell (2012) found that individuals whose organisations provided support for their family roles were more

likely to prioritise family factors more than those who were working for organisation which did not provide such support.

From a macroeconomic perspective, countries which have institutions that provide support for their people so that they may satisfy their family responsibilities influence their people to take family into consideration when making career related decisions (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). For example, if there are institutions in place that provide paid parental leave then employees will prioritise such leave not only because the facility is available but also because prioritising such responsibilities is in line with the country's family values.

### **2.3.3 Influence of Gender for Family related Career Goals**

According to Powell & Butterfield (2013) and Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) there has been an increasing trend that women have been removing themselves from careers which would have resulted in them attaining top management positions. Some have argued that the explanation for this phenomenon is that the presence of glass ceilings could act as a deterrent for a woman's goals towards top management (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). Given Figure 1, an individual's intentions to leave a career path as contextual influences, such as glass ceilings, would negatively affect the choice goals and actions (Lent & Brown, 2013). However, there have been others who contend this notion, as seen in popular media, and believe that women are leaving their careers in order to pursue parenthood or other private reasons (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) argue that most women take their children and relationships into account when planning for their career. Perhaps there is the perception that those individuals who are in top management positions are unable to achieve satisfactory levels of work-family balance because of the performance expectations and extensive demands of such a position (Powell & Butterfield, 2013).

There have been traditional roles for the household whereby males are seen as the "breadwinners" or providers of the family and the females seen as the "homemakers" (Eagly & Wood, 1999). The role of a homemaker, according to Bimrose et al. (2013), was to deliver emotional and psychological support to the spouse and children so that a stable society could be maintained. However, the world has recently seen a dramatic rise in the number of women participating in the workforce and dual income earners (Bimrose et al., 2013). However, a study conducted by Bimrose et al. (2013) found that a woman's career goals are affected by intrapersonal influences, such as their personal values, self-confidence, personality traits and age awareness. The intrapersonal influences have a direct influence on the job satisfaction and career choices of women

(Bimrose et al., 2013). Their findings conclude that the needs of the families of those in the study were placed above the intrapersonal influences previously mentioned (Bimrose et al., 2013). Even the needs of distant relatives were prioritised in a similar fashion (Bimrose et al., 2013).

As there are more dual income earners in the workforce, there is less available time at home to distribute for family obligations. The division of labour for family responsibilities between the female and male can have serious consequences for the careers of either party. According to Fitzsimmons et al. (2014) an unequal share of the labour at home can hinder the acquisition of social capital at work. Eagly & Carli (2007) found that the individuals who are unable to work longer hours, perhaps due to family obligations, would have less opportunities to enhance their social capital. If women continue with their role as a homemaker and therefore take on an unequal distribution of the workload at home, then they may disadvantage their opportunities for promotion. Eagly & Carli (2007 p.5) point out that on average, in the United States, that women dedicated as much as 19 hours per week for household duties whereas men only put in as much as 15 hours per week. Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden (2001) found that high levels of social capital is far more critical for career progression than success found through traditional managerial tasks. From these studies one might infer that women might be more willing to compromise on their career goals than men.

Powell & Butterfield (2013) and Evans et al. (2013) claim that the current research on males in this research domain has been barely covered, whereas there is extensive research on a females aspirations for top management and work-life balance. There has been the assumption that men simply aspire to become top management because if they did not they would be going against their traditional roles as the breadwinners of the household (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). According to Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond (2009) those individuals who enter the work force most recently are, in fact, least likely to enact the above gender roles. An individual can become stressed if social expectations contradict their personal beliefs and needs (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). As there has been a trend towards more dual income earners so the stress within men may be increasing as they are balancing the traditional role of being the breadwinner of the household and their desire to be engaged with their family (Evans et al., 2013).

Evans et al. (2013) concur with the above and believe that career counsellors should start to view the issues of balancing work with ones family from a male's perspective so that they can assist them to discover their own methods of achieving work life balance.

According to Evans et al. (2013) work-life balance can be defined as the “process of finding personal meaning and satisfaction across multiple roles and aspects of one’s life” (p. 436). Therefore, along with the advent of the increase in dual income earners in the workforce perhaps the traditional roles of gender have also changed. However, some research has also indicated that with the birth of the first child men actually increased their number of working hours as they felt the need to be financial providers (Evans et al., 2013; Percheski & Wildeman, 2008).

From a South African perspective, the role of culture can also have an impact on the extent that individuals consider their family’s for career goals. Greenhaus & Powell (2012) maintain that in countries which obtain a high score in collectivism over individualism, from Hofstede’s dimensions, will place more emphasis on family with regard to career goals as their national culture places great value on the strength and maintenance of family relationships. South Africa exhibits more of a collectivist culture whereby the needs of the group is emphasised over one’s individual needs which is locally known as *Ubuntu* (Maree, 2013). The values of the country are also signalled through its institutions through paid parental leave and gender equity policies (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Such policies would encourage all citizens of South Africa to prioritise their family responsibilities (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). However, even though these external circumstances have an effect on the consideration of family in career preferences, Greenhaus, Peng, & Allen (2012) contend that there is little census supporting the argument that men and women base their work decisions, such as number of work hours, on the same criteria (Ng & Feldman, 2008).

***Proposition 1: Females will be more willing to compromise their career aspirations for their family than males.***

Some studies have found that there are multiple benefits for men who have achieved satisfactory levels of work-life balance. At work, men have been shown to have increased their performance and demonstrate more positive attitudes to their fellow colleagues (Evans et al., 2013; Perrone et al., 2009). Also those men that have achieved high levels of work life balance have reported to have a higher quality of life when they are more engaged in their families than work than those who place more emphasis towards the opposite (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003). Lastly, those men who perceived that their workplace was supportive of work life balance reported to have superior career satisfaction, job enjoyment, and closer relationships with family and friends (Burke, 2010).



### **2.3.4 Influence of Children on Family related Career Goals**

Percheski & Wildeman (2008) argue that when a man becomes a father he will change his social identity, behaviour and outlook on life due to the life changing nature of the event. As discussed in Section 2.3.3, the traditional roles of a male was seen as the breadwinner and the females role as the homemaker (Eagly & Wood, 1999). However, research suggests that the role that women has in the labour market is changing, so Lundberg & Rose (2002) expect the relationship between having children and a males role in the labour market to change.

From Figure 1, it can be observed that individuals take into account their learning experiences and contextual influences, such as number of children, into account when they establish their career goals (Lent & Brown, 2013). Furthermore, during different life stages an individual's consideration for their family will be influenced at varying degrees (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Powell & Greenhaus (2012) argue that individuals with more prominent family social identities will consider family more in their career aspirations than those who have another dominant social identity. Ng & Feldman (2008) posited that factors such as a high job level will reinforce the salience of an individual's work identity and that it was positively related to the number of hours worked. Whereas, a factor that increased the salience of an individual's family identity, such as marriage, would have a negative relationship to the number of hours work per week. The findings from their meta-analysis study found that there was strong evidence to support a positive relationship between the strength of an individual's work identity to the number of hours worked each week but they did not find ample evidence to support the notion that a strong family identity reduces the number of hours worked (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Eccles (2011) argues with this concept in the statement that "Occupational choices are not made in isolation of other life choices, such as the decision to marry and have children, and the decision to balance one's occupational behaviors with one's other life roles" (p. 200).

However, the recent trends indicate that women have become more likely to spend their resources towards their careers and education instead of motherhood or establishing a relationship because of the enhanced labour market opportunities for women and its accompanying economic rewards (Gutman & Schoon, 2012). Greenhaus & Powell (2012) argue that individuals who have children already will be more aware of the responsibilities and demands of a family lifestyle than those who do not have children and will therefore be more likely to consider children in their career goals. However, the way in which individuals satisfy their family circumstances can also vary. It was found from the Percheski & Wildeman (2008) study that men who had

children actually worked longer hours than those who did not have children in an effort to support their family financially and fulfil their social role as a breadwinner. It was found that a males wage had increased an average of 4.2% and their annual work hours increased by 38 hours when they had a child (Percheski & Wildeman, 2008). However, this study was conducted in the United States and so its findings can only be limited to that geographic region (Percheski & Wildeman, 2008).

According to SOC theory (*Section 2.3.5*) (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003; Baltes, Staudinger, & Lindenberger, 1999) once an individual has acquired a child they may opt to limit the number of hours that they work, for example maximise job performance but limit networking opportunities, so that they may focus on new family goals, such as being a respectable parent, which could be part of the selection process. In order to optimise their means to achieve their goals they may choose to reduce job stressors, such as not taking up a top managerial position, so that they are able to focus on their tasks at home (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003). Percheski & Wildeman (2008) propose that there are specialisation effects with the division of labour within a household whereby they consider that wives have greater value to offer for the time that they spend with the children than their husbands (Becker, 1985). Percheski & Wildeman (2008) then argue that this could be the reason why, from their studies, that males concentrate their attention towards the labour market whilst their wives attention is driven towards home production.

***Proposition 2:*** *Individuals with children will be more willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who do not have children.*

### **2.3.5 Influence of Age on family related career goals**

#### **2.3.5.1 The Life Span Theory of Control**

Over the last 30 years there has been significant developments in the psychology of aging with several prominent theories coming to the surface (Kooij et al., 2011). One theory which was proposed is the Life Span Theory of control which deals with the development of an individual through the control that they have over the external environment (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995). A person makes use of primary control when they exert behaviours that are directed towards altering the external environment so that they may achieve their desires or goals (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995). An individual then exerts secondary control when they focus on internal process to minimise losses and expand on their primary control (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995). Examples include accepting limited ability in a particular field or role or creating meaning from events which are unpredictable so that they may be accepted (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995). Kooij et al. (2011) make use of the theory to posit that older people will show a decrease in extrinsic motives due to their decrease in primary control over the external environment. For example, in general the elderly will have to face frequent health problems which they may have no primary control over which may force them to rather regulate their emotions (secondary control) in order to deal with such events.

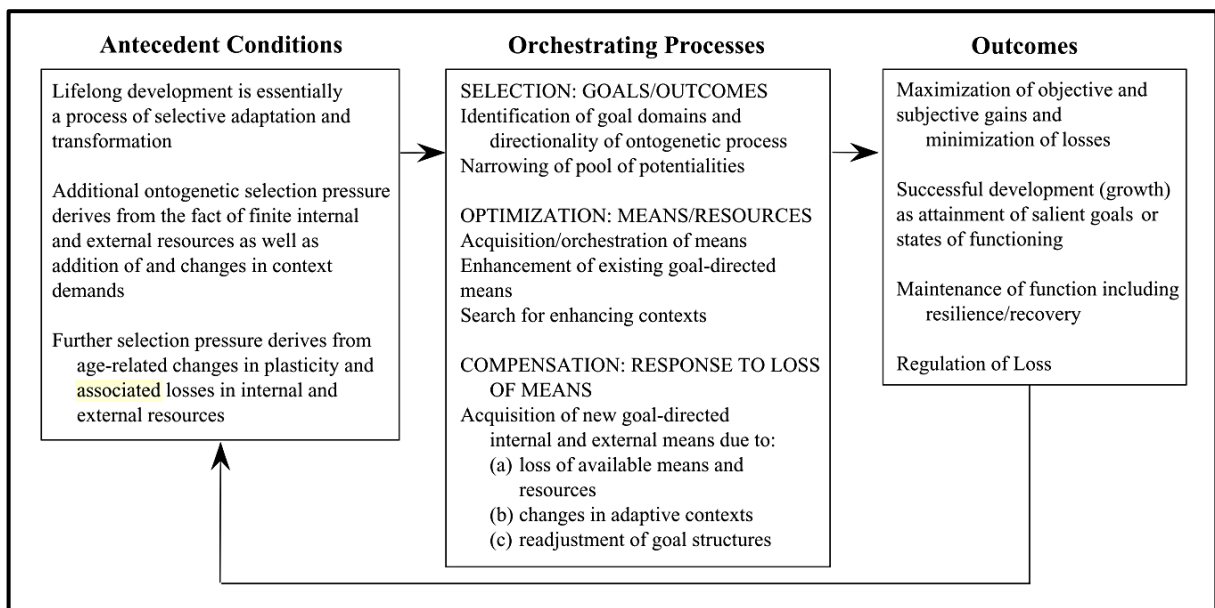
***Proposition 3:*** *Younger individuals (less than 30) will have higher levels of extrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (equal to or greater than 30).*

***Proposition 4:*** *Younger individuals (less than 30) will have lower levels of intrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (equal to or greater than 30).*

**2.3.5.2 The Selection, Optimisation and Compensation Theory**

The Selection, Optimisation, and Compensation (SOC) theory (Baltes et al., 1999) is another theory which was developed as an explanation for normative decline of intrinsic goals and motivation as individuals age (Kooij et al., 2011). This controversial idea essentially means that younger employees will be more interested in learning and work enjoyment than their elderly counterparts (Kooij et al., 2011). The SOC theory can also provide individuals with a general strategy that can be used to manage one’s life with a focus on enhanced development and adaptation to biological aging (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003; Baltes et al., 1999).

The SOC theory argues that for successful development an individual will simultaneously maximise gains through the achievement of desirable goals and minimise their losses by moving away from undesirable goals (Figure 3) (Baltes et al., 1999). Baltes et al. (1999) then propose that people, consciously or unconsciously, follow the process of Selection, Optimisation and Compensation (Figure 3) so that they may achieve the above. The SOC process is completely context and person specific and the type of goals which can be identified as gains or losses are dependent on personal as well as cultural factors (Baltes et al., 1999). SOC theory can be used to infer a decline in growth related motivation for older individuals and an increase in regulation of job related losses such as job security (Kooij et al., 2011). The elderly will make use of the SOC theory to maintain both their mental and physical health (Ng & Feldman, 2013).



**Figure 3:** Diagram representing the lifespan model of SOC (Baltes et al., 1999 p.483).

According to Kooij et al. (2011) an understanding of the influence that aging has on the preferences of employees is one of the most urgent challenges that face human resource managers within the next decade. The reason for the urgency is that there has been a trend that their senior employees have chosen to retire, which has left their organisations with a knowledge gap and searching to find suitable replacements (Kooij et al., 2011). Social cognitive career theory (Figure 1) explains that individuals will base their career goals on their learning experiences (Lent & Brown, 2013). As an individual gets older they have more work and life experiences to discover their motives, needs and values and will then work towards their goals, which are related to their motives, needs and values, through their actions (Figure 1) (Kooij et al., 2011). According to Kooij et al. (2011) it is not clear as to what extent these individuals motives, values and needs change over their lifespan.

There have been studies which show that age has altered career goals for some groups of individuals. One study found that elderly men and women desired work which offered more autonomy and flexibility yet they were fearful that they would be unable to find alternative work (Bimrose et al., 2013; Parry & Taylor, 2007). Powell & Butterfield (2013) argue that men who are further developed in their careers and education for their career had less chance of aspiring towards achieving top managerial positions than their younger male counterparts. Their study compared a group of MBA students with undergraduate business students, who are younger and were on the verge of starting their full time career, in terms of their career aspirations for top management (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). They reasoned that the MBA students were more realistic about the probability of being promoted to top executive positions whereas the undergraduate student had little work experience and maintained a more idealistic view of their goals for top management (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). Another reason could have been that the MBA students, who had work experience, believed that being in top management would not afford them the time to attend to family responsibilities whereas the undergraduate students were naïve to the time constraints that top management is exposed to (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). Other literature suggests that individual's career preferences, attitudes and orientations can be influenced by their age and life circumstances (Kooij et al., 2011).

Schein (1996) argues against this idea as he proposes that individuals develop their own career orientation within the first years of work which helps to identify their dominant career anchor. Schein also assumes that work experiences and external life experiences lose their ability to influence an individual's career preference once they have established their occupational identity (Rodrigues et al., 2013). However, the

findings of Kooij et al. (2011) proposes that a person's career preferences are flexible over time due to the dynamic nature of their life circumstances and working environment.

### **2.3.5.2 The Socio-Emotional Selectivity Theory**

As individuals age their goal orientations change as well (Ng & Feldman, 2013). A theory known as Socio-Emotional Selectivity Theory supports the notion that age influences one's career goals (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). The theory suggests that as people age the amount of time that they perceive to have left diminishes and so they place greater priority on emotionally meaningful goals (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). In other words, when individuals are young they perceive their future time as relatively spacious and would prefer to enhance their future intrinsically and extrinsically. Their goals could be intrinsic, such as gaining knowledge, experience, or discovering their role in society or they could be extrinsic where they are searching for financial rewards, prestige or social status (Seibert et al., 2013). These goals can then be leveraged into the long term future.

However, when individuals age they see their future time as limited and search for goals which are emotionally meaningful which is generally interrelated with short term benefits (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). Lang & Carstensen (2002) further distinguish between two types of emotional goals which are *Emotion regulation* and *Generativity goals*. *Emotion regulation* referred to an individual's desire to have emotional experiences or be in control of their emotions and *Generativity* includes goals which pertain to taking accountability for future generations (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). In terms of social relationships, Ng & Feldman (2013) made use of Socio-Emotional selectivity theory, to predict that when individuals age they will employ greater energy into preserving healthy relationships with family members so that they may fulfil significant social needs. This theory would suggest that older individuals would be more willing to compromise on their career goals for their family, which would appeal to emotional goals, and that younger individuals would place greater emphasis on extrinsic and intrinsic goals and would be less compromising on their career goals for their family.

**Proposition 5:** *Younger individuals (less than 30) will be less willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who are of an older age (equal to or greater than 30).*

### **2.2.5 Social Cognitive Theory in terms of career counselling**

Lent (2013) has incorporated career counselling and development into the social cognitive career theory model. In order for career guidance plans to be effective, the following six common obstacles for individuals should be focussed on so that they are life prepared (Lent, 2013):

- Interest profiles of individuals that are nearly constant
- Individuals may have unlikely outcome expectations
- Individuals may have actual talent limitations or simply a lack of self-efficacy that they can achieve
- There may be difficulty's in expressing the goals of the individual or, alternatively some may also fail to plan if their goal travels off course
- There may be a lack of environmental support for an individual's chosen career path
- Environmental barriers may exist to prevent an individual from following their career

The last two points are areas that an individual does not have control over but can be prepared for according to Lent (2013). Lent (2013) suggests that barrier management is the appropriate technique that can be used to prepare an individual. The technique simply involves recognising the potential barriers that the individual may encounter during their career, ranking them in order from the most to least probable and then plotting potential strategies to cope with the most likely barriers. The strategies used to cope with potential barriers to a successful career include role play, allowing the individuals to talk to loved ones and the establishment of backup plans in case the individuals desired career path becomes impossible to achieve (Lent, 2013).

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## Chapter 3: Research Questions/ Propositions/ Hypotheses

### 3.1 Research Question

The following research question was raised in *Chapter 1. Proposition 1 to Proposition 5* and *Hypothesis 1 to Hypothesis 5* will follow from the research question.

***To what extent does the contextual variables of gender, children, and age affect a manager's willingness to compromise on their career goals for their family?***

### 3.2 Propositions and Hypotheses

#### 3.2.1 Proposition and Hypothesis 1

The career counselling literature over the last 100 years has been primarily concerned with matching people to their careers (Lent, 2013). The fundamental assumption was that the individual and their careers were stable yet this is definitely not the case (Lent, 2013). It is understood from *Chapter 2* that an individual's career goals can be influenced by contextual influences, such as gender (Lent & Brown, 2013). Individuals can adjust their behaviour so that they can alter their projected path in order to obtain their career goals (Bandura, 2006).

In the workforce it has been recently noted that females are adjusting their projected career paths by leaving positions which have the potential to see them fast tracked into senior management (Sandberg, 2010). Also, there is strong evidence to confirm that there is a low percentage of female CEO's in firms worldwide (EOWA, 2012). Some contend that the glass ceiling is negatively influencing females to voluntarily leave (Lent & Brown, 2013). However, others believe that these females are leaving for family responsibilities (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). Wocke & Heymann (2012) agree that gender, a contextual variable, influences the turnover decisions of employees and then they further explain that the current models concerning turnover decisions do not adequately illuminate this relationship. Lent (2013) concurs as he believes that the current models require additional information in order to account for the dynamic nature of careers and an individual's life. Therefore, from the above it can be noted that there is a strong need to explore the validity of the following *Proposition 1*. Lent & Brown (2013) explain that individuals will generally choose career goals that comply with social and cultural norms. Since traditional roles were that males were "breadwinners" and females "homemakers" (Eagly & Wood, 1999) then the above would suggest that females would be more compromising than males.

***Proposition 1: Females will be more willing to compromise their career aspirations for their family than males.***



Following the above proposition is *Hypothesis 1* which will be tested using the *Compromise for Partner and Child Scales* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013).

***Hypothesis 1:***

$$H_0: \mu_{females} \geq \mu_{males}$$

$$H_1: \mu_{females} < \mu_{males}$$

**3.2.2 Proposition and Hypothesis 2**

The contextual variable of having children is also influential on an individual's career goals (Lent & Brown, 2013). There is evidence to suggest that children affect work decisions, as Greenhaus & Powell (2012) have argued that individuals may choose to work less hours until their children are old enough to be in school. Furthermore, Greenhaus & Powell (2012) believe that individuals will base their consideration for their family on their dominant social identity. If an individual has a high job position within their firm then they are less likely to consider their family and the opposite affect is observed if the individual is married (Ng & Feldman, 2008). This evidence would propose that those individual's with children would be more willing to compromise their career goals for their family than those without. Hence the following *Proposition 2* and *Hypothesis 2* will be investigated.

***Proposition 2:*** *Individuals with children will be more willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who do not have children.*

Following the above proposition is *Hypothesis 2* which will be tested using the *Compromise for Partner and Child Scales* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013).

***Hypothesis 2:***

$$H_0: \mu_{with\ children} \geq \mu_{without\ children}$$

$$H_1: \mu_{with\ children} < \mu_{without\ children}$$

It has been demonstrated by Westring & Ryan (2011) that the more children that employees have the more greater the interference on work from the children. This is due to the decrease in time and energy levels and increase in stress (Schueller-weidekamm & Kautzky-willer, 2012). It is clear then that children have an impact on the careers of individuals yet Basuil & Casper (2012) proclaim that there is little research concerning the attitudes that young adults have concerning children and their careers. The findings of *Proposition 2* and *Hypothesis 2* will potentially serve to overcome the shortcomings of the research within this area.

### 3.2.3 Propositions and Hypotheses 3,4 and 5

It is generally understood that people are living longer as the average age in industrialised countries is increasing year by year (Ng & Feldman, 2013; Pocock et al., 2013). From this larger portions of the population are expected to be older, for example the proportion of Americans above the age of 55 in 2020 is projected to be as high as 25 percent (Toossi, 2012). Therefore, there is a growing need to understand the motives of older employees (Kooij et al., 2011) yet research has generally focussed on the motivation of the younger generation (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). This research will attempt to uncover these motives through the answers to *Hypothesis 3* to *Hypothesis 5*. Firstly, an attempt will be made to establish if career goals (being intrinsic and extrinsic career goals) of individuals vary in importance for an older generation as compared to a younger generation (*Hypothesis 3* and *Hypothesis 4*).

**Proposition 3:** *Younger individuals (equal to or less than 30) will have higher levels of extrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

*Proposition 3* is followed by *Hypothesis 3* which compares the generations on the basis of extrinsic career goals (Seibert et al., 2013).

#### **Hypothesis 3:**

$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

Then *Proposition 4* and *Hypothesis 4* will also compare the two generations on the basis of intrinsic career goals (Seibert et al., 2013).

**Proposition 4:** *Younger individuals (equal to or less than 30) will have lower levels of intrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

#### **Hypothesis 4:**

$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

Thereafter, *Hypothesis 5* will be used to determine whether there is a difference in the generations with respect to their willingness to compromise these career goals for their families. The results gathered for *Hypothesis 3* and *Hypothesis 4* will help serve to identify which goals are more likely to be compromised for each generation. According to Kooij et al. (2011) it has been difficult for managers to recognise the effect that aging has on the motivation of a firms employees.

**Proposition 5:** *Younger individuals (30 years and less) will be less willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

Following the above proposition is *Hypothesis 5* which will be tested using the *Compromise for Partner and Child Scales* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013).

**Hypothesis 5:**

$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

The purpose of this part of the research will be to hopefully identify the direction of this shift so that managers may motivate their employees more effectively. Also older employees who leave their respective firms take with them years of valuable experience with them so the information from this report could also be beneficial for firms who wish to retain this human capital (Kooij et al., 2011). *Proposition 3*, *Proposition 4* and *Proposition 5* were derived using the Selection, Optimisation and Compensation (SOC) theory (Baltes et al., 1999) and The Life Span Theory of Control (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995) which can be found in *Section 2.3.5*.

## Chapter 4: Research Methodology

### 4.1 Research Design

This research study was conducted in a quantitative manner as the focus was to find a precise measurement of the variables instead of a detailed description of them (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The aim of the study is to take an analytic approach comparing a few variables rather than exploring a multitude of variables within a complex environment which further enhances the appeal of a quantitative analysis for the study (Malina, Nørreklit, & Selto, 2011). With the analysis of the few variables that were taken into consideration, power statistical inferences could be made regarding the populations that were represented by the sample (Wegner, 2013). A qualitative study, which would be more fixated on the underlying meaning of certain phenomena (Cooper & Schindler, 2014), would not be appropriate as the aim is to determine the extent of the influence of family on the career goals of groups of people.

Due to time constraints, this study was cross-sectional instead of longitudinal as the data was related to one point in time rather than over a period of time (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Due to time constraints a longitudinal study was not followed as it would have required years of observation of the groups under study (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). A longitudinal study would have enabled the researcher to record changes of the sample over time (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The cross sectional nature of the study meant that no causal relationships were observed; therefore the study is descriptive (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

The groups that were studied could be separated according to demographics, namely sex, marital status, age, and number of children in the household. These demographics were then compared using two variables namely, *Career Goals* and the *Compromise for Child and Partner scales*. *Career Goals* includes both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and was established by Seibert et al. (2013). The *Compromise for Child and Partner scales* were developed by Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013). Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) claim that at the time of publication, no other measurement instrument had been established to measure the extent that individuals take their family into consideration with regard to career goals. For this reason it was advantageous to collect primary data through a structured questionnaire rather than secondary data as it was desired to probe for new information regarding this topic in South Africa.

A structured questionnaire was used to gather primary data from the participants of the study (Appendix A). Invitations for potential participants to complete the questionnaire were sent by email. Although the participants were notified by email, a programme

known as *Survey Monkey* was used to capture the data from the responses of the participants. The statistical information obtained from the questionnaire was used to make inferences about the universe and to test the hypotheses established in the literature review (Cooper & Schindler, 2014) and *Chapter 3*. The advantages of issuing an electronic survey are; that it is inexpensive, physical presence bias is avoided, the participants have more time to answer, and it is viewed as more anonymous (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Also electronic surveys are quicker for respondents to complete than other survey mediums and as they are done electronically the cost is brought down significantly (Wegner, 2013). Furthermore data gathering errors are reduced as data collection is automated (Wegner, 2013). However, there are problems associated with electronic surveys as the researcher is not available to explain any questions which may have been misunderstood and some participants have been known to be wary of the security threat posed over the internet (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Also some participants might be concerned with the protection of their information over the internet (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). These issues were dealt with by: assuring the participants that they could contact the researcher telephonically if they wished to clarify any questions and hard copies of the questionnaires were given out to those who did not desire to answer over the internet.

## **4.2 Universe**

The research question (*Chapter 1*) is concerned with the influence of family on managers. Therefore, the universe of this research study is all South African managers who have career goals. This study did not consider all individuals within South Africa as the universe because it would have been difficult to find a representative sample. Participants of an MBA program held in South Africa are representative of the universe as the enrolment for the MBA program requires individuals who are currently in management positions or have experience in management. It is commonly regarded that individuals who pursue an MBA qualification do so because they are striving for career advancement or change (Muja & Appelbaum, 2014). MBA students would have a fresh recollection of their career goals due to their engagement in such career altering programme. The participants of an MBA programme will provide an insightful snapshot of the career goals of management and their consideration for family.

The MBA qualification is relevant as it has work experience as a qualifier for entry. Comprehensive studies on the influential effects of family on career decisions for university students has already been conducted (Metheny & McWhirter, 2013). Other reasons are that the influence of family of origin decreases with age (Metheny & McWhirter, 2013) and this study is focused on the interaction with family rather than the

family of origin. The universe includes only South African individuals because individuals who live in a country that is high in collectivism will be affected differently by their family interactions than a country high in individualism (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). The result would be that the sample would not be representative of the universe if the universe was not contained within South Africa.

As access for the part time and modular MBA students for 2014 was not granted, a sample from management at Steffanutti Stock's (a large South African construction company) was also included in the study. This sample is also appropriate as management was heterogeneous because it included managers from the various departments who have varying work experiences and qualifications. This heterogeneity is similar to that of the full time MBA programme. However, as this sample is currently working the participants may be currently satisfied with their careers and may not wish to advance any further so a question was included in the questionnaire so that such participants could be excluded. It was important to have participants who have future career goals who are not content with their current work situation.

## **4.3 Sampling**

### **4.3.1 The Sampling Frame**

This research will have to make use of samples so that inferences about the chosen universe can be made (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The sample frame was relatively easy to establish because the Gordon Institute of Business Science had a database of all individuals who have enrolled for the 2014 MBA programme and Stefanutti Stocks had an email list (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). As the population was divided into subgroups that exhibited homogeneity between themselves the sampling method was deemed to be cluster sampling (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

These sample subgroups (the full time MBA group and Stefanutti Stocks) are heterogeneous within the group because the managers are from various race groups and gender, are different ages, have different qualifications and work experiences in various departments. This form of heterogeneity is ideal for cluster sampling techniques (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Cluster sampling was advantageous because of its economical efficiency in comparison to simple random sampling yet it still allowed for statistical inferences as it is considered a probability sampling method (Wegner, 2013). The benefits of following a probability sampling procedure include the ability to estimate precision as well as the ability to infer findings to the defined universe (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

**4.3.2 The Parameters of Interest**

The population parameters of interest are listed in the following Table 1. The studies that were used for appropriate questions for the questionnaire, the internal consistency and the data level is also provided in the following table.

**Table 1:** Table representing the Population parameter of interest with the relevant studies that were used for relevant questions.

Type of variable	Population Parameter	Relevant Study	Data Level	Internal consistency
Dependent variable	Intrinsic Career Goals	(Seibert et al., 2013)	Interval	$\alpha = 0.65$
Dependent variable	Extrinsic Career Goals	(Seibert et al., 2013)	Interval	$\alpha = 0.74$
Dependent variable	Compromise for child	(Ganginis et al., 2013)	Interval	$\alpha = 0.91$
Dependent variable	Compromise for partner	(Ganginis et al., 2013)	Interval	$\alpha = 0.89$
Independent variables	Age, Gender, Number of children	N/A	Ordinal or Nominal	N/A

**4.3.2.1 Career Goals**

Seibert et al. (2013) define career goals as the “career outcome that an individual strives to obtain” (p. 170). Having career goals will provide individuals with direction so that they may prioritise their behaviour to obtain rewards that are in the future (Dik, Sargent, & Steger, 2008). Career goals can be further separated into two groups, intrinsic and extrinsic career goals. As mentioned previously, from Figure 2 (Section 2.2.1) it can be observed that goal setting is a fundamental construct of Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent, 2013). Lent (2013) argues that goals are influenced by contextual influences, as in this study’s independent variables (Section 4.3.2.3).

The career goals scale for the questionnaire was adapted from the study conducted by Seibert *et al.* (2013). The constructs developed by Seibert et al. (2013) were chosen for this study as they had already conducted a pilot study, obtained measures of internal consistency (Table 1) and have suggested improvements. The instrument has a small number of items (5 items for intrinsic career goals and 5 items for extrinsic career goals) which is appealing as it reduces participant burden. The construct makes use of a 7 level response likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly

Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Slightly Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree) which measure the extent that they are orientated towards goals that have intrinsic and extrinsic attributes (Seibert et al., 2013). The scores indicated by the participant were summed and used to indicate the extent that they value their intrinsically and extrinsically orientated goals. In other words, higher scores from the intrinsic career goals construct demonstrates higher levels of career goals that are intrinsically motivated.

#### **4.3.2.2 Compromise for Child and Partner Scales**

Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) developed both the *Compromise for Child* and *Compromise for Partner* scales. The scales were developed because there was no such measurement instrument to determine the extent to which individuals will compromise their career goals for their family (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). Another pertinent reason for electing this constructed scale was that it had already been analysed and shown to be both reliable and valid (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013).

The questionnaire was constructed from 52 items which were reduced to 24 items from information gathered from a pilot study and an exploratory factor analysis (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). The format of these constructs was a 5 level response likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). Once again, the responses from the participants were added so that a total score for each individual was obtained. Higher scores for each construct indicated greater levels of compromise of career goals for the subjects children or partner (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). A two factor solution was deemed acceptable for that study which was then chosen to be two of the dependent variables of this study, the compromise for children and partner scales. Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) reduced their initial 52 item scale to 24 by disregarding items which did not load at 0.5 or higher. In order to reduce participant burden for this study the 24 items will be further reduced to 16 items by disregarding items which have a load which is lower than 0.615 for the compromise for child scale and 0.579 for the compromise for partner scale.

#### **4.3.2.3 Independent Variables**

The following demographic variables will be used to distinguish groups of participants and verify this study's hypotheses; age, gender and number of children. The following paragraphs will define these independent variables in order to avoid confusion. Aging refers to the costs involved when an organism maintains its life, for example there are an accumulation of genetic replication errors as an individual grows older (Baltes et al., 1999). Such aging is referred to as biological aging (Baltes et al., 1999) but there are



other forms of aging such as social, psychological and societal roles at different stages of an individual's life cycle (Kooij et al., 2011). Although it might have been useful to consider the effects of the various forms of aging, the majority of studies concerning the influence of age have made use of chronological age as the indicator of age (Kooij et al., 2011). Chronological age was used as an identifier to test *Hypothesis 3, 4 and 5*. This study will focus on comparing the responses of younger (less than or equal to 30 years old) and older (greater than 30 years old) chronological age groups. The age 30 was used as a cut-off between the younger and older generation because Lang & Carstensen (2002) found that after the age of 30 people tend to remove themselves from relationships that they may have developed for the purpose of career advancement and focus more on relationships that will provide more social support and positive affirmation (for example, family and close friends).

There is a difference between gender identity and the sex of individuals. When a study considers gender identity, they are referring to the "individuals' beliefs about the extent to which they possess psychological traits that are associated with gender stereotypes for each sex" (Powell & Butterfield, 2013 p.31). Powell & Butterfield (2013) explored gender identity, through masculine and feminine traits, as a predictor of aspirations for senior management but still found that sex, being a male or female, was still the differential factor. For this study, sex will be considered as the independent variable to differentiate groups rather than gender identity.

The last independent variable that will be considered for this study is the number of children that the participants have. Rodrigues et al. (2013) found, in their qualitative study, that a number of women had reported that they had altered their career orientation after they had children. Within the literature review (Section 2.3.2) provides more evidence that having children has an influence on the careers of people. Therefore, the number of children is a suitable independent variable for this study in order to test *Hypothesis 2*.

#### **4.3.1 The Desired Sample Size**

A 5% level of significance ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) will be elected for the hypothesis, if a higher level of significance is considered then the chances of a type 2 error (false negative) will be reduced but a type 1 error will be increased (false positive) will be increased (Wegner, 2013).

From a previous study by (Seibert et al., 2013) the standard deviations on scales where the range is from 1 to 5 were:

- $SD_{intrinsic\ goals} = 0.44$
- $SD_{extrinsic\ goals} = 0.75$

From the previous study by (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013) with a possible range of 12 to 48 points the standard deviations were:

- $SD_{Considering\ Children} = 6.59$
- $SD_{Considering\ Partner} = 5.76$

If it is assumed that there will 30 participants for each group then the following can be calculated using the following (Cooper & Schindler, 2014):

$$\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Where:

- $\sigma_{\bar{x}}$  is the standard error of the mean

Then the standard error associated with the use of the Seibert et al. (2013) and (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013) scales are respectfully:

- $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.08$  units for the intrinsic goals scale which is acceptable
- $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.137$  units for the extrinsic goals scale which is acceptable
- $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.203$  points for the considering children scale total score which is acceptable
- $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.051$  points for the considering partner scale total score which is acceptable

Therefore given the above choices, in order to reject the null hypothesis the observed differences between the two independent samples can be calculated as follows (Cooper & Schindler, 2014):

$$Z = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{SD_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{SD_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

Where:

- $\bar{x}$  is the sample mean

- $\mu$  is the population mean
- $n$  is the sample size
- $SD_i$  is the standard deviations of the respective samples
- $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$  is the difference between the sample means and population means

$$\boxed{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2) = Z \left( \sqrt{\frac{SD_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{SD_2^2}{n_2}} \right)}$$

Therefore the difference would have to be:

**Hypothesis 1:**  $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2) > 3.125 \text{ points}$

**Hypothesis 2:**  $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2) > 3.33 \text{ points.}$

**Hypothesis 3:**  $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2) > 0.34 \text{ units}$

**Hypothesis 4:**  $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2) > 0.222 \text{ units}$

**Hypothesis 5:**  $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2) > 3.125 \text{ points}$

From the above it was found that 30 participants per independent variable will be appropriate for the study. Approximately 70 participants would be necessary to gather at least 30 females and 30 males with 10 participants to fill in for an unequal ratio of male to female participants. As participants can male and young or old, or female and young or old, the 70 participants should be sufficient to cover these demographics. The same observation can be made with the number of children demographic.

#### 4.4 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for this study will be full and part time MBA students who will finish their academic studies by the end of 2014 as well as managers within Steffanutti who have ambitions for career advancement.

#### 4.5 Measurement

A longitudinal study would have been ideal so that the changes in relationship between the variables could be tracked, but due to time constraints the research will be cross-sectional (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). A pilot test of the questionnaire was not performed as the constructs under consideration have already been tested. Once the data had been collected descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation and range for the chosen parameters were calculated. After the descriptive statistic was represented and observations established, the hypotheses were tested for a difference between two means for independent samples (Wegner, 2013). The purpose for such a test is to check if the difference between the two population parameters is purely coincidental or representative of the universe (Wegner, 2013). Two populations will be tested for each hypothesis, for example the response of males versus that of females, to see if the difference between the means of their responses was statistically significant.

The following equations were used to calculate the student t-statistic if the sample for each construct was less than 30, otherwise the previous equation for Z could be made use of (Wegner, 2013). These equations could be used because the population standard deviations were assumed to be equal, which is established with another hypothesis test, yet they are unknown (Wegner, 2013).

$$t - stat = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{s_p^2 \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

And

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)SD_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)SD_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

Where:

- $s_p^2$  is the pooled variance

Then t - critical was calculated, using the degrees of freedom and level of significance, and compared with t - stat in order to test the Hypotheses.

## 4.6 Limitations

The following limitations of the scope and research methodology are:

- As this study is cross-sectional, there is no opportunity to identify causal relationships between any of the variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).
- The MBA students and managers at Stefanutti Stocks may have been affected by “peacock” syndrome with the answers they give concerning their willingness to compromise for their family (Cooper & Schindler, 2014 p.300).
- Ideally, the questionnaire would have numerous questions to cover nuances that may affect the variables but the balance of reliability and practicality must be maintained (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). This limitation meant that the number of questions was shortened from the ideal amount which would have affected the breadth of the findings.
- Statistical inferences were made about the average individual of the population group yet little was discussed about those who fall on either extreme of the data set. However, there may have been interesting revelations that could have been found by studying those extremes (Malina et al., 2011). This is where a further qualitative study could be beneficial.
- An administered questionnaire with closed questions, which is a quantitative study, has the limitation that it will not delve deeply into the problem areas as much as a qualitative study (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The statistical inferences made from the quantitative study can be generalised to the population that the sample represents, however only a qualitative study will bring about the deeper underlying meaning and further understanding of the results (Malina et al., 2011)
- Other contextual influences such as perceived social status and financial ability were not included in the study but may still have affected an individual’s willingness to compromise their career for their family or the career goals.
- As the questionnaire will be administered to the 2014 MBA programme at GIBS Business School as well as Stefanutti Stocks, the results may not be representative of all managers within the country.
- Although the participants will be questioned regarding their willingness to compromise their career goals in the future, their answers will have to be treated with caution because although they may intend to act a certain way in the future but in reality they may behave differently (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).
- A longitudinal study would be ideal as individuals could be measured with the same constructs over various life stages. A limitation of this study is that the

cross sectional nature compares two separate groups of people for each hypothesis test.

- Reliance on self-reported data is a limitation as people can exhibit espoused values that they believe is socially acceptable (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).
- A known issue with cluster sampling is that it can reduce statistical efficiency because often the subgroups within the sample are more homogeneous than expected (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Ideally, more subgroups should have been sampled for the sample to be more representative of all managers in South Africa. Unfortunately, a drawback with some cluster samples, such as Stefanutti Stocks is that it is not heterogeneous enough within the sample as all participants within that sample originate from the same industry i.e. the construction industry (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).
- Although it may appear that quantitative research methods are more accurate than qualitative, both research methods provide results that are open to interpretation (Malina et al., 2011).
- 58% of the collected sample is from the white race group (see *Chapter 5*). This limits the findings to be more representative of white managers than managers from other race groups.

## Chapter 5: Results

### 5.1 Data Collection and Clean-up

#### 5.1.1 Data Collection

After the survey had been sent out to the full time MBA programme and Stefanutti Stocks ample time (approximately 2 weeks) was provided for the participants to respond. The number of potential participants for the full time MBA programme and Stefanutti Stocks was 39 and 213 respectively. Thereafter the survey was closed in order to import the raw data for analysis.

The data indicated that 27 full time MBA students and 132 managers of Stefanutti Stocks had participated in the study. This implies a response rate of 69.23% and 61.97% respectively. Firstly, in order to improve the quality of the data a filter was applied which separated those respondents who took longer than 3 minutes to complete the survey from those who took less time. The purpose for such a filter is to minimise acquiescence bias which would be evident in responses which were completed hastily. Informal tests, before the questionnaire was sent out, indicated that the survey should have, on average, taken approximately 5 to 8 minutes to complete comfortably. Given that some respondents would be naturally fast workers the 3 minute cut off period appeared reasonable. There were 82 remaining responses from Stefanutti Stocks and 27 from the full time MBA.

*Chapter 4* indicated that questionnaires that were given out to participants outside of the MBA programme included a question which separated those participants who had no future ambitions for career advancement from those who did have such ambitions. The number of employees who indicated that they had no ambitions for further career advancement was 7. It was then found that 2 responses from the MBA programme did not complete the questionnaire after the demographic information question which meant that their responses also had to be deleted as there was no information of use for this study. The same issue was discovered with the responses from Stefanutti Stocks so the data for these 8 respondents were also deleted. One respondent had completed small parts of the entire survey but unfortunately skipped the majority of the questions. This respondent's data was also deleted as it had little value. The remaining sample consisted of 91 respondents (25 from the full time MBA and 66 from Stefanutti Stocks).

### 5.1.2 Dealing with Missing Data

The remaining data was scrutinised for missing answers. Firstly, it was observed that many respondents did not complete question 6. It was then apparent that those respondents who had indicated that they had no children skipped question 6. This type of missing data is considered to be data missing at random because it is missing due to a previous response (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Cooper & Schindler (2014) suggest that predictive replacement is a suitable method to replace missing data points of this nature. This missing data could be completed with a 0 for the answer as it is reasonable to assume that those participants with no children have a youngest child that is 0 years old.

It was found that one respondent did not complete Question 3 of Section 2 of the survey. As this question correlates to the *Compromise for Child Scale* the mean of this scale for this respondent was inserted as the missing data point. A consequence of predictive replacement with the mean is that it can reduce variability in the data set (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). However, this negative effect can be minimised if only a few data points are missing. The missing data points, as a percentage of missing data points to all data points for that scale, for Section 2 is only 0.137% so predictive replacement is acceptable. There were 4 missing data points in Section 3 which had numerical values inserted in a similar fashion. Again this was reasonable as the percentage of missing data points to all data points was only 0.44% for both the intrinsic and extrinsic career goals scales.

### 5.1.3 Scoring the Various Scales

There are 4 scales that can be derived from the questionnaire. As referred to in Section 4, they are the *Compromise for Partner Scale*, *Compromise for Child Scale*, *Intrinsic Career Goals* and *Extrinsic Career Goals*. Before the measured scales for each participant could be derived, the following questions 1, 2 11, 13 and 15 had to be reversed scored. The purpose for having these negatively keyed questions was to reduce acquiescence bias and extreme response bias (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Once this was accomplished, all the responses for each scale and each respondent were summed and the calculated score was recorded. These scales could then be analysed to identify any potential outliers.



**5.1.4 Identifying and Removing Outliers**

Outliers can be described as extreme values that are recorded in a data set (Wegner, 2013). Outliers can be the result of entry mistakes by participants or from errors made during data analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). They can also occur when the equipment that is used to capture data for the experiment has not been calibrated accurately (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Care was taken to separate the represented populated groups before identifying and removing the outliers. For example, the “Consideration for Partner Scale” dataset contained the samples for both the female and male population groups. It was preferable to then remove outliers that pertained to the respective population groups. Outliers were identified in the datasets by using descriptive statistical measures. If it was determined that a data set had a skewness coefficient of greater than 0.5 or less than -0.5 then outliers were potentially negatively affecting the rest of the data (Wegner, 2013). The following Table 2 demonstrates the skewness coefficients for each of the population groups and the respective scales that they were measured.

**Table 2:** Table representing the skewness coefficients for the sample groups and their measured scales.

	<b>Compromise for Partner Scale</b>	<b>Compromise for Child Scale</b>	<b>Intrinsic Career Goals</b>	<b>Extrinsic Career Goals</b>
<b>Females</b>	0.167	-0.322	-1.499	-0.393
<b>Males</b>	-0.281	-0.394	-0.862	0.099
<b>No Children</b>	-0.297	-0.246	-1.582	0.027
<b>Children</b>	-0.103	-0.304	-0.988	-0.514
<b>Younger Generation</b>	-0.314	-0.570	-2.170	-0.199
<b>Older Generation</b>	-0.097	-0.205	-0.804	-0.484

Table 2 indicates that the measures for *Compromise for Partner*, *Compromise for Child* and *Extrinsic Career Goals* were more normally distributed than that of the *Intrinsic Career Goals*. *Hypothesis 1* deals with the measurements related to females and males and the *Compromise for Partner* and *Child* scales. It is observed that distributions for these measurements are all acceptably normally distributed as the skewness coefficients all fall within the acceptable range. This meant that there were no outliers within the data set that were disrupting the mean (Wegner, 2013). *Hypothesis 2* is concerned with the sample groups which have children and those which do not have children. A similar result was obtained so no outliers had to be removed. *Hypothesis 3* compares the extrinsic career goals of the younger generation with that of the older generation. Table 2 indicates that these two sample groups also have favourable skewness coefficients. The age demographics are also compared for

*Hypothesis 4* on the basis of intrinsic career goals. It can be seen that the measures for intrinsic career goals are negatively skewed as the coefficient is -2.17 for the younger generation and -0.804 for the older generation. The first process was to find any potential outliers which are affecting the normality of the data. Wegner (2013, p. 86) suggests that data points which are equal to  $x$  should be removed:

$$x < Q_1 - (1.5 \times (Q_3 - Q_1))$$

$$x > Q_3 + (1.5 \times (Q_3 - Q_1))$$

For the younger generation, two outliers were found which fell below the limit proposed above. These outliers were removed from the dataset and a new skewness coefficient of -1.0498 was obtained. It was discovered that one participant entered a full score for both intrinsic and extrinsic career goals. This presents strong evidence of acquiescence bias and so that participant's data was removed. The skewness then obtained was -1.0378 which is still outside of the reasonably acceptable normal range. The statistical t-tests that will be conducted in this chapter were derived with the assumption of normal distributions as the input (Wade, 2010). Although t-tests do not require absolute normality, a skew data set can reduce the statistical power of the conclusions made. Therefore, the decision was made to transform the data using a power transformation whereby all data points were taken to the power of 5 (Wade, 2010). The effect is that larger data points will be further apart from the smaller data points which decreases the negative skewness moderately (Wade, 2010). The net effect was that the skewness reduced to -0.4078 which is acceptable.

A similar process was followed for the older generation. Although the data is negatively skewed (-0.804) no outliers were found. Similarly to the younger generation, one participant gave a maximum score for both intrinsic and extrinsic career goals so their data was also removed. This data set was also transformed so that a comparison could be made between the two generations for the t-tests. The skewness was recalculated and was calculated to be 0.00248.

Lastly, Hypothesis 5 compares the generation's willingness to compromise their career goals for their families. Only the *Compromise for Child Scale* for the younger generation was unsatisfactorily negatively skewed so outliers had to be identified in that data set. One outlier was identified and removed which resulted in a new skewness coefficient of -0.3443 which is acceptable. The data was then considered to be clean and ready for analysis.

### 5.1.5 Cronbach’s Alpha

The reliability of the constructs used in this study was measured using Cronbach’s Alpha (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Reliability is a measurement of how well the construct delivers consistent and homogeneous results (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to be 0.823 for the *Compromise for Partner Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013), 0.881 for the *Compromise for Child Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013), 0.803 for *Extrinsic Career Goals* (Seibert et al., 2013) and 0.781 for *Intrinsic Career Goals* (Seibert et al., 2013). The results are similar to those obtained by the previous studies exhibited in Table 1. The higher Cronbach’s Alpha is to 1 the greater the reliability so these results are promising.

### 5.2 Demographic Data

The following demonstrates the race composition of the sample for this research report. It can be noted that the majority of the sample (58%) consisted of individuals who form part of the white race group. The second largest race groups were Black (17%) and Indian (17%) followed by the Coloured (6%) and Asian (2%) races. The ideal sample would be one which was less dominated by the white race as the inferences made may be more representative of the white race than the other races mentioned.

**Figure 4:** Pie Chart demonstrating the race composition of the sample.

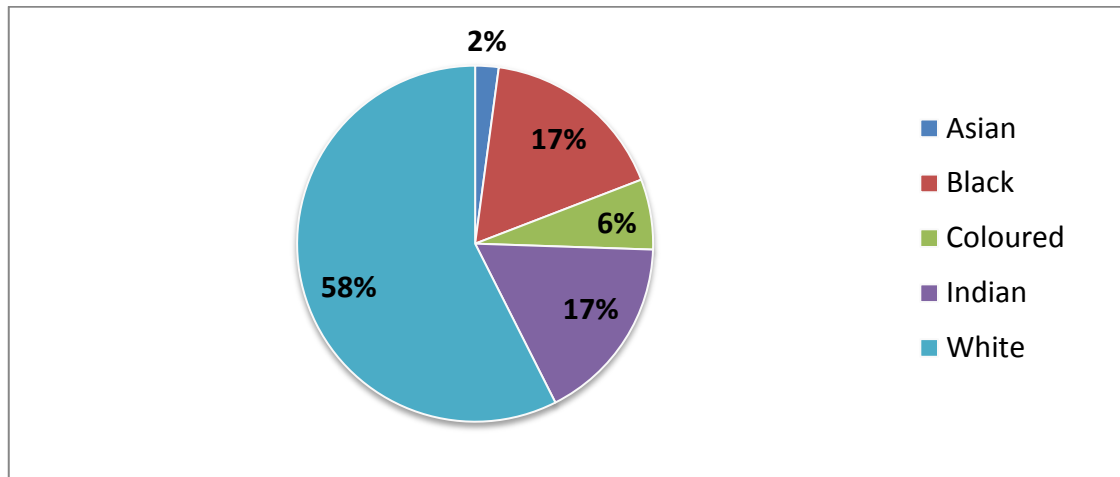


Figure 4 then further distinguishes the race composition of the sample with gender. Of the 42 males who were sampled; 29(69.05%) were White, 7(16.67%) were Black, 3(7.14%) were Indian, 2(4.76%) were Coloured and 1(2.38%) was Asian. Of the 47 females who were sampled; 27(57.45%) were White, 8(17.02%) were Black, 8(17.02%) were Indian, (6.38%) were Coloured and 1(2.13%) was Asian. The proportion of the sample according to gender is 47.19% and 52.81% for males and females respectively. Two individuals chose not to provide an answer for gender so the data for those

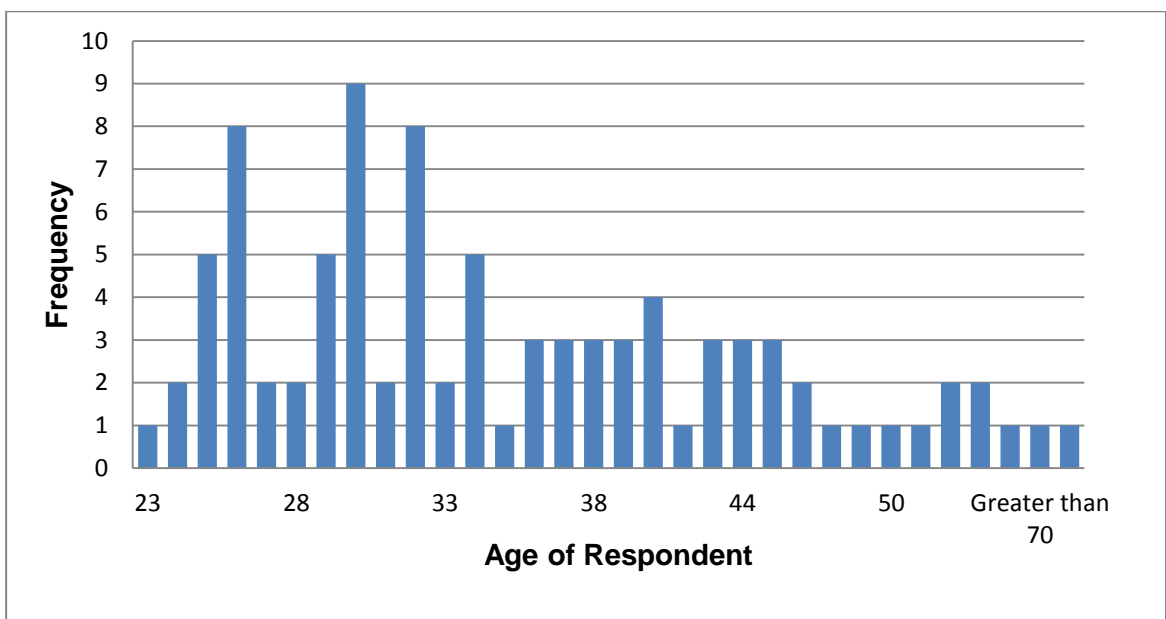
respondent was excluded for the hypothesis which compared the scores for gender however the data was still relevant for the tests regarding age and number of children.

**Table 3:** Table representing the Gender and Race Composition of the Sample.

	Race										Total %
	Asian		Black		Coloured		Indian		White		
Gender	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	
Female	2.13%	1	17.02%	8	6.38%	3	17.02%	8	57.45%	27	100.00%
Male	2.38%	1	16.67%	7	4.76%	2	7.14%	3	69.05%	29	100.00%
(blank)	0.00%		50.00%	1	0.00%		0.00%		50.00%	1	100.00%
Grand Total	2.20%	2	17.58%	16	5.49%	5	12.09%	11	62.64%	57	100.00%

The following Figure 5 provides a graphical representation of the distribution of age groups that were examined in the study. The mode of this distribution is 30 years of age as 9 respondents were 30 years old. From visual inspection, it can be noted that the distribution is positively skewed. This implies that there is a greater concentration of participants between the ages of 23 to 34 than those who are older than 34. A positive for this study is that there is representation from most age groups so the findings will reflect the attitudes of a diverse age range.

**Figure 5:** Frequency distribution of the age of the respondents.

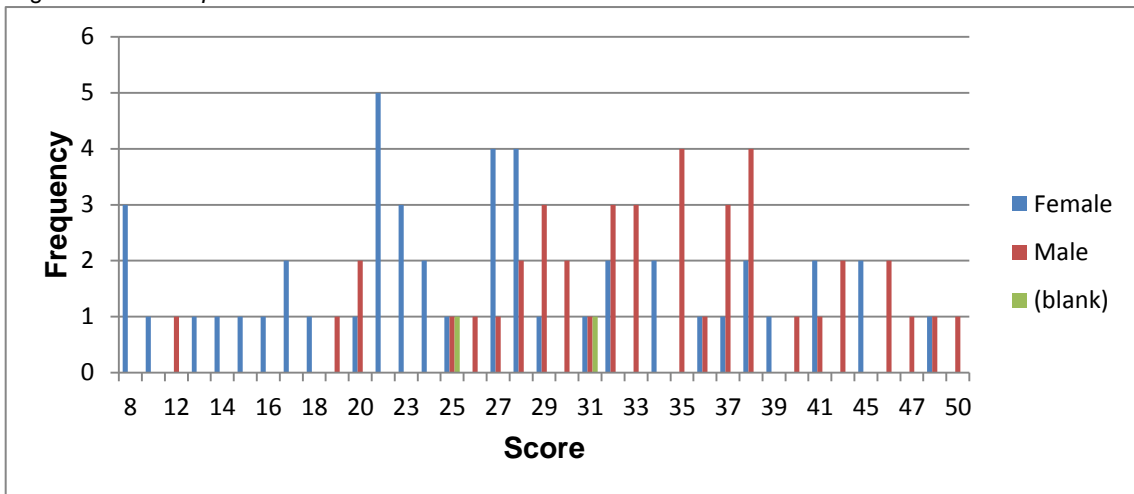


### 5.3 Hypothesis 1 Results

#### 5.3.1 Cumulative Frequency Distribution

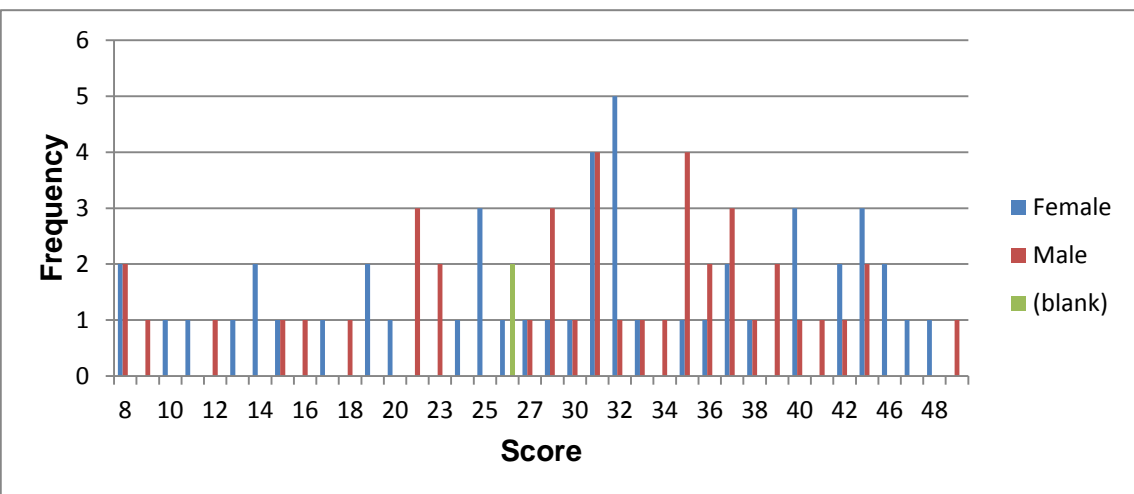
Figure 6 provides a visual understanding of the attitudes that the respondents had with regard to compromising their careers for their partner. As expected from Table 2 the distributions for males and females appear to be normally distributed which will increase the power of the t-tests for the hypothesis. As an observation, the majority of the male responses appear to be higher than that of female responses but that will have to be confirmed with inferential statistics.

**Figure 6:** A cumulative frequency distribution chart demonstrating the responses of the participants with regard to the *Compromise for Partner Scale*.



Similarly Figure 7 shows the cumulative responses for each gender for the *Compromise for Child Scale*. Again, the responses for both genders appears to be normally distributed which coincides with the low skewness coefficients in Table 2. Here the overall responses appear to be distributed about the same score so a difference appears unlikely but this requires inferential statistics in order to be confirmed.

**Figure 7:** A frequency distribution chart demonstrating the responses of the participants with regard to the *Compromise for Children Scale*.



**5.3.2 Summary of Descriptive Statistics**

**Table 4:** Table representing the descriptive statistics of the samples under consideration for Hypothesis 1.

Variable	Females		Males	
	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
Mean	26.21	29.83	33.79	30.19
Standard Error	1.4807	1.6601	1.2561	1.6451
Median	27	31	34	31.5
Mode	21	32	38	35
Standard Deviation	10.151	11.381	8.141	10.662
Sample Variance	103.041	129.536	66.270	113.670
Kurtosis	-0.5093	-0.8480	0.3757	0.0990
Skewness	0.1668	-0.3219	-0.2806	-0.3940
Range	40	40	38	48
Minimum	8	8	12	8
Maximum	48	48	50	56
Sum	1232	1402	1419	1268
Count	47	47	42	42
Confidence Level (95.0%)	2.98	3.34	2.54	3.32
Coefficient of Variation (CV)	38.729%	38.153%	24.093%	35.316%

Table 4 illustrates the descriptive statistics for the results obtained for males and females according to the *Compromise for Partner and Child Scales*. Wegner (2013) argues that 68.3% of the data lies within one standard deviation from the mean. Therefore, for the *Compromise for Partner Scale* for females 68.3% of the data is between 16.06 and 36.361 but for the males this range is between 25.649 and 41.931. Similar numbers can be reported for the *Compromise for Child Scale* so this indicates that the data is fairly dispersed about the mean. In general, the variability about the mean is greater for the female participants than the male participants as the Coefficient of Variation is larger.

The confidence level provides a measure of confidence that the true mean of the population is within the confidence interval (Wegner, 2013). For the female *Compromise for Partner Scale* there is 95% confidence that the true population mean is between 23.23 and 29.19 whereas for the males this confidence interval is between 31.25 and 36.33. This indicates that there is a potential significant difference between the population means for this scale. For the *Compromise for Child Scale*, the 95 %

confidence interval is between 26.49 and 33.17 for females and 26.87 and 33.51 for males. The differences between the true population means may be minimal for this scale.

**5.3.3 Inferential Statistics for Hypothesis 1**

**5.3.3.1 Comparison of Males and Females according to Consideration for Partner Scale**

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{males}^2 = \sigma_{females}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{males}^2 \neq \sigma_{females}^2$$

Then the F-test was calculated in excel as seen in Table 5 with an alpha of 0.05.

**Table 5:** Table representing the results of a two sample F-test to check if sample variances can be assumed to be equal.

	Females	Males
	<i>Consideration for Partner Scale</i>	<i>Consideration for Partner Scale</i>
Mean	26.21276596	33.78571429
Variance	103.0407031	66.27003484
Observations	47	42
df	46	41
F	1.554861157	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.076752082	
F Critical one-tail	1.664267166	

There is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{one\ tail} = 0.0767 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis can be tested:

$$H_{0,a}: \mu_{females} - \mu_{males} \geq 0$$

$$H_{1,a}: \mu_{females} - \mu_{males} < 0$$

**Table 6:** t-test assuming equal population variances for Hypothesis 1 with regard to the Consideration for Partner Scales Partner Scale ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

	Female	Male
	Consideration for Partner Scale	Consideration for Partner Scale
Mean	26.21276596	33.78571429
Variance	103.0407031	66.27003484
Observations	47	42
Pooled Variance	85.71199734	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	87	
t Stat	-3.852323559	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.000111603	
t Critical one-tail	1.662557349	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.000223205	
t Critical two-tail	1.987608282	

Therefore, from the t-test in Table 6,  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one-tail}} = 0.000111603 < \alpha = 0.05$  there is strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance. As the  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one-tail}}$  is the probability that the null hypothesis is true (Wegner, 2013), the probability that  $\mu_{\text{females}} \geq \mu_{\text{males}}$  is true is 0.01116%. The probability that  $\mu_{\text{females}} < \mu_{\text{males}}$  is true is 99.9888%. The implications of this result will be discussed in Chapter 6.

### 5.3.3.2 Comparison of Males and Females according to Consideration for Child Scale

A similar test was conducted as in the previous Section 5.3.3.1 in order to compare the gender groups with respect to the *Consideration for Child Scale*. The test results are documented in Appendix B. The test results indicated that at a 5% level of significance  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one-tail}} = 0.44 > \alpha = 0.05$  (Table 12) which signifies that there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance. The possible reasons for this result is discussed in Chapter 6.

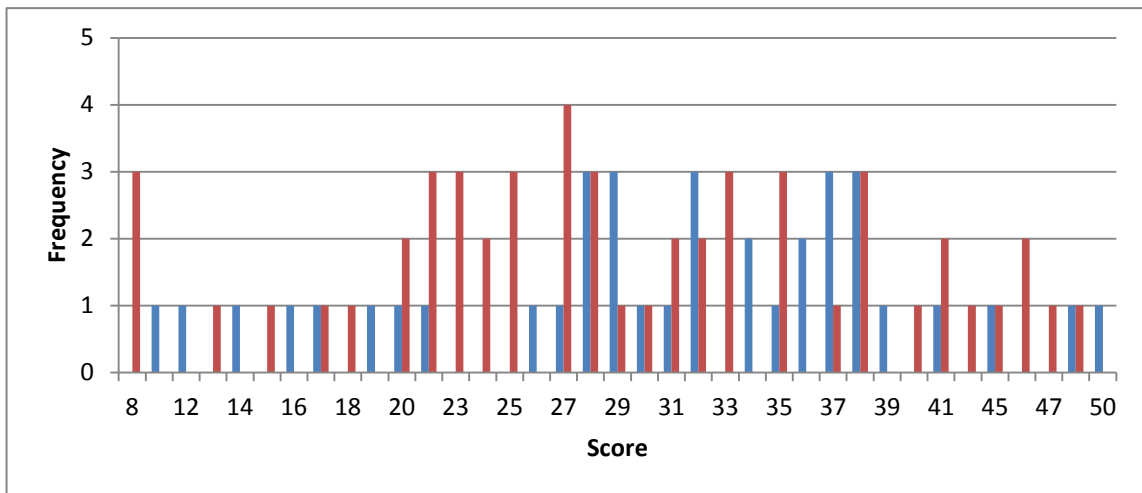


## 5.4 Hypothesis 2 Results

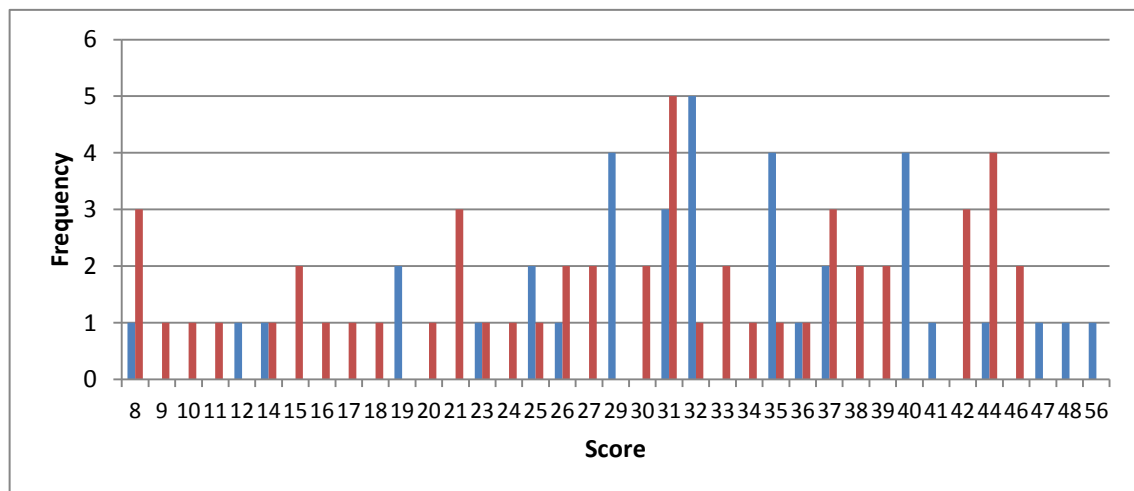
### 5.4.1 Cumulative Frequency Distribution

The frequency distribution of the measures relating to Hypothesis 2 can be seen in Figure 8 and Figure 9. As expected from Section 5.4, the distributions for those participants with children and those without appear to be fairly normally distributed. For Figure 8, it appears that the participants with children (in red) scored slightly less in general than those without children (in blue). The data represented in Figure 9 is slightly more skewed than that represented in Figure 8. From visual inspection the difference between the two samples is negligible.

**Figure 8:** Frequency Distribution of *Consideration for Partner Scale* comparing participants with children (in red) against those without children (in blue).



**Figure 9:** Frequency distribution of *Consideration for Child Scale* comparing participants with children (in red) against those without children (in blue).



**5.4.2 Summary of Descriptive Statistics**

**Table 7:** Table representing the descriptive statistics of the samples under consideration for Hypothesis 2.

Variable	Participants with Children		Participants without Children	
	Consideration for Partner Scale	Consideration for Child Scale	Consideration for Partner Scale	Consideration for Child Scale
Mean	29.0385	28.5962	30.6486	32.0541
Standard Error	1.4011	1.5702	1.5655	1.6284
Median	28	31	32	32
Mode	27	31	29	32
Standard Deviation	10.1033	11.3228	9.5225	9.9050
Sample Variance	102.0769	128.2063	90.6787	98.1081
Kurtosis	-0.3566	-0.9631	-0.1784	0.6950
Skewness	-0.1027	-0.3036	-0.2968	-0.2461
Range	40	38	39	48
Minimum	8	8	11	8
Maximum	48	46	50	56
Sum	1510	1487	1134	1186
Count	52	52	37	37
Confidence Level (95.0%)	2.8128	3.1523	3.1750	3.3025
Coefficient of Variation	34.793%	39.595%	31.07%	30.9%

Table 7 illustrates the descriptive statistics for the results obtained for participants with and without children according to the *Consideration for Partner and Child Scales*. For the *Consideration for Partner Scale* for participants with children 68.3% of the data is between 18.9352 and 39.1418 but for those without children this range is between 21.1261 and 40.1711. The results indicate that the data is more dispersed about the mean for those with children than those without children.

### 5.4.3 Inferential Statistics for Hypothesis 2

#### 5.4.3.1 Comparison of participants with children to those without children according to Consideration for Partner Scale

Before the t-test could be conducted to test the hypothesis the population variances were checked to see if it was reasonable to assume equal population variances (Appendix B). There was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.358 > \alpha = 0.05$  so population variances were assumed to be equal. Then the following hypothesis was tested:

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} \leq 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} > 0$$

From the t-test in Table 14 (Appendix B),  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.225 > \alpha = 0.05$  which indicates that there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.

#### 5.4.3.2 Comparison of participants with children to those without children according to Consideration for Child Scale

As before, an F-test was used to confirm that the population variances could be assumed to be equal (Appendix B). There was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.2 > \alpha = 0.05$  (Appendix B -Table 15) so equal population variances was assumed. Then the following hypothesis was tested:

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} \leq 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} > 0$$

From the t-test in Appendix B - Table 16,  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.06934 < \alpha = 0.07$  which signifies that there is **sufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 7% level of significance. The probability that  $\mu_{\text{without children}} \leq \mu_{\text{with children}}$  is true is 6.934%. The probability that  $\mu_{\text{without children}} > \mu_{\text{with children}}$  is true is 93.066%. The implications of this result will be discussed in Chapter 6.

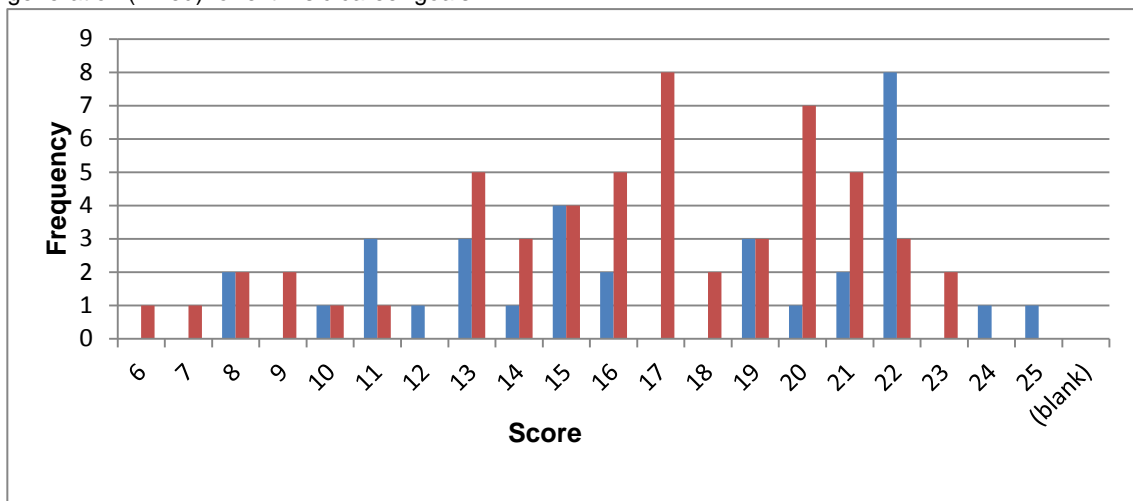
### 5.5 Hypothesis 3 Results

*Younger individuals (equal to or less than 30) will have higher levels of extrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

#### 5.5.1 Cumulative Frequency Distribution

Figure 10 illustrates the distribution for the populations being compared in hypothesis 3. The distribution for the older generation (in red) is more skewed than that of the younger generation (in blue). No clear differences between the two sample groups can be noticed in Figure 10, but more may be revealed in the descriptive statistics in Table 8.

**Figure 10:** Frequency distribution comparing the younger generations (in blue) score against the older generation (in red) for extrinsic career goals.



#### 5.5.2 Summary of Descriptive Statistics

**Table 8:** Table representing the descriptive statistics of the samples under consideration for Hypothesis 3.

Variables	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
Mean	17.21	16.57
Standard Error	0.8691	0.5992
Median	17.5	17
Mode	22	17
Standard Deviation	5.068	4.4837
Sample Variance	25.6836	20.1039
Kurtosis	-1.2195	-0.2460
Skewness	-0.1991	-0.4836
Range	17	19
Minimum	8	6
Maximum	25	25
Sum	585	928
Count	34	56
Confidence Level (95.0%)	1.77	1.201
Coefficient of Variation	29.449%	27.059%

Table 8 demonstrates that the younger generation had a higher mean (17.21) than the older generation (16.57). The 95% confidence interval indicates that the true mean of the younger generation's extrinsic career goals is between 15.44 and 18.98 whereas that of the older generation is between 15.369 and 17.771. The dispersion of data about the mean is similar for both generations as the difference in the Coefficient of Variation is negligible.

### 5.5.3 Inferential Statistics for Hypothesis 3

#### 5.5.3.1 Comparison of the younger generation (less than or equal to 30 years) to the older generation (older than 30 years) according to extrinsic career goals

Similar to previous tests, the population variances were tested to see if the assumption that they were equal was valid (Appendix B). The null hypothesis was that the population variances for each group were equal whereas the alternative was that the variances were not equal. It was found that there was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.207 > \alpha = 0.05$  (Table 17).

Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis was tested:

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

The results of Table 18 show that  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.29368 > \alpha = 0.05$ . This means that there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance. The meaning of this result will be discussed in Chapter 6.

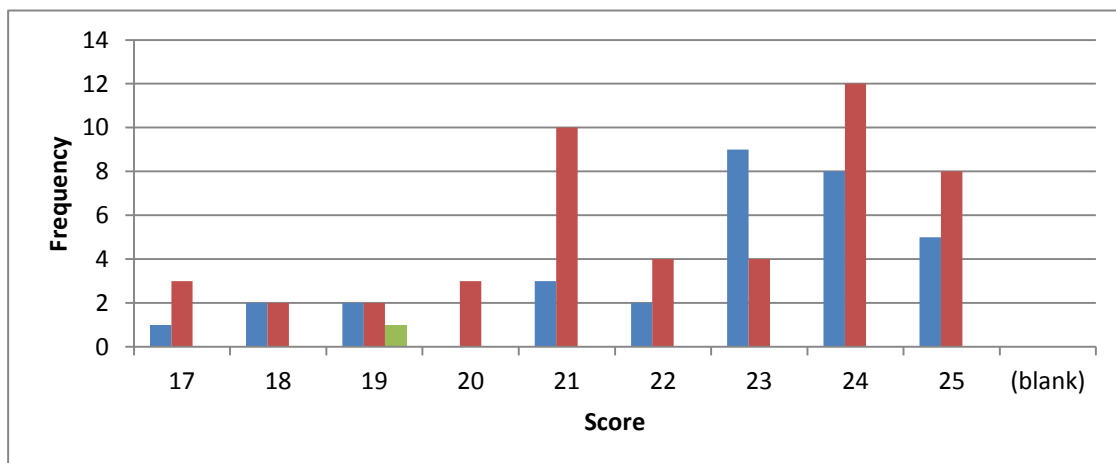
## 5.6 Hypothesis 4 Results

*Younger individuals (equal to or less than 30) will have lower levels of intrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

### 5.6.1 Cumulative Frequency Distribution

The following Figure 11 provides a numeric frequency distribution of the results obtained relative to hypothesis 4. As expected, these results are negatively skewed so a transformation of the data was used to reduce the skewness so that the normal distribution assumption would be valid in further calculations. Both sets of descriptive data are provided for in Table 9. From Figure 11 it can be observed that there is no clear difference between the responses of the younger and older generations for their intrinsic career goals. This observation is checked using inferential statistics in *Section 5.6.3.1*.

**Figure 11:** Frequency distribution comparing the younger generations (in blue) score against the older generation (in red) for intrinsic career goals. The green bar is for the participant who left their age blank.



From Table 9 it is observed that the mean for Intrinsic Career Goals is higher for the younger generation than the older generation in both the original and transformed data. For the original data the 95% confidence interval indicates that the true mean for the younger generation lies between 22.114 and 23.498 whereas for the older generation it is between 20.365 and 22.17. For the transformed data the 95% confidence interval for the younger generation is between 5.7 million and 7.4 million whereas for the older generation it is between 4.4 million and 6.1 million. This demonstrates that the majority of the 95% confidence interval for the younger generation is larger than the interval for the older generation. The data for the older generation is more dispersed about the mean than the data for the younger generation because the Coefficient of Variation is higher.

**5.6.2 Summary of Descriptive Statistics**

**Table 9:** Table representing the descriptive statistics of the samples under consideration for Hypothesis 4.

Variables	Younger Generation		Older Generation	
	Intrinsic Career Goals (Original Data)	Intrinsic Career Goals (Transformation)	Intrinsic Career Goals (Original Data)	Intrinsic Career Goals (Transformation)
Mean	22.806	6550243	21.268	5243790
Standard Error	0.339	409640	0.450	414404
Median	23	6436343	22	5153632
Mode	23	6436343	24	7962624
Standard Deviation	1.8871	2280779.5	3.3710	3073299.7
Sample Variance	3.5613	5.20196E+12	11.3633	9.44517E+12
Kurtosis	0.4650	-0.5656	-0.4215	-1.2985
Skewness	<b>-1.0378</b>	<b>-0.4078</b>	<b>-0.8045</b>	<b>0.0025</b>
Range	7	7876057	11	9227801
Minimum	18	1889568	14	537824
Maximum	25	9765625	25	9765625
Sum	707	203057537	1191	288408476
Count	31	31	56	55
Confidence Level (95.0%)	0.6922	836596.6875	0.9027	830829.2813
Coefficient of Variation	8.2745%	34.819%	15.85%	58.6%

**5.6.3 Inferential Statistics for Hypothesis 4**

**5.6.3.1 Comparison of the younger generation (less than or equal to 30 years) to the older generation (older than 30 years) according to intrinsic career goals**

From Appendix B - Table 20, the transformed data has a  $P(T \leq t)_{one - tail} = 0.01389 < \alpha = 0.05$  and the original data has a  $P(T \leq t)_{one - tail} = 0.0028496 < \alpha = 0.05$ . Both results mean that there is **significant evidence** to reject the null hypothesis with a significance level of 5%. If the result of the transformed data is taken, as it is more conservative, then the probability that  $\mu_{younger\ generation} > \mu_{older\ generation}$  is true is 98.611%. The probability that  $\mu_{younger\ generation} \leq \mu_{older\ generation}$  is true is only 1.389%.

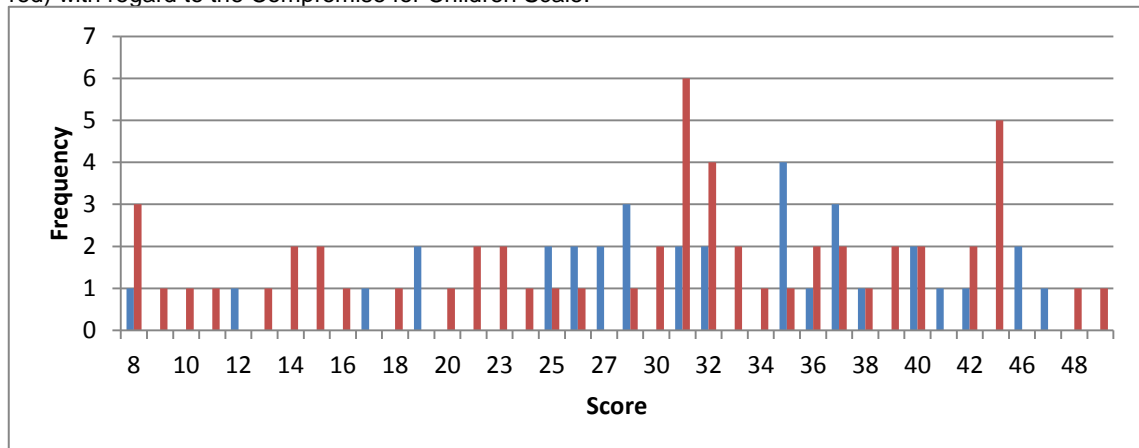
## 5.7 Hypothesis 5 Results

*Younger individuals (30 years old and less) will be less willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

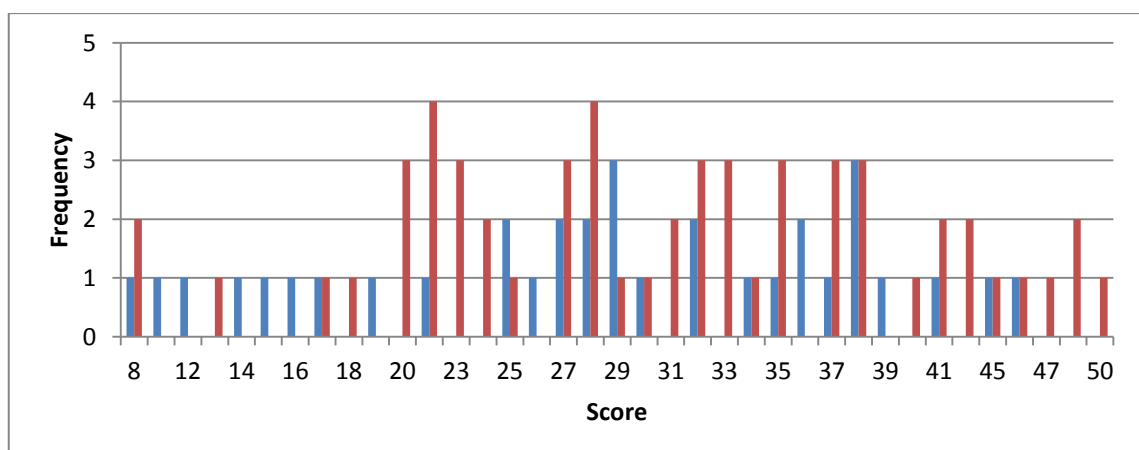
### 5.7.1 Cumulative Frequency Distribution

Figure 12 provides a visual understanding of the attitudes that the generations had with regard to compromising their careers for their child. As expected from Table 2 the distributions for the younger generation is more negatively skewed than that of the older generation. On a positive note the frequency distribution appears to be fairly normally distributed as would be expected with the low skewness coefficients in Table 10. From the frequency distribution no clear distinction can be established between the younger and older generations. Similar observations can be made with regard to Figure 13 as the data is fairly normally distributed and no clear distinctions between the means can be seen.

**Figure 12:** A cumulative frequency distribution chart demonstrating the responses of the Younger Generation (equal to or less than 30 years) (in blue) with the Older Generation (greater than 30 years) (in red) with regard to the Compromise for Children Scale.



**Figure 13:** A cumulative frequency distribution chart demonstrating the responses of the Younger Generation (equal to or less than 30 years) (in blue) with the Older Generation (greater than 30 years) (in red) with regard to the Compromise for Partner Scale.





The 95% confidence interval for the *Compromise for Child Scale* is between 29.2 and 35.2 for the younger generation and 26.0 and 32.3 for the older generation. For the *Compromise for Partner Scale* the confidence interval is between 24.9 and 31.8 for the younger generation and 27.9 and 33.2 for the older generation. Neither of these confidence intervals clearly indicates that there could be a statistically significant difference between the generations.

### 5.7.2 Summary of Descriptive Statistics

**Table 10:** Table representing the descriptive statistics of the samples under consideration for Hypothesis 5.

Variables	The Younger Generation		The Older Generation	
	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
Mean	28.3235	32.2121	30.5893	29.1071
Standard Error	1.7049	1.4757	1.3218	1.5691
Median	29	32	31	31
Mode	29	35	21	31
Standard Deviation	9.9414	8.4770	9.8917	11.7422
Sample Variance	98.8316	71.8598	97.8464	137.8792
Kurtosis	-0.6451	-0.1103	-0.3302	-0.6806
Skewness	-0.3142	-0.3443	-0.0974	-0.2054
Range	38	35	42	48
Minimum	8	12	8	8
Maximum	46	47	50	56
Sum	963	1063	1713	1630
Count	34	33	56	56
Confidence Level (95.0%)	3.4687	3.0058	2.6490	3.1446

### 5.7.3 Inferential Statistics for Hypothesis 5

#### 5.7.3.1 Comparison of the younger generation to the older generation according to the Consideration for Partner Scale

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{males}^2 = \sigma_{females}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{males}^2 \neq \sigma_{females}^2$$

Then the F-test was calculated in excel as seen in *Appendix B - Table 21* with an alpha of 0.05. There was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.47686 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis was tested:

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

The results of the test are displayed in *Appendix B - Table 22*. The results of Table 22 show that  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.1479 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.

### 5.7.3.2 Comparison of the younger generation to the older generation according to the Consideration for Child Scale

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{\text{males}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{females}}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{\text{males}}^2 \neq \sigma_{\text{females}}^2$$

Then the F-test was calculated in excel as seen in *Appendix B - Table 23* with an alpha of 0.05. There was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.025 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis was tested:

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

The results of the test are displayed in *Appendix B - Table 24*. The results of Table 22 show that  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.0766 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance. However, there is **sufficient evident** to reject the null hypothesis at an 8% level of significance. The significance of this result will be discussed in the following *Chapter 6*.

## Chapter 6: Discussion of Results

### 6.1 Hypothesis 1

**Proposition 1:** *Females will be more willing to compromise their career aspirations for their family than males.*

Proposition 1 was further broken down into two relevant hypothesis tests. It was dissected into the willingness to compromise for an individual's current and/or future partner and with their current and/or future children. These translated into the following hypothesis for the measurement of the gender groups according to the *Compromise for Partner Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013):

$$H_{0,a}: \mu_{females} \geq \mu_{males}$$

$$H_{1,a}: \mu_{females} < \mu_{males}$$

Where  $\mu$  is the population mean for the *Compromise for Partner Scale*. The following test was then conducted which compared genders according to the *Compromise for Child Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013):

$$H_{0,b}: \mu_{females} \geq \mu_{males}$$

$$H_{1,b}: \mu_{females} < \mu_{males}$$

Where  $\mu$  is the population mean for the *Compromise for Children Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). From the results in Chapter 5 it was found that there was strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis of  $H_{0,a}$  with a 5% level of significance. However, this result would have been obtained with even a level of significance as low as 1%. In other words, the probability that  $\mu_{females} < \mu_{males}$  is true is 99.9888%. This unexpected result is in opposition to the initial hypothesis which suggested that, on average, the female population would be more willing to compromise their career goals for their partners than the male population. The results confirm Lent & Brown (2013) view that gender, as a person input, influences an individual's goals and actions (Figure 2) because the results of the female population are statistically significantly different from those obtained for the male population. It also confirms Rodrigues et al. (2013) view that social contexts and family impacts the career preferences of people.

As this is an unexpected result, possible issues with the method and sample will have to be discussed. Firstly, the topic of family life is considered to be sensitive (Cooper & Schindler, 2014) so the participants with children may have been unwilling to provide honest responses (Uriell & Dudley, 2009). This study did take measures, such as

ensuring confidentiality and anonymity, so that the participants would disclose additional sensitive information concerning their family life. However, these measures do not absolutely ensure that the data collected would be free of errors (Uriell & Dudley, 2009). Uriell & Dudley (2009) argue that the greatest source of error for a sensitive research report is deliberate misreporting from participants. Secondly, there might be potential errors as the internet was used as the medium to transfer the responses from the participant to the database. Gritzalis (2004) argues that the greatest cause of concern for internet users is that privacy and anonymity can potentially be compromised. This suspicion is worsened by the practices of search engines and internet service providers who are able to give out intimate details of users (Uriell & Dudley, 2009). Uriell & Dudley (2009) found that people do perceive internet surveys as being less private and confidential than paper based surveys. Thirdly, the collected sample may have been affected by Survivorship bias which is a concept that will be explained later in this section (Rohleder, Scholz, & Wilkens, 2010). Fourthly, although the sample from *Stefanutti Stocks* was heterogeneous in terms of qualifications and experience, the participants may not have been heterogeneous in terms of industry. Initially, the part time MBA group at the Gordon Institute of Business Science was considered to be sampled, which would have been more heterogeneous, but access to send questionnaires to this group was not granted. Lastly, a limitation of the chosen research instrument, the questionnaire, is that it only collected data that represents the espoused values of the participants rather their actual behaviour. These above limitations are not only applicable to *Hypothesis 1* but also the other Hypotheses.

The finding of *Hypothesis 1* does support Buonocore & Russo (2013) in their argument that work-life balance is not only a feminine problem. Allard, Haas, & Hwang (2011) also agree with these findings in that they argue that there are differences between males and females with regards to work and family. Clearly men are considering their partners when making career decisions and what is remarkable is that the extent of this concept for compromise is more than what female's exhibited. This outcome is still in agreement with Schein (1996) work where he describes some individuals as having a dominant lifestyle anchor. Perhaps males, on average, exhibit more of the lifestyle anchor than females as they share the attitude that they would prefer their careers to be complimentary to their family responsibilities (Schein, 1996). Although the results indicate that males are more willing to compromise their career for their partner than females this does not necessarily mean that females have a low willingness to compromise.

Recall from *Section 5.3.2* that there was a 95% confidence interval that the true population mean for the *Compromise for Partner Scale* for females was  $23.23 < \mu_{females} < 29.19$  and that for males it was  $31.25 < \mu_{males} < 36.33$ . If one transforms these intervals into intervals which are along the answer axis for the 7 level likert scale of the questionnaire (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Slightly Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree) then the intervals become the following for females  $2.904 < \mu_{females} < 3.649$  and then for males  $3.906 < \mu_{males} < 4.541$ . This interval suggests that females do slightly disagree with the idea of compromising their careers for their partners whereas males, for the majority of the interval, slightly agree with the concept of compromising their careers for their partners. If the same transformation is done for the *Compromise for Child Scale* then the interval is  $3.311 < \mu_{females} < 4.14$  for females and  $3.358 < \mu_{males} < 4.188$  for males. These intervals indicate that on average, the population is in very slight disagreement to unsure about compromising their careers for their children.

The findings of this study disagree with the results of Domene et al. (2012) as they observed that the majority of participants in their study prioritised their partner's career aspirations as high as their own. Domene et al. (2012) found that the majority of participants, both males and females, in their study had already taken their partners career plans over their own as they wished to be supportive of their partner's career ambitions. However, a limitation of their study was that the interviewee's were all Canadian and thus only representative of the Canadian population. Blustein (2011) argues that culture influences the interaction between relationships and the work domain. In fact culture is partly derived from the relationships that people have with their communities and family members (Blustein, 2011). Blustein (2011) argument would also then serve to explain why Pixley (2008) study is also different to the findings of this study. Pixley (2008) found that none of the interviewed couples made career decisions that regularly benefitted the career of the wife. Therefore, the results of this study are representative of the South African context. In comparison to other South African studies, the results slightly disagree with the findings of Bagraim & Harrison (2013) who argue that there is no difference in attitudes towards anticipated work family conflict between males and females. However, the sample for their study consisted of undergraduate business students from the University of Cape Town (the age of the participants ranged from 17 to 27) so it would be less representative of the population in this study.

It would appear that the results do not agree with the observation that there is a trend that females are leaving opportunities for career advancement in pursuit of private reasons (Powell & Butterfield, 2013; Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). However, one has to bear in mind that the collected sample may have been affected by survivorship bias (Rohleder et al., 2010). Survivorship bias arises when the sample under study does not take into account those participants which have already left their careers for personal reasons. Survivorship bias is often encountered in mutual fund reports where fund performance is over rated because only surviving funds have been considered (Rohleder et al., 2010). It can be argued then that those females who have already left their work for personal reasons would have scored higher on the *Compromise for Partner and Child Scales* which would have raised the average population score. These females who have left their careers for personal reasons may have been concerned that they would be unable to satisfy both their family domain and work domain (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012) because of the demands of the career (Powell & Butterfield, 2013). For the male sample, their honesty may have been affected by "Pleaser Syndrome" (Cooper & Schindler, 2014 p. 300). This bias negatively affects respondent data because the participants provide answers that they believe are socially acceptable instead of answers that represent their true values (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). However, surely this bias would have influenced the responses of the females in a similar fashion because of the traditionally held view that females are the homemakers of the household (Montgomery, Hosegood, Busza, & Timaeus, 2006).

That being said, the fact remains that those females who did participate in the study, on average, slightly disagreed with the concept of compromising their careers for their partners. This argument is in alignment with Lent & Brown (2013) Social Cognitive Career Theory (Figure 2) in that those females have already made the decision to pursue their own career goals without compromise to their partners demands. Their actions reflect these goals as they still hold a position at their place of work or are completing an MBA programme for career advancement. The results for females is also representative of the sentiment within the labour market in that, perhaps, females believe that they have to choose between having a successful family or work domain. In the United Kingdom, according to Durbin & Tomlinson (2014), females who start families are choosing to rather pursue part time work, which is seen to be less desirable in terms of benefits and pay, so that they can meet the needs of their children at home. To substantiate this observation Allard et al. (2011) also proclaim that senior managers are still viewing family and work domains as being separate. Chiloane-Tsoka (2010) agrees with the above and calls for South African managers to allow their

female employees flexible work hours so that they are not forced to choose between their careers or family. Southworth (2014) suggests that, in the United States of America, this is another form of barrier for females in the corporate world. Professional females are removing themselves from family responsibilities in order to excel in the workplace and “prove their masculinity” (Southworth, 2014 p.98). Billing (2011) study confirms this argument as the female managers felt that they had to develop masculine characteristics of management in order to be effective. The domain that has not been prioritised has to compromise in order to align itself with the priorities of the individual. This concept would explain why females are removing themselves from positions which would have led them to be fast tracked into senior executive management positions (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). Social Cognitive Career Theory (Figure 2) would also be supportive of this finding because the perceived contextual barriers of family demands that outweigh available time and energy would influence the self-efficacy, goals, actions and eventual outcome (opting out of the career) for the individual. Hewlett (2002) found that of the women in higher managerial positions 80% of them sought after a family yet only 45% of them were married. It would also explain the low number of female participants surveyed from the full time MBA programme that have children (14.29%) and are married (50%).

Schein (1996) discovered, in America, that as the number of dual incomes earners increased so the number of executives who thought of themselves as having a dominant lifestyle anchor also increased. As it is known that men who are able to balance their working careers with family obligations achieve higher levels of performance and work satisfaction (Evans et al., 2013), then perhaps the most appropriate means to allow men to reach such a balance is for businesses to provide them with the flexibility to alter their remuneration packages and work hours according to their marital responsibilities. Research done by Drew & Murtagh (2005) showed that of their high performing female participants, 41% believed that if they made use of the flexible work life balance policies within their organisation they would hinder their chances of promotion. Similarly, Allard et al. (2011) contend that co-workers are also generally unsupportive towards fathers who take leave for parental duties. If organisations took an alterior route of encouraging greater fit between work and life for its employees by enforcing their work-life balance policies rather than offering it as an option then they may be able to enhance retention of both sexes. Another recommendation would be to promote work-life balance policies that are the same for both sexes. Both Kmec (2011) and Southworth (2014) agree with this recommendation as it will reduce gender stigmas in the workplace.

Atkinson & Hall (2011) define flexibility as not being “about employers’ demands for flexibility in scheduling work but rather about providing the employee with control over working time (either in duration, timing or location of work)” (p.89). Atkinson & Hall (2011) argue that organisations that endorse flexibility in the workplace promote happier employees which has been shown to be correlated with higher levels of work performance outcomes and retention. From Maslow (1943) hierarchy of needs it is understood that the need for love is a goal which will consume the consciousness of an individual until it is satisfied. Only then will the individual move towards satisfying esteem needs or self-actualisation. The need for love can only be satisfied if an individual can be both a giver and receiver of love (Maslow, 1943). This research points out that possibly the reason why these employees, in the Atkinson & Hall (2011) study, found happiness was that the flexibility that the organisations allowed them to have more energy and time for their partners. They may have been able to avoid work life conflict as this opportunity in the work domain may yield a positive outcome in the family domain (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). This flexibility can allow them the opportunity to provide and receive love at the most appropriate times, thus fulfilling their need for love (Maslow, 1943).

According to Spinks & Tombari (2002) the Royal Bank Financial Group (RFBG) once decided to implement flexible work life balance policies in order to attempt to improve the company. Their policies included sabbaticals, opportunities for job sharing and work schedules with a degree of flexibility (Spinks & Tombari, 2002). From the outside these policies do not seem to be out of the ordinary for a company, however they offered these policies without the possibility of career inertia. The Royal Bank Financial Group then discovered that after these policies had been implemented the energy levels of the employees had significantly increased whilst their stress levels had decreased (Spinks & Tombari, 2002). The employee absenteeism days also improved by 50% and job performance was measured to have either improved or stayed at the same level (Spinks & Tombari, 2002).

Schein (1996) predicted that golden handcuffs in the future would no longer be an effective means of securing employees who are valuable assets of the firm. This research points out that South African males, on average, agree with the concept of selecting a career that enables them the energy and time for their partner. Now, although this may only be a forethought it is understood that human agency can influence an individual to act so that their expected outcomes are realised (Bandura, 2006). From this agentic perspective, individuals are self-reactive to their environment and are able to adjust their path by following an appropriate course of action (Bandura,



2006). Individuals influence the circumstances that they find themselves in as they are not simply spectators of their own behaviour (Bandura, 2006). So even though the concept of compromising one's career for their partner is only a forethought, it may trigger the action of leaving a current company or accepting a promotion in pursuit of a career which satisfies the expected outcome of having more time and energy for a partner.

In human resource management literature, Pichler, Varma, Yu, Beenen, & Davoudpour (2014) recommends that businesses practice high-performance work systems (HPWS) as it is a predictor of employee motivation and active commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2010), turnover (Atkinson & Hall, 2011) and job satisfaction (García-Chas, Neira-Fontela, & Castro-Casal, 2014). High-performance work systems includes encouragement of team co-operation during work, remuneration packages that are competitive, employee involvement practices and, more relevant to this study, programmes that emphasise work-life balance (Pichler et al., 2014). However, the effectiveness of these practices can be moderated by variables such as gender and these preferences can alter from country to country (Pichler et al., 2014). For example, research performed in China found that males were more motivated and committed to their businesses than females when high performance work systems were practiced (Qiao, Khilji, & Wang, 2009).

Qiao et al. (2009) explains that this difference is due to the traditional gender roles within China. Even though Chinese females have taken on similar roles within organisations as their males counterparts, they have still been expected to take on the responsibility of taking care of the family at home (Qiao et al., 2009). As a result, Chinese females within the workforce have less mobility and thus lesser expectations of the businesses that they work for than Chinese males (Qiao et al., 2009). Therefore, Chinese males were more affected by the positive high performance human resource programs than Chinese females. The relevance of these findings is that South African females have had similar traditional role expectations of being the homemaker of the household (Montgomery et al., 2006). South African females may also have lesser expectations of the businesses that they work for than South African males, hence the result of *Hypothesis 1*. This is disconcerting for females following professional careers (Southworth, 2014). From an industry point of view, job mobility increases labour productivity of a firm and knowledge diffusion within an industry as new employees bring with them external knowledge (Vilalta-Bufi, 2010). A decrease in job mobility in the South African labour market due to the homemaker role of females, as in the case of (Qiao et al., 2009), would mean a decrease in potential labour productivity too. The

results in this study also agree with Southworth (2014) view that the stigma of breadwinner for males is causing them anguish yet the role of homemaker for females is still socially acceptable. The fact that males were slightly accepting of the idea for compromising for their partner is symbolic of their discontent with being viewed purely as the breadwinner of the household.

From the males perspective, perhaps the concept of compromising their career for the demands at home could reflect a change of social norms. The traditional role of South African males being the breadwinners of the household (Montgomery et al., 2006) would have meant that it was socially acceptable to be unavailable at home because of duties at work. However, as there are now more dual income earners in the workforce but, presumably, the family responsibilities are similar then the division of labour at home may be far more equal than encountered in the past (Fitzsimmons et al., 2014). Sayer, Bianchi, & Robinson (2004) argue in their study that married men in modern times, in America, are allocating significantly more time to childcare activities than in the past. This observation is also supported by Billing (2011) who argues that, in the Nordic countries, men are expected to allocate more time to childcare responsibilities than in the past. However, the study by Allard et al. (2011) is in disagreement with the above as they proclaim that the breadwinner role expectation of males is still affecting them as they are more available for their organisation than at home. Even though men, in Sweden, may wish to exert more time and energy towards their children many organisations still hinder them from this process (Allard et al., 2011). People make career and work decisions after taking into account their dominant social identity (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Lent & Brown (2013) also argue that social norms affect the career goals of individuals as they tend to elect goals that are socially and culturally normative. Therefore, from the above, it can be concluded that males have, on average, accepted the concept of compromising their career goals for their partners needs as social norms have changed.

Men may have the perception that their dominant social identity is being a spouse over an employee but this would have to be confirmed through further research. This research also presents an opportunity for South African businesses. By having an understanding of the espoused values of its male workforce, businesses can reposition their own values so that they may be better aligned with their employees. According to Khandelwal & Mohendra (2010) when employees share similar values to the organisation that they work they will feel greater levels of commitment and loyalty. This in turn will reduce the probability that employees will want to leave their organisations (Khandelwal & Mohendra, 2010). According to Kopelman, Feldman, McDaniel, & Hall,

(2012) having a career that is complimentary to the individual's life outside of the career is a strong enabler for the individual to achieve a love for that career. An individual can only have love for their career if it enables all domains to have at least the perception of fulfilment (Kopelman et al., 2012). Kopelman et al. (2012) also argue that loving ones career goes beyond mere job satisfaction, which can be created through elements such as pay, benefits, and relationships with co-workers or supervisors, and can result in considerable lifelong rewards. As men may be looking to sacrifice some work time for their partners then working females might be given more of an opportunity to gain social capital which is critical for career progression (Seibert et al., 2001).

## 6.2 Hypothesis 2

**Proposition 2:** *Individuals with children will be more willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who do not have children*

Proposition 2 was further broken down into two relevant hypothesis tests. It was dissected into the willingness to compromise for an individual's current and/or future partner and with their current and/or future children. These translated into the following hypothesis for the measurement of the gender groups according to the *Compromise for Partner Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013):

$$H_{0,c}: \mu_{with\ children} \geq \mu_{without\ children}$$

$$H_{1,c}: \mu_{with\ children} < \mu_{without\ children}$$

Where  $\mu$  is the population mean for the *Compromise for Partner Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). The following test was then conducted which compared those with children to those without according to the *Compromise for Child Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013):

$$H_{0,d}: \mu_{with\ children} \geq \mu_{without\ children}$$

$$H_{1,d}: \mu_{with\ children} < \mu_{without\ children}$$

Where  $\mu$  is the population mean for the *Compromise for Child Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). From the results in Chapter 5 it was found that there was **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_{0,c}$ ) at a 5% level of significance. However, according to the *Compromise for Child Scale* there was **ample evidence** to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_{0,d}$ ) at a 7% level of significance. It was found that the probability that  $\mu_{without\ children} > \mu_{with\ children}$  is true is 93.066%. On average, the population without children was more willing to compromise their career goals for their children than the

population who already had children. As this is an unexpected result, the limitations described in *Section 6.1* of the research method and sample still apply. It is possible that those participants without children may have been negatively affected by socially desirability bias which would have caused a higher result for their group (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). At the same time those participants with children may have given more realistic instead of stereotypical responses.

Lent & Brown (2013) Social Cognitive Career Theory could be drawn upon to explain this unexpected result. Individuals will pursue careers that satisfy their outcome expectations and goals (both intrinsic and extrinsic goals) as long as they have the competencies to excel in that career (self-efficacy) (Lent & Brown, 2013). However, Westring & Ryan (2011) propose that individuals have certain reservations concerning their future work and family roles. Individuals have anticipated work-family conflict (AWFC) when they believe that their future work roles may interfere with their future family role (Westring & Ryan, 2011). This concept of anticipated work-family conflict is an outcome expectation (Westring & Ryan, 2011). The population that does not have children may believe that by having children, in the future, their work roles will interfere with their responsibilities as a parent and, therefore, they may have to be willing to compromise work obligations for their children. Evidence of this perception can be seen in the United Kingdom whereby many females leave their full time employment for part time work when they start families (Durbin & Tomlinson, 2014).

However, Westring & Ryan (2011) found no conclusive evidence to support their hypothesis that participants planning to have children would have higher levels of anticipated family interference with work. One could question their sample as it consisted of medical students only who were not aware of the interference that the high demands of a medical career would have on their family roles (Westring & Ryan, 2011). The sample in this study is for an older working generation who perhaps are more aware of future family demands. It is important to determine why these outcome expectations for the two population groups in this study are so different. From Mohd, Salleh, & Mustapha (2010) it is understood that perceived boundaries, such as the perceived demand of family responsibilities when having children, is influencing the career decision making of individuals. In terms of perceived parenting responsibilities, Wall (2013) found that children in the 21<sup>st</sup> century are considered to require greater levels of supervision, direction and devotion than those in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. During the 1980's, according to Wall (2013), the general perception was that children were more resilient and were given greater independence in order to "learn that their needs do not always come first" (p. 165). Also Sayer et al. (2004) argue that because of urbanisation

and the amplified concerns over child abuse and crime, parents of modern times are ever more anxious over the safety of their children. Such perceived boundaries could prevent people from following certain career paths ,such as accepting a promotion (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013), as they may believe it is unsuitable for their future family roles (Mohd et al., 2010).

This begs the question of where individuals learn of the demands of rearing a child. Social learning theory could be used to answer this question (Bandura, 1977). According to Bandura (1977) “all learning phenomena resulting from direct experiences can occur on a vicarious basis through observation of other people’s behaviour and its consequences for them” (p.2). The emotional responses of people can also be derived after witnessing the reactions of others in a similar situation (Bandura, 1977). Similar to the study of Basuil & Casper (2012) the participants without children would have likely learnt about the demands of children from observing the experiences of their parents. Their outcome expectations related to managing family and work roles would likely be learnt from the memories of their parents dealing with the issue (Basuil & Casper, 2012).

Now, given that the traditional roles of the household were that mothers were the “homemakers” and fathers the “breadwinners” (Eagly & Wood, 1999), it would be reasonable to assume then that those participants without children would have expectations that rearing children would involve some form of compromise whether it be compromising the career for family in order to be a homemaker or compromising on family roles for career obligations to fulfil the role of the breadwinner. Both Lent (2013) and Bandura (1977) emphasize that individuals base their actions on anticipated outcomes or consequences. Bandura (1977) argues that man has anticipatory capacity that is as a result of reinforcing consequences. These reinforcing consequences tend to enlighten the individual of the actions they must perform to avoid negative outcomes or obtain beneficial rewards (Bandura, 1977). Basuil & Casper (2012) also argue that those individuals who witnessed their parents struggling with work-life conflicts may be more actively involved in preparing for it by acquiring knowledge on the subject and planning ahead in order to prevent themselves from experiencing the same conflict. Schueller-weidekamm & Kautzky-willer (2012) argue that young women, who do not have children, will dwell on the concept of having a family which distracts them from developing a career. The above then serves as an explanation for the result of the population of individuals without children scoring high, on average, on their *Compromise for Child Scale* results. However, it does not explain why those

participants who had children exhibited a lower willingness to compromise for their child.

If the mean result of the sample interval for those participants with children is transformed to the likert scale (similar to the calculation performed in Section 6.1), the result is  $3.180 > \mu_{with\ children} > 3.968$ . This 95% confidence interval is within the region of slightly disagree with the concept of compromising ones career goals for their children. From face value it would appear that the results for the population with children appear fairly cold and heartless. However, the difference in the result could be symbolic of the participant's self-efficacy beliefs concerned with successfully balancing work-family demands. Bandura (2012) argues that people develop self-efficacy beliefs in a subject by having "mastery experiences" (p. 13). Mastery experiences include overcoming hurdles in that domain by being persistent and resilient (Bandura, 2012). Lent & Brown (2013) (Figure 2) also demonstrate that self-efficacy beliefs influence the outcome expectations and career goals that people set themselves. Participants with children may have had mastery experiences which has improved their self-efficacy beliefs for successfully raising children and maintaining their career goals. The contextual barrier of having to choose to be either the breadwinner or homemaker may have disappeared as these participants are confident that they can perform both roles satisfactorily. Therefore, these participants would, on average, disagree with the concept of compromising their careers for their children because they have the self-efficacy belief that they don't need to compromise for their children in order to avoid conflict in either domain.

The result of this study also aligns with the research done by Biemann, Zacher, & Feldman (2012). Biemann et al. (2012) found that people with children were more likely to pursue stable careers than those people without children. Also their study reports that demographic variables such as gender and number of children and the coinciding family responsibilities are highly influential on the career paths of individuals (Biemann et al., 2012). From this study, it can be observed that work and family are not completely separate domains and the responsibilities of both domains affect the demographic variables differently.

From Kmec (2011), both mothers and fathers were reported to have greater work levels than those who were not parents. There result can also align with the results of this study in that, perhaps, those with children are less willing to compromise their career as they are aware that they have to provide for their children. To support this suggestion, Kmec (2011) also found that females with children had greater levels of

work intensity than those without children. There was also no significant difference in work behaviour between mothers and fathers in their study (Kmec, 2011). Another study by Crittenden (2004) had sixty professional mothers who testified that becoming a mother made them better senior managers. A qualitative study by Kilzer & Pedersen (2011) provides some insight into the thoughts of parents regarding this topic of compromising their careers for their children. The study reveals that the sentiment for both parents was similar in that they both regretted the missed child care time, however in the end this time was generally allocated to the children after other work commitments were satisfied (Kilzer & Pedersen, 2011). Although Roxburgh (2011) discovered that when parents worry about missing precious time with their children that they are prone to increased levels of depression.

Offer (2014) approaches the topic of childcare at home differently in that the psychological wellbeing of the parents is taken into account in the research rather than that of the children. The development of children through interacting with their parents has already received so much attention (Musick & Meier, 2012). Offer (2014) found that even if parents simply take part in passive childcare time with their children they will derive pleasure and fulfilment simply by being in presence of the child. However, taking care of one's child is not always stress free as partaking in developmental activities were found to be vital yet burdening on parents (Daly, 2001) and family events can also be disrupted due to sibling arguments (Shaw, 2008).

Therefore, it is advised that parents at least take the time to passively participate with their children, such as leisure activities and shared meals, in order to prevent increased levels of depression (Roxburgh, 2011), achieve fulfilment of work-life balance (Offer, 2014) which will enable them to find love for their career and achieve lifelong benefits (Kopelman et al., 2012). By accepting this recommendation those people with children will actually be enhancing their performance in their careers (Crittenden, 2004).

### 6.3 Hypothesis 3

**Proposition 3:** *Younger individuals (equal to or less than 30) will have higher levels of extrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

This proposition translated into the following hypothesis test which compared the population means of the proposed younger generation ( $\mu_{\text{younger generation}}$ ) with that of an older generation ( $\mu_{\text{older generation}}$ ) on the basis of extrinsic career goals (Seibert et al., 2013)

$H_{0,e}$ :  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

$H_{1,e}$ :  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

From the results in Chapter 5 it was found that there was **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_{0,e}$ ) at a 5% level of significance. This result indicates that there is an insufficient difference, given the population variances, in the mean scores between the younger population and older population to reject the null hypothesis. Two variables are responsible for not producing a significant result. Firstly, in comparison to the significant result with the intrinsic career goals (see *Hypothesis 4*) the difference in means is only 0.64 in comparison to 1.538. Secondly, the population standard deviations are significantly higher for the extrinsic career goals hypothesis (4.5 to 5 points) in comparison to the intrinsic career goals (1.9 to 3.4 points). As a result the standard errors are lower for the intrinsic career goals comparison (0.34 to 0.45) than the extrinsic career goals measure (0.6 to 0.87). Therefore, the intrinsic career goals measure was more precise than that of the extrinsic career goals measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

Another limitation of the research method is that it relies on the honesty of the participants for data. The questions relating to the career goals were situated at the end of the questionnaire. It is possible that the motivation for the participants to provide meaningful and truthful answers for *Hypothesis 3* and *Hypothesis 4* would have been minimal because of the expended energy used for previous questions. Also participants may have provided incorrect answers for their age because of ego reasons (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Thus older individuals may have been erroneously allocated to the results of the younger generation and *vice versa*. Such errors in data collection can minimise the differences between the age groups and yield an insignificant result. It would have influenced the results of *Hypothesis 3*, *Hypothesis 4* and *Hypothesis 5*. Nevertheless, some observations can still be made with the data on hand.



From Table 8 the 95% confidence intervals for the younger generation is  $15.44 \leq \mu_{younger\ generation} \leq 18.98$  and for the older generation  $15.309 \leq \mu_{older\ generation} \leq 17.711$ . If one transforms the 95% interval result to that of the questionnaire (1 = Not important at all, 2 = Slightly important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, 5 = Extremely important) the following interval is calculated for the younger generation  $3.088 \leq \mu_{younger\ generation} \leq 3.796$  and for the older generation  $3.062 \leq \mu_{older\ generation} \leq 3.542$ . It can be observed that for both the younger generation and the older generation extrinsic career goals are important when considering a career.

de Lange, Van Yperen, Van der Heijden, & Bal (2010) argue that an individual's motivation will alter from extrinsically driven goals towards more intrinsically related goals. However, from the results of this study no such crossover can be noticed (see Figure 14). Both intrinsic and extrinsic career goals show a small decrease over time as seen in the negative gradient trendlines. The steady decrease in extrinsic career goals is in agreement with the findings of Kooij et al. (2011).

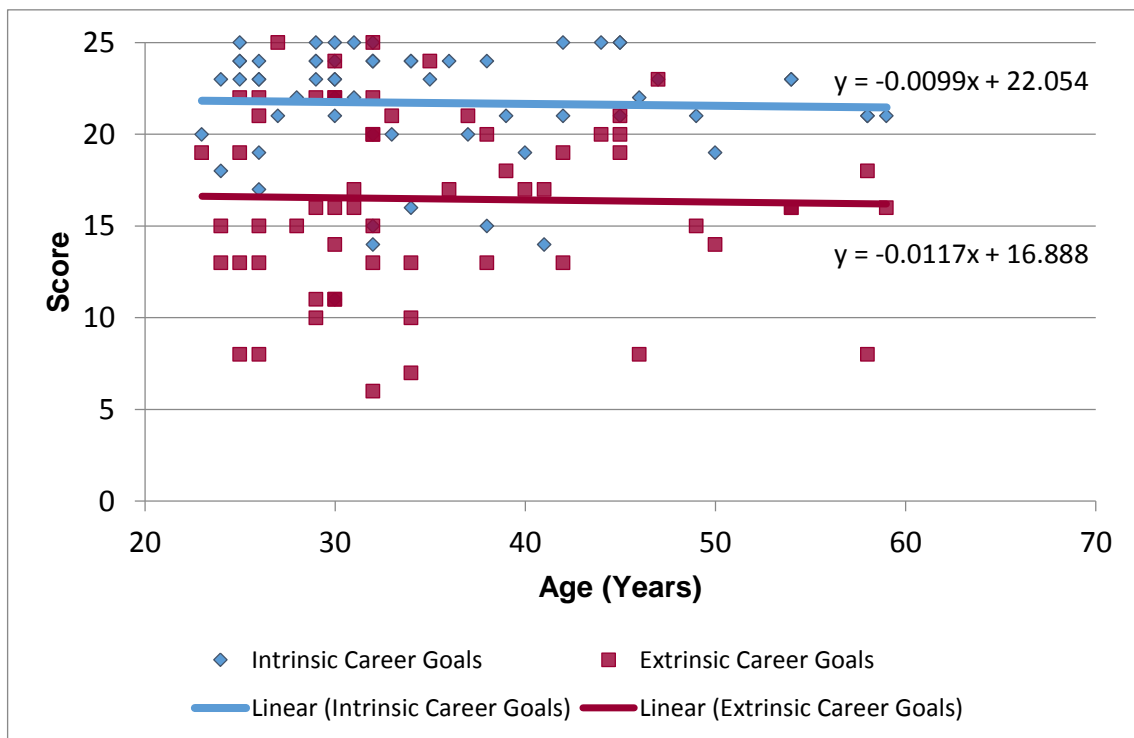


Figure 14: Scatter Plot representing the scores of the participants in conjunction with their age.

Interestingly, the mean of the intrinsic career goals is consistently and significantly higher than that of the extrinsic career goals. This is an indication that participants, in general, felt that intrinsic career goals were of greater importance than extrinsic career goals when considering a career. Therefore, following from Baltes et al. (1999) Selection, Optimisation and Compensation theory, during development individuals will opt to maximise gains by following a career with the flexibility to achieve a satisfactory level of work-life balance whilst minimising losses by sacrificing that which has lesser importance to them i.e. extrinsic career goals. Intrinsic and extrinsic goals can also interact in undesirable ways. Deci & Ryan (2000) contend that extrinsic career goals can be expected, on average, to be less likely to provide direct satisfaction of needs for individuals and can in fact hinder intrinsic career goals. If an individual receives an extrinsic reward for completing an intrinsically satisfying activity then they generally feel that they are being controlled by such rewards (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This can result in the individual feeling less intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

## 6.4 Hypothesis 4

**Proposition 4:** *Younger individuals (equal to or less than 30) will have lower levels of intrinsic goals than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

This proposition translated into the following hypothesis test which compared the population means of the proposed younger generation ( $\mu_{\text{younger generation}}$ ) with that of an older generation ( $\mu_{\text{older generation}}$ ) on the basis of intrinsic career goals (Seibert et al., 2013)

$H_{0,f}$ :  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

$H_{1,f}$ :  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$

From the results in Chapter 5 it was found that there was **significant evidence** to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_{0,f}$ ) at a 5% level of significance. The probability that the mean intrinsic career goals of the younger population are greater than the older generation is true is 98.611%. This significant result was obtained for both sets of data (original and transformed data). This finding is still in agreement with Maslow (1943) hierarchy of needs as it demonstrates that all individuals are searching for internal fulfilment or self-actualisation. The example provided by Maslow (1943), concerning the musician that should make music, was simplistic in that it does not demonstrate the multiple social identities that are a part of human beings. A person who was born to help others could find self-actualisation by achieving their intrinsic career goal of helping the community through their organisation. The result indicates that younger individuals are eager to discover self-actualisation fulfilment through learning and opportunities within the workplace.

The findings of this test are in agreement with the findings of Kooij et al. (2011) study that found that as people age their intrinsic work-related motives decrease. The Selection, Optimisation and Compensation (SOC) theory proposed by Baltes et al. (1999) is useful to explain the result of this test. According to SOC older employees should place less emphasis on growth and learning in their career than younger employees (Baltes et al., 1999). Younger individuals will tend towards optimisation goals so their motivation is generally growth-related, however as these individuals age their motivation shifts towards regulation of losses so their desire for job security will increase (Kooij et al., 2011).

However, although the findings demonstrate that younger individuals show higher levels of intrinsic career goals than the older generation this does not mean that the

older generation are not intrinsically motivated at all. From Table 9 the 95% confidence interval for the younger generation is  $22.114 \leq \mu_{younger\ generation} \leq 23.498$  and  $20.365 \leq \mu_{older\ generation} \leq 22.171$ . If one transforms the 95% interval result to that of the questionnaire (1 = Not important at all, 2 = Slightly important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, 5 = Extremely important) the following interval is calculated for the younger generation  $4.423 \leq \mu_{younger\ generation} \leq 4.700$  and for the older generation  $4.073 \leq \mu_{older\ generation} \leq 4.4342$ . Clearly both groups demonstrate that their intrinsic career goals, on average, are very important to extremely important. The extremity of the importance for intrinsic career goals confirms Dysvik & Kuvaas (2010) results which found that intrinsic rewards were significantly negatively related to the turnover intentions of employees. Schein (1996) agrees with this finding as he proposes that once a career orientation and anchor has been developed within the first few years of work the influence that external life experiences, such as aging, fades. So although Selection, Optimisation and Compensation theory (Baltes et al., 1999) predicts that aging decreases work related intrinsic goals, the effect of aging is minimal because of dominant career anchors (Schein, 1996). Also if the older generation is searching for greater job security, according to Kooij et al. (2011) and Selection, Optimisation and Compensation theory by Baltes et al. (1999), then surely they would be aware of the need for continual development through learning in order to be competitive in the labour market (de Grip & Smits, 2012). From a firm point of view, training and development of its employees will improve their productivity and probability of technological innovations (de Grip & Smits, 2012).

Figure 14 illustrates that the effect created by Selection, Optimisation and Compensation Theory is minimal as the calculated trend line shows a minuscule decrease in intrinsic career goals as age increases. That being said a limitation of the data for this study is that the results for the older generation consisted mainly of participants aged between 30 and 40 years old (Figure 14). This could have diluted the test findings, thus resulting in less contrast between the mean scores for the older and younger generations. A suggestion for future research is to gather a larger sample which accommodates age generations that can be separated into smaller groups. However, observations can still be made with the findings of this report.

The small, yet significant, decrease in intrinsic goals between the older and younger generations can be explained with study conducted by de Lange et al. (2010). de Lange et al. (2010) discovered that their older participants were more concerned with maintaining a certain level of productivity through learning than growing their

productivity to new levels. So although they were still concerned with learning on the job as with the younger individuals, their motivation for learning was different than the younger participants (de Lange et al., 2010). This argument is in agreement with Lang & Carstensen (2002) Socio-Emotional Selectivity Theory because the older generation is minimising losses as they age. The argument would also serve as a suitable reason for the smaller than anticipated differences in intrinsic career goals measured for *Hypothesis 4*. The older generation would be less motivated to participate in training that could potentially lead to career advancement as they have less time to capitalise on these developmental investments (Bertolino, Truxillo, & Fraccaroli, 2011). Similarly, de Grip & Smits (2012) contend that older employees who have worked for a long period at their firms participate to a lesser extent in the training programmes than newcomers to the firm. As a result, older employees are more at risk to be less competent than those who had embraced the training programmes (de Grip & Smits, 2012). Ng & Feldman (2013) argue that the mind set of loss minimisation that encumbers older participants can hinder their ability to compete with younger participants in the labour market.

Lang & Carstensen (2002) Socio-Emotional Selectivity Theory is in agreement with the observation that an individual's intrinsic career goals should decrease over time. From Socio-Emotional Selectivity Theory, older participants will desire more positive emotional experiences and will try to sidestep negative emotional experiences (Ng & Feldman, 2013). Older participants may have ranked intrinsic career goals lower because they are placing more emphasis on goals which are related to selected social relationships in their personal lives (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). Social relationships may be more emotionally meaningful to them and show greater short term benefits (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). This is appropriate because they may believe their future time is limited (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). These findings align with that of Ng & Feldman (2013) who learnt that older individuals were more likely than younger individuals to allocate more energy towards preserving relationships with their family members.

However, although the older generation may be less interested in improving their work productivity through learning (Bertolino et al., 2011) they might demonstrate a greater involvement in organizational citizenship behaviour (Kegans, McCamey, & Hammond, 2012). Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie (2006) define organisational citizenship behaviour as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation" (p. 3). Ng & Feldman (2013) proclaim that

the older generation will invest less energy in developing their own skills and more towards organisational citizenship behaviours. (Kegans et al., 2012) reported a statistically significant correlation between the age of their employees and the civic virtue they exhibited.

Lang & Carstensen (2002) found that as individuals age they are more inclined to transfer knowledge to others and focus on generative goals. Intrinsic career goals includes both learning and teaching during work hours as both relate to the nature of the career (Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, 2014). By teaching others the older generation achieves a generative goal in the form of "symbolic immortality" (Lang & Carstensen, 2002 p. 136) because their lessons will empower the learners indefinitely. This is another variable which may have increased the mean intrinsic career goals score for the older generation and decreased the mean score for the younger generation thus resulting in a smaller difference than anticipated.

## 6.5 Hypothesis 5

**Proposition 5:** *Younger individuals (30 years and less) will be less willing to compromise on their career goals for their family than those who are of an older age (greater than 30).*

Proposition 5 translated into the following two hypothesis tests which compared the population means of the proposed younger generation ( $\mu_{\text{younger generation}}$ ) with that of an older generation ( $\mu_{\text{older generation}}$ ) on the basis of *Compromise for Partner Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013):

$$H_{0,g}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$$

$$H_{1,g}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$$

And the *Compromise for Child Scale* (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013):

$$H_{0,h}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$$

$$H_{1,h}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$$

According to the *Compromise for Partner Scale* there was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_{0,g}$ ) at a 5% level of significance. However, there was ample evidence to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_{0,h}$ ) at an 8% level of significance. It was found that the probability that  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$ , for the *Compromise for Child Scale*, is true is 92.34%. On average, the younger generation was more willing to compromise their career goals for their children than the older generation. Some similar observations to *Hypothesis 2* can be made because the older generation is more likely to already have children than the younger generation for biological reasons. From the data only 29.4% of the younger generation had children whereas 73.21% of the older generation had children. Hence, the similar result for *Hypothesis 2* as *Hypothesis 5* for the *Compromise for Child Scale*. Greenhaus & Powell (2012) agree that the consideration that people have for their family varies according to different life stages.

Once again, perceived outcome expectations could be the basis for such a result. The younger generation may have reservations concerning their future children and work roles (Westring & Ryan, 2011). The younger generation may have the expectation that future children will impact negatively on their work domain because they will be required to commit more time at home which can produce strain (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). Similar to an observation made for *Hypothesis 2*, the younger generation may

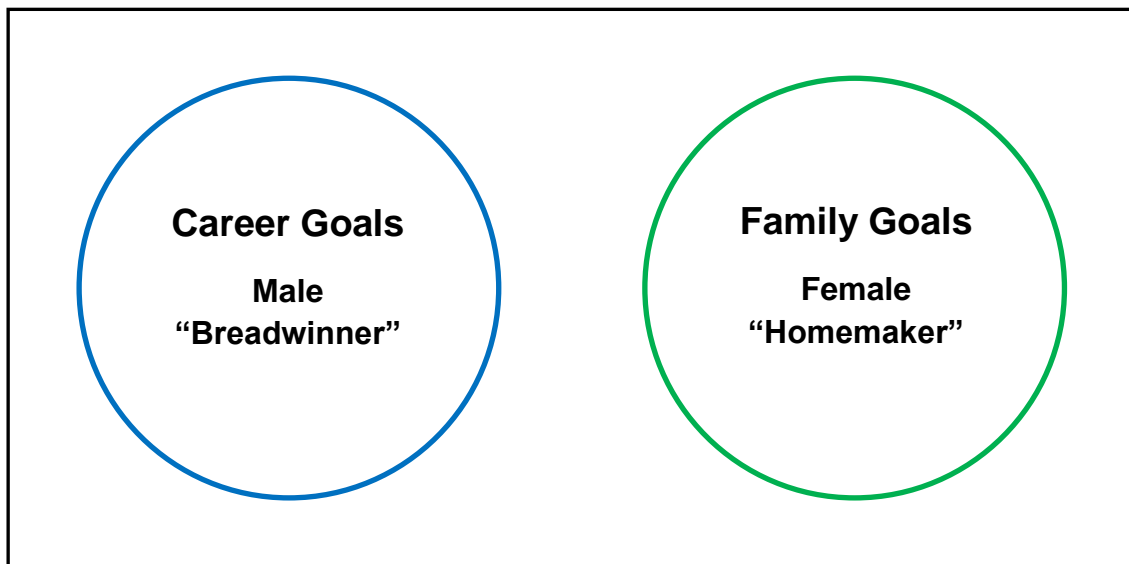
have anticipated work family conflict (AWFC) with regard to future children (Westring & Ryan, 2011). This links back to the study from Wall (2013) which shows that modern children are expected to require more devotion and supervision from their parents than those children from the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Powell & Greenhaus (2012) argue that people generally make work decisions that are in alignment with both family and work identities. Even though only the perception of the younger generation is represented in the result of *Hypothesis 5*, this perception may still have affected recent work decisions for this population. This observation is also in coherence with Bandura (2006) Social Cognitive Theory as people practice forethought by altering their actions to suite expected outcomes. Mohd et al. (2010) also agrees with the above as their study demonstrates that the perceived demands of children can affect the career decisions of employees.

As there is an age gap between the two generations, observations can also be made regarding the potential size of the families and the age of the children. The likelihood is that the majority of the older generation with children will have children that are older than the younger generation. The mean age of the last born child for the younger generation was 3.9 years and for the older generation 12.5 years. Milkie & Kendig (2010) proclaim that the amount of dedicated parental time substantially decreases as the child ages. The study by Offer (2014) agrees with this relationship and suggested that parents with younger children have to allocate more time towards focused childcare supervision. As the child grows older the amount of time allocated towards more non-focused childcare (combining activities such as housework and conversation with the child) increases positively (Offer, 2014). Milkie & Kendig (2010) also proclaimed that younger parents who supervised their children more than other parents experienced work-life conflict to a lesser extent. Therefore, it is also possible that the younger generation believes that they will have to compromise their careers briefly when their children are young because of the extra demands at home (Offer, 2014) and that when their children get older there will be less conflict between the work and family domain, thus less compromise is required. This is reflected in the results for the older generations mean score.



## 6.6 Proposed representation of the Results

From *Chapter 2*, it is understood that, in the past, the traditional roles of within families were that the male took on the responsibility of being the provider or breadwinner for the household (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Females took on the role of homemaker (Eagly & Wood, 1999) and were given a larger share of the labour at home (Eagly & Carli, 2007). This situation can be summarised into the following Venn diagram (*Figure 15*). The larger the circles within the diagram, the more time and energy the individuals allocate towards their goals and social roles. It must be emphasized that *Figure 15* is not implying that, in the past, only males worked and only females were the caretakers of the household. *Figure 15* is merely a representation of the dominant traditional social roles.

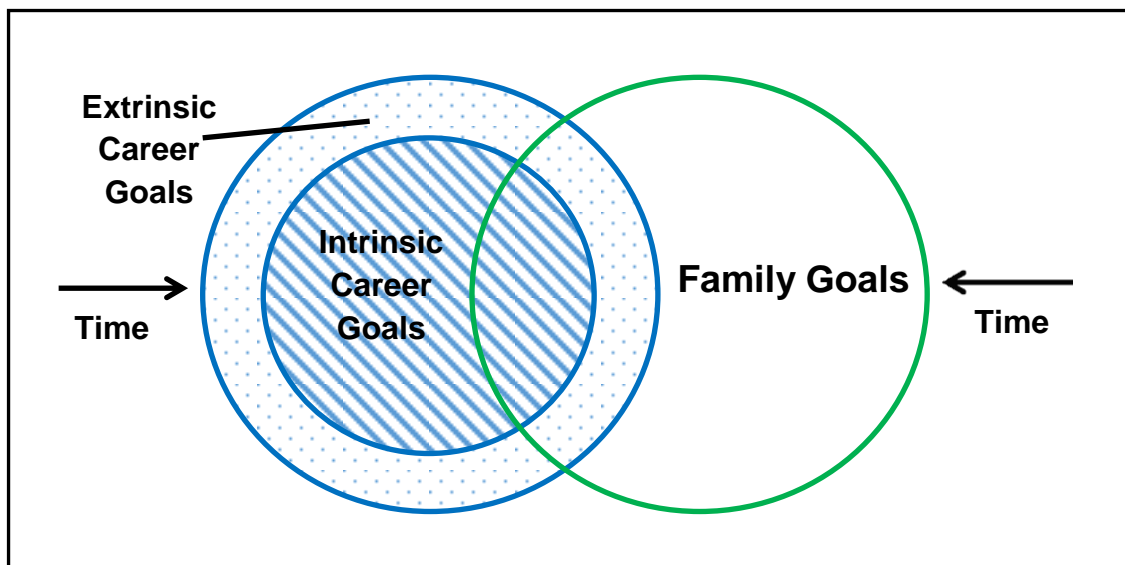


**Figure 15:** Venn diagram demonstrating the historical allocation time and energy (represented by the size of the circles) of males and females towards the various domains.

However, from the results of this study it appears that these social norms have indeed altered more towards the following *Figure 16*. Billing (2011) agrees with this observation as that study argues that gender identity has gone from being uniform in the past to being more multifaceted. From *Hypothesis 1* it is clear that work-life balance is not only a feminine problem (*Figure 16*). Both circles are representative of goals and roles that both males and females have to negotiate. The blue circles demonstrate that career goals can be separated into intrinsic and extrinsic career goals (Seibert et al., 2013). This research has shown that individuals prioritise intrinsic career goals higher than extrinsic career goals in terms of importance (*Hypothesis 3*). As time and energy are limited resources, individuals will tend to maximise gains and minimise losses by allocating such resources appropriately (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003). Therefore, individuals who wish to compromise their career goals would start with extrinsic career

goals, thus shedding the exterior circle and freeing the resources of energy and time, so that the gains associated within the family domain can be maximised.

The intersection of the two domains is representative of resource allocation that satisfies both domains. An example could be the extrinsic career goal of a salary that will be used for a child’s education or partner’s needs. The time and energy of the individual will be expended at work in order to satisfy these needs at home. As discussed in *Hypothesis 2*, a plausible explanation for the lower than expected degree of compromise for career for the participants with children could be due to this intersection of extrinsic career goals (Kmec, 2011). Other examples include flexible work hours, working whilst passively taking care of the children or childcare at the place of work. *Hypothesis 5* then demonstrates that these goals in *Figure 16* are not static as both people and their careers are dynamic in nature (Lent, 2013). It has been demonstrated that an individual’s career goals (*Hypothesis 4*) and their willingness to compromise does change with contextual changes such as age (*Hypothesis 5*) and the birth of a child (*Hypothesis 2*).



**Figure 16:** Venn diagram representing some of the findings of this report. Both males and females are embracing both sets of goals however there is influence amongst the domains.

From this one could assume then that family and entrepreneurial businesses would allow for greater alignment between the two domains. With family businesses, partners have greater opportunity to spend time and energy together during the work day as well as accomplish career objectives together. This opportunity would be intrinsic to the particular work. Entrepreneurial business owners can transfer resources from the work domain to the family domain far easier than individuals working for corporations (Powell & Eddleston, 2013). Powell & Eddleston (2013) argue that there are multiple resource

gains that entrepreneurs experience from the family domain. Previously, research concentrated on the conflict between the two domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The study by Powell & Eddleston (2013) takes on the view that the family domain and business domains are interlinked and have complementary aspects with each other. Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz (2006) refer to this phenomenon as work-family enrichment. Work–family enrichment is referring to the resources that a domain provides the individual which enables them to perform better in other domains (Carlson et al., 2006).

From *Figure 16* it can be observed that the greater the intersection amongst the domains the more that an individual can achieve for both domains combined. As previously mentioned this phenomenon has been observed in past studies. The Royal Bank Financial Group (RFBG) implementation of flexible work-life balance policies resulted in lower absenteeism days, higher levels of energy and lower levels of stress (Spinks & Tombari, 2002). Atkinson & Hall (2011) also found that the companies in their study who implemented comparable policies recorded higher levels of employee performance and lower absenteeism as well. Similarly, Evans et al. (2013) observed that males who were able to balance their careers with their family responsibilities performed better and were more satisfied at work. Kopelman et al. (2012) even goes so far as to argue that individuals who find careers that are complimentary to their family lives outside of work will be geared towards having a love for their career. The intersection of the two domains allows individuals to avoid extensive family-work conflict which will result in the satisfaction of long term goals for both roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

## Chapter 7: Conclusion

### 7.1 Summary of Findings

From Selection, Optimisation and Compensation Theory it is understood that people choose to maximise and gains by pursuing desirable goals and minimise losses by neglecting lesser goals (Baltes et al., 1999). From this theory it was inferred that people would rather compromise on their extrinsic career goals for their family than intrinsic career goals as they, on average, scored higher for the intrinsic goals measure (Figure 14). People would rather forgo extrinsic rewards, such as promotion and salary, and remove themselves from say a promotion (Sandberg, 2010) in pursuit of intrinsic career goals. It appears that Schein (1996) prediction that golden handcuffs would fail to be an effective means of securing employees in the future had some truth. García-Chas et al. (2014) agrees with this logic as their study demonstrated that an employee would not be attracted to another firm through extrinsic rewards, such as a larger salary, if they believed that their current work position offered intrinsic rewards such as it being interesting or exiting. This observation would also explain the findings of the research by Dysvik & Kuvaas (2010) which proclaims that intrinsic rewards has a substantially negative relationship to turnover intentions of employees.

Purely from the statistics of *Hypothesis 1* it was observed that males would be more likely to compromise on their extrinsic career goals for their partner than females. Several plausible explanations were proposed in order to explain this phenomenon. Firstly, the collected sample for this study may have been negatively affected by survivorship bias (Rohleder et al., 2010). In other words the female sample that was collected may have lacked the females which have already left their careers for family reasons. Those females would have arguable raised the *Compromise for Partner Scale* scores. Secondly, those females who did participate in the study slightly disagreed with the concept of compromising their careers for their partners. Their actions reflect this sentiment as they are already completing an MBA programme for career advancement or have ambitions within industry for promotion. Perhaps those females believe that they either have to choose between having a successful family or career as there is too much potential interference amongst the domains. This conclusion is in alignment with Southworth (2014) observations that, in the American labour market, females viewed this as yet another barrier for career advancement. Thirdly, South African females have experienced similar labour immobility as Chinese females because of their traditional female homemaker role expectation, thus they too may have lesser expectations of businesses (Qiao et al., 2009). Finally, the South African social norms for males might be transitioning away from the breadwinner expectation as it has in America (Sayer et

al., 2004) and may be more open to compromising their careers for their partners. Recommendations from the findings for businesses would be to include flexible work policies for both sexes that aid employees to achieve a sense of work life balance even at the expense of some extrinsic goals, such as a larger salary.

The findings of *Hypothesis 2* indicated that people with children would be less compromising of their careers for their children than those without children. Plausible explanations of such a result include the following: Firstly, those without children may perceive the extra demand that is inherent in child rearing to be too excessive and thus produce work family conflict (Westring & Ryan, 2011). They may have learnt, through their parents, that rearing a child is demanding and may require sacrifices (Basuil & Casper, 2012). Also child rearing in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is expected to be more demanding than what it was in the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Wall, 2013). This justification was also appropriate with the result of *Hypothesis 5* because of the relationships with the younger generation and participants without children as well as the older generation and raising children. These perceptions can be viewed as a boundary for younger individuals and the population without children and could potentially hinder their career development (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). Alternatively, those with children will be less willing to compromise on their extrinsic career goals than those without children as they may be more aware of the financial needs that their children require. Lastly, those with children may have scored lower than expected because of their self-efficacy beliefs of dealing with both children and work through mastery experiences (Bandura, 2012). From the findings it was suggested that businesses encourage parents to at least find the time to passively participate with their children as it will prevent some forms of depression (Roxburgh, 2011) and indirectly influence them to find a love for their careers (Kopelman et al., 2012). Surprisingly this will also lead to increases in performance in their careers (Crittenden, 2004). A proposed theoretical model was then established in *Section 6.6 (Figure 15 and Figure 16)* which could be used as an explanation for the results.

## 7.2 Managerial Implications

This research report has shed some light on the opt-out revolution described in (Powell & Butterfield, 2013; Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013). From *Hypothesis 1*, it was observed that the family domain is indeed influencing the work domain and that issues regarding work-life balance are affecting both males and females. If businesses wish to retain star employees they have to understand that neither they nor the lives of their employees remain static (*Hypothesis 2*, *Hypothesis 4* and *Hypothesis 5*). Human resource policies have to be adaptable to these dynamic environments. Policies concerned with work-life balance can be adaptable by offering employees the option to sacrifice some extrinsic career goals, such as a higher salary, in return for greater flexibility at work. Such opportunities would help employees avoid some instances of work-life conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). It would also increase retention rates of their star employees of both sexes (Atkinson & Hall, 2011). Achieving higher levels of intrinsic rewards in the business will also improve the recruitment rate of talented individuals (García-Chas et al., 2014). However, these policies have to be established in the interests of both sexes as it will reduce gender stigma's (Kmec, 2011; Southworth, 2014) and also as it is relevant for both sexes (*Hypothesis 1*). Already some businesses, such as the Royal Bank Financial Group (Spinks & Tombari, 2002) have benefited by adopting such policies.

Some parallels regarding the labour market were drawn between the Chinese population (Qiao et al., 2009), the United States of America population (Southworth, 2014) and the South African population in this study. This research also affords businesses the opportunity to either realign their values to that of the sentiment within the labour market or acquire those people who share similar values to the organisation. The findings from *Hypothesis 1* to *Hypothesis 5* provide some insight into the sentiment of the labour market. If businesses are able to consider the proposition of aligning their values to their employees then they will influence them towards feeling a greater sense of commitment and loyalty towards their organisation (Khandelwal & Mohendra, 2010).

From *Hypothesis 4*, it was observed that people experience a decrease in intrinsic career goals as they age. It appears that their priorities alter from growth within the job towards job security (Kooij et al., 2011) and preservation of relationships with family members in search of positive emotional experiences (Ng & Feldman, 2013). However, it would appear that veering away from growth within the job is paradoxical to job security (de Grip & Smits, 2012) and so managers have to communicate to the older employees within the workforce of the need for continuous training and development. Kooij et al. (2011) agree with this recommendation and argue that the older generation

should pursue new skills that strengthen their broader functioning. From Socio-Emotional Selectivity Theory, older participants will also desire more positive emotional experiences and will try to sidestep negative emotional experiences (Ng & Feldman, 2013). Older participants may have ranked intrinsic career goals lower because they are placing more emphasis on goals which are related to selected social relationships, such as family relationships, in their personal lives (Lang & Carstensen, 2002) because of the need for greater positive emotional experiences (Ng & Feldman, 2013). The older generation is also known to participate more in organizational citizenship behaviour (Kegans et al., 2012). From these observations it is recommended that businesses channel the older generation towards activities, such as training younger employees, so that they can satisfy their appetite for both positive social experiences and organizational citizenship behaviour. Kooij et al. (2011) agree with these recommendations as they argue that older employees be given more mentorship roles. Firms searching for innovation and increases in productivity will benefit from the additional training and development of their younger employees (de Grip & Smits, 2012).

*Hypothesis 5* revealed that the younger generation was more willing to compromise their careers for their children. However, compromising for one's children is not always necessary as was revealed by that population who had children in *Hypothesis 2*. From the perspective of managers, this research has revealed that having and taking care of children can actually enhance their performance at work (Crittenden, 2004). The study by Kmec (2011) supports this view as those participants in their study which were not parents reported lower levels of work intensity than those who were parents. Another study by Crittenden (2004) found that 60 female participants reported that taking care of their children made them better senior managers. Carlson et al. (2006) reported that the patience that parents develop with their children assists them to relate more with their colleagues at work.

Although there is this drive to provide for one's child, managers have to bear in mind that they must allocate sufficient time towards childcare. Roxburgh (2011) discovered that those employees who become anxious about missing out on taking care of their children are more likely to suffer from depression. Passive participation is required in order to prevent feelings of depression (Roxburgh, 2011), provide a sense of work-life balance (Offer, 2014) and find a love for their career (Kopelman et al., 2012). However, if people wish to see substantial gains in their quality of life then they will have to more engaged in their family life than their work life (Greenhaus et al., 2003). The model in

*Section 6.6* indicates that there is a lot that can be gained by aligning ones career goals with family goals.

### **7.3 Recommendations for Future Research**

Due to the quantitative nature of this study the majority of the observations made about the results have to be confirmed through qualitative research. Past research was used to provide reasonable explanations for these results but these studies were conducted in countries other than South Africa so, perhaps, there are other unique explanations for the findings. Such nuances would be identified through in-depth interviews of individuals who represent the population of this study. At the same time this quantitative study paid little attention to data which was furthest away from the mean. Perhaps some interesting findings could have been made if these individuals were studied further (Malina et al., 2011). This represents an opportunity for future researchers.

One limitation of this research was that it could not be conducted as a longitudinal study because of time constraints. Future research could consider a longitudinal study so that causal evidence between variables, such as aging and compromising for one's family, can be established. A longitudinal study will also help to identify the influences that family circumstances have on the career goals of people as they go through various life stages. Greenhaus & Powell (2012) similarly contend that there is a need for researchers to identify how family affects career decisions during different life stages. This research was unable to consider other variables which may also be influenced by family differently. For example, the career goals of entrepreneurs or family businesses may be influenced differently by family than those who work for others (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Also perceived social status (Metheny & McWhirter, 2013) and financial ability (Seibert et al., 2013) of participants were not considered in this study but could potentially be included in future research.

Future research could also look into the relationship between the actual behaviours of the participants and their espoused values as revealed in this report. This study turned to Bandura (2006) to explain that people will alter their path through their actions in order to obtain goals that relate to their values. However, it would be useful to confirm or contest this view in order to determine whether the statistical tests delivered reliable results or if the sample was severely affected by social desirability bias (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).



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## Appendix A – Questionnaire

### Section 1: Demographic Data

**Gender:** Male/Female

**Race:**

**Age:**

**Number of children:**

**Marital Status:** Single/Married/Divorced

### Section 2: Considering Partner and Children Scales

To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your future (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013 p.466)

1. Taking a less demanding job to have more energy for my partner will not be an option. (consider partner scale)
2. My career choice will be based on my goals, not on my ability to balance work and love. (consider partner scale)
3. Any career that I will select must enable me to be home when my children come home from school (consider children scale)
4. I will give up some of my career goals for my relationship. (consider partner scale)
5. When considering a future career, I will look for a job that will allow me the flexibility of being able to stay at home when my children are sick or out of school. (consider children scale)
6. When selecting a career, I will take a lesser paying job if it means I am able to prioritize my relationship. (consider partner scale)
7. I will take a job that I find less satisfying if it means having more time for my partner. (consider partner scale)
8. I will have a career with flexible hours so that I can be home for the children I plan to have. (consider children scale)
9. I will select a career that can be put on hold when my children are young. (consider children scale)

10. When planning for my career, I will think about how much energy I will have for my children. (consider children scale)
11. I will make my career plans independently of what my partner might need. (consider partner scale)
12. My future career will allow me to have time off in the summer so I can be with my children. (consider children scale)
13. I will never change my career plans for a relationship? (consider partner scale)
14. Having quality time for raising children will be the most important consideration in my career choice. (consider children scale)
15. Any relationship that I am in will need to realize that my career plans come first. (consider partner scale)
16. Future parenting responsibilities will be an important factor in making my career plans. (consider children scale)

### **Section 3: Career Goals**

To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your career goals (Seibert et al., 2013 p.182):

1. It is important to me to achieve financial success in my career. (extrinsic)
2. It is important that my career offers me opportunities for interesting work. (intrinsic)
3. I want to be seen as a powerful individual in my company. (extrinsic)
4. I want a career that gives me high social status. (extrinsic)
5. It is important for me to develop my technical/functional skills over the course of my career. (intrinsic)
6. It is important to me that others not view my career as a failure. (extrinsic)
7. It is important for me to continue to learn and grow over the course of my career. (intrinsic)
8. I want to gain experience through a wide variety of jobs or work assignments. (intrinsic)
9. It is important for me to be seen by others as a success in my career. (extrinsic)

10. I want to have a positive impact on other people or social problems through my work. (intrinsic)

**Note:** Items in yellow will not be included in the questionnaire presented to participants

## Appendix B

### Hypothesis 1: Comparison of Males and Females according to Consideration for Child Scale

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{males}^2 = \sigma_{females}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{males}^2 \neq \sigma_{females}^2$$

Then the F-test was calculated in excel as seen in with an alpha of 0.05.

**Table 11:** F-Test Two-Sample for Variances for Comparison of Males and Females according to Consideration for Child Scale

	Females	Males
	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
<b>Mean</b>	29.82979	30.19048
<b>Variance</b>	129.5356	113.6702
<b>Observations</b>	47	42
<b>df</b>	46	41
<b>F</b>	1.139575	
<b>P(F&lt;=f) one-tail</b>	0.336818	
<b>F Critical one-tail</b>	1.664267	

There is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{one\ tail} = 0.336818 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis can be tested:

$$H_{0,b}: \mu_{females} - \mu_{males} \geq 0$$

$$H_{1,b}: \mu_{females} - \mu_{males} < 0$$

**Table 12:** t-Test with two-samples assuming Equal Variances for Comparison of Males and Females according to Consideration for Child Scale

	Females	Males
	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
Mean	29.82978723	30.19047619
Variance	129.5356152	113.670151
Observations	47	42
Pooled Variance	122.0587872	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	87	
t Stat	-0.153754166	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.439079832	
t Critical one-tail	1.662557349	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.878159663	
t Critical two-tail	1.987608282	

Therefore, from the t-test in Table 12,  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one-tail}} = 0.44 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.

**Hypothesis 2: Comparison of participants with children to those without children according to Consideration for Partner Scale**

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{\text{without children}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{with children}}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{\text{without children}}^2 \neq \sigma_{\text{with children}}^2$$

**Table 13:** F-Test Two-Sample for Variances for comparing participants with children and those without according to the Consideration for Partner Scale (alpha is 0.05)

	Without Children	With Children
	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Partner Scale
Mean	30.64864865	29.03846154
Variance	90.67867868	102.0769231
Observations	37	52
df	36	51
F	0.888336717	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.358215775	
F Critical one-tail	0.591362236	

There is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.358 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis can be tested:

$$H_{0,c}: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} \leq 0$$

$$H_{1,c}: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} > 0$$

**Table 14:** t-Test with two-samples assuming equal variances for comparing participants with children and those without according to the Consideration for Partner Scale

	Without Children	With Children
	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Partner Scale
Mean	30.64864865	29.03846154
Variance	90.67867868	102.0769231
Observations	37	52
Pooled Variance	97.36040815	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	87	
t Stat	0.758739481	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.225029556	
t Critical one-tail	1.662557349	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.450059112	
t Critical two-tail	1.987608282	

Therefore, from the t-test in Table 14,  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.225 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.

**Hypothesis 2: Comparison of participants with children to those without children according to Consideration for Child Scale**

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{\text{without children}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{with children}}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{\text{without children}}^2 \neq \sigma_{\text{with children}}^2$$

**Table 15:** F-Test Two-Sample for variances for comparing participants with children and those without according to the Consideration for Child Scale (alpha is 0.05)

	Without Children	With Children
	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
<b>Mean</b>	32.05405405	28.59615385
<b>Variance</b>	98.10810811	128.2062594
<b>Observations</b>	37	52
<b>df</b>	36	51
<b>F</b>	0.765236491	
<b>P(F&lt;=f) one-tail</b>	0.200852483	
<b>F Critical one-tail</b>	0.591362236	

There is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.2 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis can be tested:

$$H_{0,d}: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} \leq 0$$

$$H_{1,d}: \mu_{\text{without children}} - \mu_{\text{with children}} > 0$$

**Table 16:** t-Test with two-samples assuming equal variances for comparing participants with children and those without according to the Consideration for Child Scale.

	Without Children	With Children
	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
<b>Mean</b>	32.05405405	28.59615385
<b>Variance</b>	98.10810811	128.2062594
<b>Observations</b>	37	52
<b>Pooled Variance</b>	115.751852	
<b>Hypothesized Mean Difference</b>	0	
<b>df</b>	87	
<b>t Stat</b>	1.494362677	
<b>P(T&lt;=t) one-tail</b>	0.069349574	
<b>t Critical one-tail</b>	1.489393929	
<b>P(T&lt;=t) two-tail</b>	0.138699147	
<b>t Critical two-tail</b>	1.834486202	

Therefore, from the t-test in Table 16,  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one-tail}} = 0.06934 < \alpha = 0.07$  there is **sufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 7% level of significance.

**Hypothesis 3: Comparison of the younger generation to the older generation according to extrinsic goals**

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{\text{younger generation}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{older generation}}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{\text{younger generation}}^2 \neq \sigma_{\text{older generation}}^2$$

Then the F-test was conducted and the results were as follows:

**Table 17:** F-Test Two-Sample for Variances comparing the younger generation with the older generation

	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
	Extrinsic Career Goals	Extrinsic Career Goals
Mean	16.96969697	16.41818182
Variance	24.53030303	19.13670034
Observations	33	55
df	32	54
F	1.281846013	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.207050229	
F Critical one-tail	1.65710988	

There is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.207 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis could be tested:

$$H_{0,e}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_{1,e}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

The results of Table 18 show that  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one-tail}} = 0.29368 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.



**Table 18:** t-Test of two samples assuming equal variances comparing the younger generation with the older generation

	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
	Extrinsic Career Goals	Extrinsic Career Goals
Mean	16.96969697	16.41818182
Variance	24.53030303	19.13670034
Observations	33	55
Pooled Variance	21.14362227	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	86	
t Stat	0.544709226	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.293681625	
t Critical one-tail	1.662765449	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.587363251	
t Critical two-tail	1.987934206	

**Hypothesis 4: Comparison of the younger generation to the older generation according to intrinsic career goals**

As the intrinsic career goals scale was negatively skewed the data had to be transformed as this can weaken the power of the t-test. The tests performed here will be done with both sets of data so that a comparison can be made. Firstly, the variances of the data had to be checked to see if it was possible to assume equal variances for the samples. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows. The test results are in Table 19.

$$H_0: \sigma_{younger\ generation}^2 = \sigma_{older\ generation}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{younger\ generation}^2 \neq \sigma_{older\ generation}^2$$

**Table 19:** F-Test two-sample for variances comparing the younger generation with the older generation

	Intrinsic Career Goals (Transformed)		Intrinsic Career Goals	
	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
Mean	6550243.129	5243790.473	22.80645161	21.2
Variance	5.20196E+12	9.44517E+12	3.561290323	11.31111111
Observations	31	55	31	55
df	30	54	30	54
F	0.550752904		0.31484885	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.040204661		0.000517598	
F Critical one-tail	0.570944735		0.570944735	

The F-test was conducted on both the original data and the transformed data in Table 19. As  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} < \alpha = 0.05$  for both sets of data there is sufficient evidence to reject the null which means that it is inappropriate to assume equal population variances. Then the following hypothesis could be tested:

$$H_{0,f}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_{1,f}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

The results of the t-test are documented in Table 20.

**Table 20:** t-Test of two samples, assuming unequal variances, comparing the younger generation with the older generation for both transformed and original data (alpha = 0.05).

	Intrinsic Career Goals (Transformed)		Intrinsic Career Goals	
	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
Mean	6550243.129	5243790.473	22.80645161	21.2
Variance	5.20196E+12	9.44517E+12	3.561290323	11.31111111
Observations	31	55	31	55
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0	
df	78		84	
t Stat	2.24208025		2.83745272	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.013898515		0.002849605	
t Critical one-tail	1.664624645		1.663196679	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.02779703		0.005699211	
t Critical two-tail	1.990847069		1.988609667	

From Table 20, the transformed data has a  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.01389 < \alpha = 0.05$  and the original data has a  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.0028496 < \alpha = 0.05$ . Both results mean that there is **significant evidence** to reject the null hypothesis with a significance level of 5%. If the result of the transformed data is taken, as it is more conservative, then the probability that  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} > \mu_{\text{older generation}}$  is true is 98.611%. The probability that  $\mu_{\text{younger generation}} \leq \mu_{\text{older generation}}$  is true is only 1.389%.

**Hypothesis 5: Comparison of the younger generation to the older generation according to the Consideration for Partner Scale**

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_0: \sigma_{\text{younger generation}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{older generation}}^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma_{\text{younger generation}}^2 \neq \sigma_{\text{older generation}}^2$$

Then the F-test was calculated in excel as seen in Table 21 with an alpha of 0.05.

**Table 21:** F-Test Two-Sample for variances comparing the younger generation with the older generation

	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Partner Scale
Mean	28.32352941	30.58928571
Variance	98.8315508	97.84642857
Observations	34	56
df	33	55
F	1.010068045	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.476860372	
F Critical one-tail	1.6471723	

There is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.47686 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Therefore, it is appropriate to assume equal population standard deviations for the t-test. Then the following hypothesis could be tested:

$$H_{0,g}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_{1,g}: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

The results of the test are displayed in Table 22. The results of Table 22 show that  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one - tail}} = 0.1479 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.

**Table 22:** t-Test of two samples, assuming equal variances, comparing the younger generation with the older generation for both transformed and original data (alpha = 0.05).

	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
	Compromise for Partner Scale	Compromise for Partner Scale
Mean	28.32352941	30.58928571
Variance	98.8315508	97.84642857
Observations	34	56
Pooled Variance	98.21584941	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	88	
t Stat	-1.051561375	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.147939951	
t Critical one-tail	1.662354029	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.295879903	
t Critical two-tail	1.987289865	

**Hypothesis 5: Comparison of the younger generation to the older generation according to the Consideration for Child Scale**

Before comparing the population means of the two sample groups, the population standard deviations of the groups need to be compared to see if it is reasonable to assume that they are equal. Therefore, an F-test was conducted in order to establish this. First the hypothesis was stated as follows:

$$H_{0,f}: \sigma_{younger\ generation}^2 = \sigma_{older\ generation}^2$$

$$H_{1,f}: \sigma_{younger\ generation}^2 \neq \sigma_{older\ generation}^2$$

Then the F-test was calculated in excel as seen in Table 23 with an alpha of 0.05.

**Table 23:** F-Test Two-Sample for variances comparing the younger generation with the older generation

	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
Mean	32.21212121	29.10714286
Variance	71.85984848	137.8792208
Observations	33	56
df	32	55
F	0.521179682	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.024980201	
F Critical one-tail	0.58008171	

The F-test was conducted on both the original data and the transformed data in Table 23. As  $P(F \leq f)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.025 < \alpha = 0.05$  for both sets of data there is sufficient evidence to reject the null which means that it is inappropriate to assume equal population variances. Then the following hypothesis could be tested:

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} \leq 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{younger generation}} - \mu_{\text{older generation}} > 0$$

**Table 24:** t-Test of two samples, assuming unequal variances, comparing the younger generation with the older generation for both transformed and original data (alpha = 0.05).

	The Younger Generation	The Older Generation
	Compromise for Child Scale	Compromise for Child Scale
Mean	32.21212121	29.10714286
Variance	71.85984848	137.8792208
Observations	33	56
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	83	
t Stat	1.441496598	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.076603427	
t Critical one-tail	1.663420175	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.153206855	
t Critical two-tail	1.98895978	

The results of the test are displayed in Table 24. The results of Table 24 indicate that  $P(T \leq t)_{\text{one tail}} = 0.0766 > \alpha = 0.05$  there is **insufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance. However, there is **sufficient evidence** to reject the null hypothesis at a 8% level of significance.