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The Relationship of Life-Script Decisions to Occupational Interests

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An Abstract Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Lindenwood College in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts

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Abstract

This study considered the relationship of life-script decisions to an individual's occupational interests. A variety of definitions and functions of work were discussed, and the influences of early family parenting styles and modeling were explored.

The theory of Transactional Analysis was used as the basis for explaining emotional and psychological needs of individuals. The origins of the three ego states, Parent, Adult, and Child, were described and defined. The life script, or life plan, of individuals, developed from decisions which are based on messages and modeling from parental figures, was used to determine the executive ego states of the subjects. The ego state which dictates a person's behavior is said to have executive power.

In a clinical study involving 31 adult clinical patients the relationship of an individual's occupational decisions, resulting in his or her life-script, were examined along two dimensions--Holland's primary personality type and Executive Ego State.

Holland's Self-Directed Search(1973), was used to determine the subjects' primary personality types, which were then compared with subjects' executive ego states. These ego states were derived from a clinical study in which three clinicians rated subjects to determine which ego state was executive in a consistent measure.

In spite of the agreement of the clinicians regarding executive ego status, no other significant findings arose from the study that would link executive ego state to the choice of a career.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction

Work is an important part of the lives of most people, and for many years researchers have probed the issues involved in career choice and job satisfaction. Holland (1973) developed a theory of occupational/personality types based on the idea that preferences for occupations are expressions of personality and are a direct product of an individual's life history.

Job-related concerns can have an impact on physical and mental health and on personal and social relationships in an individual's life. Problems outside the workplace have a great deal of effect on a person's satisfaction and on the ability to perform successfully on the job.

Roe's theory (1956) states that individuals inherit a tendency toward a manner of expending psychic energy which is combined with childhood experiences to produce the general style by which an individual satisfies needs. Motivation is largely the result of the intensity of needs. Occupational choice depends on how the individual learns to satisfy these needs through two types of activities, those involving and those excluding interactions with people.

Transactional Analysis, (Berne, 1962) a personality theory, is based on the idea of the importance of early childhood experiences and their effect on the life of an individual. Individuals learn particular behaviors and decide on a life-script, based on those childhood decisions. These behaviors and decisions form the personality of an individual and motivate

him or her to make particular choices in adult life, including the choice of career. The individual will make career choices based on these early influences in order to fulfill needs. A person's life-script will provide an overall life plan and a life style for carrying out that plan.

The theory of Transactional Analysis divides the personality into three ego states, called the Parent, Adult, and Child. Ego states may be viewed in terms of structure or function. A structural ego state model concerned with content of ego states. A functional model is concerned with their process. These ego states are developed by the types of parenting messages which are given to an individual as a young child and are expressed by the individual as behaviors and beliefs, forming a particular frame of reference which permeates his or her life. The life-script is comprised of the parental messages, and modeling, the decisions a child makes based on those messages, the function of the ego states, and the functioning behavior of that individual in the present.

This study investigates whether the influences resulting from the life-script of an individual motivate him or her to choose a particular type of career.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will explore the literature on variables which influence career choices. Herr and Cramer (1988) state that according to studies "approximately forty percent of the American adult population is coping inadequately with typical life problems, such as, getting work and holding a job, buying things, managing one's economic life and parenting" (p 13).

Work: Definitions and Functions

Work can be defined in a variety of ways. It has been classified as good and bad. From the earliest days of recorded history, work has been a subject of controversy. It has been seen as punishment, fit only for slaves to do so that their masters could have unlimited leisure, and it has been defined as a way in which people achieve creative and influential purposes. (Herr & Cramer, 1988).

The National Vocational Guidance Association defines work as a "conscious effort, other than having as its primary purposes either coping or relaxation, aimed at producing benefits for oneself and/or others" (Sears, 1982, p. 137).

Work can serve a variety of purposes for people. Some see work as a way to acquire money to buy the material things which they believe will fulfill their needs. Others see work as a way to gain status, identity, and as evidence of success. Some people attempt to fill a sense of order and a sense of being needed by others. Work can also be a method of filling time for

people because they do not feel comfortable with leisure time (Herr & Cramer, 1988). Still others attempt to fill social needs of meeting people and making friends.

Borow (1984) describes what he terms "occupational socialization" as

> the intricate birth-to-death process by which one acquires one's view of the human world and its institutions, one's beliefs, loyalties, convictions of right and wrong, and habitual response modes. The learning is both formal and informal, deliberate and incidental, conscious and unconscious (p. 161).

Contemporary career counseling literature gives many and varied reasons for career changes and dissatisfaction with occupational choices. Among the reasons cited is that the marriage rate is slower, women are getting married later in life, and there is a prevalence of divorce today. The birth rate has declined, and this has caused increases and decreases in the number of workers, affecting both the opportunities open for workers and the types of goods and services in demand for society. This changing occupational structure has caused unemployment and frustration as well as opportunities (Herr & Cramer, 1988).

Individuals tend to define work as good or bad, depending on how it meets their needs. Some types of work do not gratify the particular needs of the people, and they begin to view their work as routine and repetitive, offering limited possibility for personal achievement. In the population of the United States

there are groups of people who are just surviving. These groups are made up of people who are very poor, elderly, poorly educated, depressed, and are lacking the confidence required to take advantage of work opportunities which might improve their lives. Many people are obsessed with gaining materialist goals, seeking the "good life" as described by the media. Still others appear to be less motivated by money and social status, and more motivated to seek new life styles and new identities (Herr & Cramer, 1988).

For the purpose of this paper, the writer defines work as the particular career which an individual chooses in order to provide a livelihood, to seek personal satisfaction, and to fulfill unconscious needs.

Correlates of Career Choice

Why do people seek particular careers, and what do they hope to achieve in those careers? The question of the motivation which influences the individual in his or her career goals is the subject of this study. People enter counseling to change something in their lives. They may want to change their life situation, make a decision, or understand what is happening in their lives. Very often they describe their unhappiness in their chosen careers as a crucial problem. As they gain confidence in themselves, they often want to change careers, but many seem vague about their reasons for changing.

In an attempt to explain the reasons which cause people to be dissatisfied at work, many authors cite early childhood experiences, types of parenting, and environmental influences

as motivation to make career choices.

Hales and Fenner (1973) from a study of sixth-graders have reported findings indicating that values related to work begin to form in childhood and these values enter into preadolescent vocational behavior.

Cooker's research findings (1973) suggest that the valuing process begins in the preschool period. Boys appeared to value such things as money and control more than girls. Girls placed more importance on altruism and helping others. Their evidence showed that "elementary school children have already begun to assimilate perceptions and preferences that may be wholesome and meaningful or distorted and ultimately harmful to aspirations and achievement" (p.. 114).

Miller (1978) examined the childhood antecedents to career maturity attitudes in young adulthood and found some support for the hypothesis that parental attitudes and behavior are positively associated with career maturity attitudes among community college students.

Roles in the Family Structure

The course of an individual's development and his or her occupational choices may be dependent on the birth order of children in a family. The course of one's development is dependent on when one is born, how many others are growing up at the same time and competing for opportunities available, and how sex roles are defined in one's historical time (Herr & Cramer, (1988).

Hotchkiss and Borow (1984) reported the effects of social class on occupations chosen and on other aspects of work identity and career. Of major importance in this work are findings that report that family effects are important predictors of occupational choice and work adjustment. Career statuses, such as education, occupation, and income are passed from generation to generation through a sequence of interpersonal processes.

Family influences, including childrearing patterns and socioeconomic level, also appear to have an effect on occupational choice and on career maturity. Basow and Howe (1979) examined the influences of various models on the careers of 300 randomly chosen college seniors. They found that "parents were the most influential models, and nonparent, nonteacher adults were the least influential. Females were more significantly affected than were males" (p. 243).

Werts (1968), using almost 80,000 college freshmen,

compared fathers' occupations with sons' career choices. His results suggested that "certain groups of occupations, such as physical sciences, social sciences, and medicine are inherited" (p. 50).

In a study of sixth-graders, Creason and Schilson (1970) found that children's expressed occupational preferences are generally higher than their fathers' occupational levels. Schulenberg, Vondracek, and Crouter (1984) found that the childrearing by parents leads to differences in the vocational development of sons and daughters. MacKay and Miller (1982) found that elementary school children from middle and upper socioeconomic backgrounds choose white-collar and professional occupations as goals. Children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds have goals which are more like those of their parents. They report that these attitudes are firmly established by the time the child is in grade 3. They saw a positive relationship between socioeconomic level and complexity of data manipulation in occupational choices.

Emotional and Psychological Needs

In this writer's experience with clients in psychotherapy, it appears that the workplace offers compensation for an individual's emotional and psychological needs. Money is one reward for work, and the meanings of the reward are as varied as people, but there are some styles honed by basic needs that can be identified as the needs for power, love, and security. People attempt to answer some need inside them to attain a confirmation of status, appreciation, worth, and being needed.

In the family there is competition between siblings for attention. This need for recognition and status motivates some people to choose a career in which they believe that need can be satisfied.

Expectations and stereotypes also appear to influence vocational decision-making. Information that people have regarding occupations is often indirect ideosyncratic and sterotypic. Such stereotypes have been found to develop by the beginning of elementary school or earlier (Rosenthau & Chapman, 1980).

Another personality variable that seems to be related to vocational choice is risk-taking. An early work by Ziller (1957) found that there was a significant relationship between vocational choice and a propensity for risk-taking. The person who is open to new experiences and a rejection of tradition may indicate self-confidence in dealing with life contingencies. Witmer and Stewart (1972) reported findings that show that preferences for taking risks reflects general life-style, and those who are open to new experiences may indicate self-confidence in dealing with life.

Webster's dictionary defines status as "relative rank or social position." If the individual's wish to reach the heights is uppermost, then to sit at the "big people's" table, the conference table, with the "big boys" is a goal. To be the boss and to do to the underlings what was done to him or her is the achievement of success (Barbanel, 1985).

To be "looked up to" is what the reward of respect is about. Children literally have to look up to their parents, and they must

respect them. As adults, they will seek to attain the respect which they had to give to others as children. It is better to have the upper hand than to be the one who is punished. Those who know this first hand are motivated to have power and to compensate for painful underlying feelings of helplessness and humiliation (Barbanel, 1985).

Barbanel (1985) suggests from her work with employees in business that power is often crucial to people with a background of rejection by one or both parents or by society. Divorce, death, or deprivation often teach children to depend on themselves. The underlying rage, that fuels the fire of proving one's self-worth, often serves to keep others in line and propels these people to the top.

This need to be at the top will motivate a person to choose a career which will allow him or her to reach that goal of being in a position to have power to control others below him or her. However, many of those who reach the top, and have all those things which they wanted, still do not feel that they are worthwhile as persons. They will often be motivated to seek fulfillment by changing careers as though self-worth can be achieved by a career in another place.

Hilton (1962) stated the belief that career decision-making may occur through the concept of cognitive dissonance. Festinger (1957) defines cognitive dissonance as "the discord introduced into one's perceptions of the world by the observation of events that are grossly at variance with expectations" (Osipow, 1983, p. 317). He believed that attempts

to reduce cognitive dissonance provide a very potent motivating agent behind human behavior.

As people go about making a vocational choice, they may search for environments that they perceive will meet their needs and expectations (Holland, 1973).

Wegscheider (1981) describes the effects of birth order on the role choices of children who are reared in dysfunctional alcholic families. She labels these survival roles as Hero, Scapegoat, Lost Child, and Mascot. The first-born child, Hero, becomes the caretaker of the family, and he or she is found in the caretaking professions such as therapists, social workers, nurses, and doctors. The second child, the Scapegoat, a reverse image of the Hero, gets in trouble and often has difficulty in the work world. The third child, the Lost Child, is described by Wegscheider as the forgotten child, receives little praise for achieving and will be found in careers which reinforce his or her feelingof isolation. The fourth child, Mascot, will be found in careers in which he or she can get attention and please others.

Influences on Women

The career motivations of women are changing slowly. Although some women have made great advances in attaining equality in career choices, the majority have stayed where they were or have actually lost ground. Women are advancing into jobs previously considered male-only jobs, but the "majority of employed women work in only twenty of the 440 occupations classified by the census" (Tavris, & Wade, 1987).

Traditionally, the family encourages females to choose "acceptable" female roles. School curriculums and advisors continue this pattern by encouraging girls to follow certain educational paths, viewed as desirable and possible. Employment practices fulfill this prophesy by hiring women to fill sterotyped feminine positions (Shertzer & Stone, 1988). Women tend to be motivated to prepare for the jobs they can expect to get, even when it means less income. Sex role socialization begins in early childhood and, influenced by family, TV, books and schools, steers women into traditional jobs, and men into traditional male jobs. This influence appears to be more powerful for young adults who grew up in working-class families (Bee, 1987).

Personality/Environment Interaction

Holland (1959) found in his research that individual behavior is a function of the interaction between one's personality and environment. Therefore, people look for those occupational settings that permit expressions of their personality characteristics. These characteristics are a result of the environment of parents, schools, and neighborhoods which reinforce some behaviors more than others and provide different models of suitable behavior. Bee (1987) cites a 25-year longitudinal study done by Huntley and Davis (1983) which found that the "values espoused by a group of men when they entered college and when they completed college were good predictors of their career choices over the next twenty-one years" (p. 215).

Super (1984) states that people choose occupations which permit self-expression, thereby implementing their self-concept. He believes that the family plays a critical role in the formation of the individual's self-concept. Family membership factors determine an individual's social class, financial resources, and attitudes toward work.

Transactional Analysis

Transactional Analysis, a personality theory, conceived by Eric Berne in the mid-1950s, has as its basis the importance of the early childhood experiences and the effects of those experiences on adult life. Berne began to formulate his theory as he noticed that his clients in psychotherapy sessions seemed to react in different ways almost as if they became different people in each new situation. He also observed that the client's responses appeared to be well established and appeared to operate automatically (Lill, 1988).

Transactional Analysis is a "point of view and a theory of personality development, intrapsychic functioning, and interpersonal behavior" (Woollams & Brown, 1978). The analysis of what is going on in people can be seen by dividing the personality into ego states (Defined below). Transactional Analysis describes three active, dynamic, and observable ego states which are labeled the Parent, Adult, and Child. (When capitalized, Parent, Adult, and Child refer to ego states.) Each person has a basic innate need for strokes and recognition, and

will design a life script plan, formed in childhood, and based on early beliefs about one's self and others (Dusay & Dusay, 1984).

TA theory is based on a decisional model. Each individual learns specific behaviors and decides on a life plan while growing up. Although childhood decisions are strongly influenced by parents and others, each individual makes these decisions in his or her own unique style and will make those decisions based on his or her perceptions of what will gain approval from parents (Woollams & Brown, 1978).

Structural Analysis

Definition of ego states. All the various ways that an individual behaves, thinks, and feels are put into three large categories called Parent, Adult and Child (See Appendix A). The Parent ego state is a collection of attitudes, thoughts, behaviors, and feelings which an individual has taken in, and integrated, from those who were considered parent figures or authorities. These parent messages were received by the child at a very early and formative time of life, from birth to about six to eight years of age. One of the primary things which parents do is to define for their children how to perceive and deal with the world. The child is reacting to and recording all the important things that parent figures do. The tone of voice and body language, as well as parents' words, influence how the child will receive and perceive those messages (Woollams & Brown, 1978).

The Adult ego state organizes information, estimates

probabilities and makes logical statements based on facts as the individual knows them. The Adult gathers, stores and uses information from many sources, both externally and internally. The Adult ego state is the rational, thinking part of the personality, and uses such questioning words as who, what, how and why, manifesting itself, nonverbally, through attentive listening, good eye contact, and other gestures signifying contemplative thinking (Lill, 1988).

The Child ego state is the emotional part of the personality, and it is the origin of feelings, creativity, spontaneity and sexuality. This ego state is divided into two parts. The Natural Child is spontaneous without concern for the reactions of other people. The Adapted Child behaves as if a parent were watching, adapting in the ways he or she learned were expected by or acceptable to parent figures. The Child ego state consists of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors which are typical of children or of spontaneous adults (Woollams & Brown, 1978). On a continuum, varying from very compliant to very rebellious, the Adaptive Child adapts to others using the behavior which was reinforced or stroked, in the child's formative years.

The Adult ego state cannot maintain social control in any situation without a certain amount of cooperation from the Child ego state. A failure of social control is usually more an indication that the Child ego state is becoming increasingly upset than that the Adult is not sufficiently programmed or informed (Woollams & Brown, 1978).

As a child is growing up, he or she hears, watches, infers

and experiences the grown-ups around him or her. The child begins to decide how to react to these adults in order to function and survive in the environment. The child unconsciously begins to decide what his or her script is to be. The Somatic Child as described by Woollams and Brown (1978)

> contains memories of past experiences, which are often called tapes, and are stored in the brain in units which may be played back at any time. A typical child memory is a cozy feeling of warmth and comfort while being breast fed. An Adapted Child tape from a later age might be an intense fear experienced when yelled at by Dad for masturbating. (p. 9)

Each individual quickly develops an intuitive, curious, and creative part of the Child ego state, called the Little Professor, which is very interested in him or herself and the world and is available throughout life. The Little Professor thinks intuitively, using subjective rather than logical ways of understanding others. This part attempts to figure out what parents expect, and discovers which behaviors and feelings will gain their approval. The Child then develops a way of behaving, which is reinforced, and eventually, becomes automatic (Woollams & Brown, 1978). It is these decisions, based on subjective guesses, which will influence the ways in which the child will formulate his or her life plan and which will eventually include career choices for adult life (Woollams & Brown, 1978).

Dolliver and Mixon (1977) report their findings of a study which classified occupations with ego states. They demonstrated a correspondence between occupations judged to fit Berne's

(1972) ego state descriptions and Holland's (1966) vocational types. They reframed, in Transactional Analysis terms, Holland's "occupational personality types" which are based on the idea that preferences for occupations are expressions of personality and are a direct product of an individual's life history. Holland described the six basic personality types as Realistic, Investigative, Social, Conventional, Enterprising,and Artistic.

Dolliver and Mixon (1977) found that the Nurturing Parent descriptions fit with the helping professions such as teacher, social worker, minister-priest-rabbi, counselors, psychiatrist/ psychologist, as well as mother and parent. These items correspond to Holland's Social type. Holland's Realistic type was found to be similar to the Critical Parent, and included occupations such as lawyers, police,administrative jobs, and jobs in the armed forces. Occupations in the physical and natural sciences, mathematics and statistics describe the Adult ego state which fits Holland's Investigative type.

The Natural Child ego state fits occupations which are creative, entertaining and playful activities, corresponding to Holland's Artistic type. The Adapted Child occupations are those which require stereotypic, non-assertive or conformist behavior, such as factory work or accountants. The Little Professor fits the role of a salesperson, politician, or artist, and seems to fit Holland's Enterprising type (Dolliver & Mixon, 1977).

Executive power. When an ego state dictates a person's behavior, that ego state is said to have executive power. According to Berne (1977)

> the 'real self' is the part of the personality which is experienced as 'me,' while the executive is the part of the personality which is actually in control. When the 'real self' and the executive are in the same ego state, the person feels congruent with his or her behaviors, and they are said to be ego syntonic. However, when the 'real self' and the executive are in different ego states, the person feels incongruent with his or her behaviors, which are then called dystonic. (p. 32)

The executive ego state which an individual uses most of the time will be determined by the behaviors and attitudes which were stroked by parents and thus reinforced. Thus, the executive ego state, which dictates the individual's behavior, will determine many significant decisions (Berne, 1977).

The basic motivating factor for all human social behavior is a lifelong need for human recognition, which in Transactional Analysis theory is termed strokes. Strokes may be physical, verbal, nonverbal, or symbolic, and as they grow up, children search for ways to get those necessary units of recognition (Dusay and Dusay, 1984).

Life Script. Woollams and Brown (1978) define script as "a personal life plan, upon which an individual decides at an early age, in reaction to his or her interpretation of external and internal events" (p. 151). The individual may make choices either with or without his or her conscious awareness.

Through the child's interactions with parents/parent figures, a pattern of stroking develops, which may be nurturing or critical. From this stroking pattern, the child, at an early point in life, makes a basic existential decision about whether he or she is OK or not OK. Since the interaction of child and parents is the origin of this decision, parents continue to reinforce that position by continuing the reinforcing messages, both verbally and nonverbally (Dusay and Dusay, 1984).

People make script decisions at all ages, but the most important decisions determine a person's basic character structure and are made by six to eight years of age. Trimble (1977) describes the script process when he says that

> Individuals adopt a life script position in early childhood when the Adapted Child ego state makes a firm decision not to do something ever again so as to avoid being abandoned or harmed. Even though it is the parent who supplies the message that sets the life-script, it is the child who decides the injunction, and is thereby responsible for the decision. (p. 300)

Negative, restrictive script messages, called injunctions, are given in early childhood and, in many cases, before the development of language in the child. A parent's injunctions cannot make the child write his or her script in a particular way. It is the child who translates the injunctions that he or she receives, and decides what to do with them. One child may accept an injunction against belonging and become a loner, while another child may find a way to belong and receive nurturing in a friend's family, ingeniously easing the impact of the

injunction. Still another may simply refuse to accept the injunction altogether (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

Categorical injunctions . (See Appendix B for detailed description) Categorical injunctions involve a wide range of behaviors, feelings and thoughts, and several themes emerge which affect the individual's health, economic and educational goals, social relationships and self-actualization. These injunctions prohibit or limit the individual's autonomy, that is, they limit the functions of the Adult (Goulding & Goulding, 1976).

In the category of health injunctions, children get messages that say there is something wrong with them, and perhaps they shouldn't have been born. Children may get nurturing strokes only when they are ill, or for feeling "crazy," as defined by parents. Included in these injunctions are messages which prohibit closeness, both in the family and outside the family.

Injunctions regarding economics and education often prohibit children from learning to think or decide for themselves. They may get permission to think for siblings, or to be smart in school and jobs, but they are made to feel inadequate when they think and decide issues for themselves. These injunctions can prevent children from being in control of their lives and from being successful. Messages to be perfect and to never quite achieve their goals will be found in this area of injunctions (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

Social injunctions are integrated when children are taught

not to trust, belong or need others. The children who receive these injunctions decide that they will have to make it on their own in life. They will feel that others are more important than they are, and will not speak up for themselves. They are stroked for "doing" rather than "being," and they will not acknowledge their own needs (Woollams & Brown, 1978).

Injunctions which prohibit self-actualization prohibit the child's feelings by sending a message that the child's feelings make him or her weak and are inappropriate. The child is given messages that he or she is not lovable or powerful, and that he or she must be careful and not take risks. These messages can squelch the child's natural creativity and curiosity. This child will learn that acting like a child and having fun is inappropriate, and he or she will feel dependent on parents while attempting to be grown up at the same time without receiving healthy support from those parents (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

Parents and parent figures send injunctions, messages to children verbally and nonverbally, through attributions and modeling. Since parents are such significant people in the child's developing life, the parent's messages and modeling are powerful. Parents, older siblings, respected peers and other important persons model how to be a person. Children often believe the modeling is for them and respond to it with a decision. An attribution is a message about what or who a person is. They are powerful messages since they define or label the recipient in some way. The vulnerable child

experiences little room for choice. Some examples of attributions are to label a child as irritating, slow, cute, or bad. The child may be told that he or she never does anything right, that he or she is like a relative who is alcoholic, inferring that the child is a failure (Woollams & Brown, 1978)

Sometimes parents will directly or indirectly indicate to their children what they want from them Examples of this message-giving are statements like, "Keep at it, and don't come back until you have it right." Another might be, "Do your homework, and get ahead in the world" (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

The power with which a message is delivered determines how the child will receive the message and how the child will translate that message, resulting in a decision which becomes part of his or her script. The timing of the message is also important, depending on the age of the child. The power of a message may be increased by the frequency and emotional intensity with which the message is given by parents (Woollams & Brown, 1978).

Script Analysis and Motives for Career Choices

Definition of script. All of these injunctions make up what is called a life-script. Children decide at an early age whether they will accept or reject these messages. Those which they accept will determine how they will live their lives, what their relationships will be like and the kinds of choices they will make about careers. Unless they become aware of the rules by

which they are living, they will continue to use their outdated plan for life (Stewart & Joines. 1987).

Each person makes a series of decisions which are a "compromise between what he or she wants, on the one hand, and vulnerability to outside pressures on the other hand" (Woollams & Brown, 1978, p. 176). These decisions form a comprehensive life plan, or life script. In script theory the term decision is used in a technical sense that is different from the usual dictionary meaning of the word. The child's script decisions are not made in the deliberate thinking way that one asscciates with adult decision-making. The earliest decisions result from feelings, and they are made before the child has words, and are reinforced by parents (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

These script decisions, which may have detrimental effects, influence the individual in adult life and in the success or failure of that individual in his or her occupational life. Successful organizations know that public stroking of employees for jobs done well is good for corporate health and wealth. Newsletters, simple ceremonies, and recognition for accomplishments motivate employees to continue doing a good job. Knowing that it is possible to get "love" in these ways compensates the worker for underlying feelings of unworthiness which originated in childhood (Barbanel, 1985).

In many families love was in short supply, and in some families money was more plentiful than love. A common fantasy that children have as they are growing up is that love

is like a pie, and there are only so many pieces to go around. Some are left with crumbs, which seem better than nothing. These children live with a feeling of scarcity. In a family where the script has prohibitions against closeness, love, and healthy support, money and work may become the only means of communication and recognition (Barbanel, 1985).

Many people, whose only recognition was for producing, will seek recognition in the same ways in the workplace because they are still getting most of their recognition through strokes for producing at work. Still other people feel a sense of worth only when they have money in their pocket. The amount of money they earn, or amass, is directly connected to their perception of their value as a person. This type of script defines success as the accumulation of money and/or possessions (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

For people who grew up in families where there was a lack of both love and money, the need for security, the reliance on money, and the accumulation of more and more of it becomes the answer to all problems. For these people health benefits and retirement plans will frequently compensate for slightly lower salary. When there is fear and anxiety, it is necessary to have protection and safety, and these benefits will be motivations for choices of particular careers (Barbanel, 1985). As people play out their scripts, they are choosing behaviors which will bring them closer to their script payoff.

Process of script development. The theory suggests that the life plan is laid out in the form of a drama, with a clear-

cut beginning, middle, and end. Stewart & Joines (1987) add that

> Another distinctive assertion of script theory is that the life plan culminates in a chosen alternative. When the young child writes his or her life drama, he or she writes the closing scene as an integral part of it. In the technical language of script theory, this closing scene is called the payoff of the script. The theory suggests that, when as adults, we play out our script, we are choosing, without awareness, behaviors which will bring us closer to our script payoff. (p. 100)

Kahler and Capers (1974) describe six script patterns which people tend to follow, thereby determining the way they perceive and structure their lives. The script patterns are designated as follows: After, Almost (over and over), Until, Never, Always, and Open-ended. Most people follow one pattern in their personal lives and a second pattern in their public or professional lives.

A person with the Never script pattern has an overall life play which prevents that person from being able to get what he or she wants, preventing the experience of satisfaction or professional success. A person with an Always script has decided that he or she must continue to keep doing the same thing without changing. The decision is forever. This script pattern might keep that person working in a job which is unfulfilling, fearing that in changing, he or she might make a mistake to which he or she will always be committed (Kahler and Capers, 1974).

A person with the Until script cannot have a reward until some act has been performed, so that the person has to wait for a particular event to occur. A person with an After pattern has decided that, although things may be going well for awhile, eventually, some event or time will occur, after which the script will take over, and the person will encounter troubles or difficulties. A person with an Almost script never quite reaches his or her goals. This pattern is illustrated by the person who "almost" finishes his or her college degree.

There is a great deal of variation in the life styles with Open-ended scripts, since the emphasis is on how long the script lasts rather than how it unfolds. The Open-ended script calls for a person to live out a particular life plan until a certain time or event occurs, after which he or she has no life plan and feels lost and confused. Following any of the six script patterns will determine not only the type of career chosen by an individual, but also, the way he or she can be successful in that chosen career.

Script options are defined by the frame of reference which is initially learned from parents and determines the structure of thinking, problem-solving, and other adaptive behaviors. The frame of reference defines the individual's view of the world and his or her relationship to that world (Schiff & Schiff, 1975).

Berne (1972) described six methods which people use to structure their time which are withdrawal, rituals, pastimes, activities, and intimacy. When an individual's energy is directed toward a goal-oriented task, it is defined as an activity.

Work is one of those activities and involves most of an individual's daily time structure. People tend to operate in their jobs, much as they did in their original families, seeking recognition and rewards by using the same behaviors which they learned as children. In fact, many people receive the same kinds of strokes or rejection, depending on the script pattern they follow (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

Employees, who have a long history of unsuccessful interactions with their supervisors, repeat long-term patterns over and over again. Oppressive injunctions and attributions from parents may carry an intensenegative influence on one's actions for years, and they are often reinforced by their supervisors. The employee, who has a negative frame of reference, will perceive the work situation as very similar to the original family situation. His or her view of other people is contaminated by that frame of reference. When an employee has not resolved those early conflicts, he or she will use same defense mechanisms in a job that he or she used to survive the early conflicts (Chawla, 1983).

If the particular developmental program of a given stage is not resolved, because of a failure of the family environment to respond appropriately to the natural expression of the developmental need, then the ability of the person to meet that particular need in a healthy way in the future will be impaired. (Goulding & Goulding, 1976). If for instance, an individual has not learned to trust people and communicate with them in an honest way, he or she will carry that distrust into the choice of

a career and into the job itself. He or she will have difficulty communicating with supervisors and other employees.

Those, whose frame of reference is negative, will have a low self-image, and will therefore, limit career choices. Many people whose parents who were blue collar workers will choose the same kind of work environments. They will not move any higher, having put an unconscious limit ontheir movement into a higher level of employment because they feel they can not go beyond the status of their parents. The ingredient of self-worth is essential in personal well-being and interpersonal relationships, and in successful careers. Parents who have not felt successful in work or personal life themselves, will model those limits, and they will create an atmosphere which promotes the same sense of failure in their children (Wegscheider, 1981). Among the messages received from parents, are those messages about the parents' definitions of the value of money, success and work.

The parental script messages to females in the family are very influential. Although women in the 1980's have made great strides in obtaining equality in the workplace, some fictions still exist. There are still many jobs which are labeled "women's jobs." They are fewer in number than those labeled "men's jobs," and tend to place women in stereotypic jobs. The family traditionally influences female children toward female roles which are considered acceptable (Bee, 1987). Shertzer and Stone (1980) report that

in many places women may still be seen as weak,

> needing to be sheltered, and intellectually inferior to men, and belong in the home. There is still some thought that women should only work in teaching, nursing, and secretarial jobs, are not good bosses, and are absent from work more frequently than men. (p. 349)

This attitude influences many women not to try for other positions. On the other hand, this attitude may be perceived as a challenge and motivation to some women to reach a higher position to show men she can do it. Either position will be determined by the attitudes which were fostered and reinforced in early family life (Herr & Cramer, 1988).

Given the increase of mid-career changes, and a general dissatisfaction of people in their work, it is appropriate to study the possible influences of early childhood on career choices. The life-script theory of Transactional Analysis shows evidence of the influence of early childhood decisions on choices made in adult life. Based on this theory one would expect that a first-born child, who was raised in a family where he or she received reinforcement for performing as a singer or dancer, would pursue a career on stage in adult life in order to continue to receive the same kinds of strokes. The child, who was a loner, quiet, and withdrawn in his or her family, might be expected to be in a career such as a computer programmer where he or she could work alone and not have to relate much to other people in a personal way.

Statement of Hypothesis

It is the purpose of this study to examine the motivation

of individuals in their choice of a career. This writer's general expectation was that the subject's dominant life-script would be more strongly associated with his or her motivation for career choice than with the particular category entered.

The underlying assumption was that a particular line of work could be selected for a variety of reasons that parallel the pursuit of many different scripts. According to the literature, there is a strong influence imposed upon career choice by aspects and experiences that form personality. As was stated previously, Holland (1959) found in his research that individual behavior is a function of the interaction between one's personality and environment and that, therefore, people look for those occupational settings that permit expressions of their personality characteristics. The range of possibilities stemming from this position, however, is limitless, and, thus, for the purposes of specificity, and in order to keep this project manageable, the decision was made to attempt to focus on one factor that might influence the choice of career in some sort of universal manner. That factor, it was hypothesized, was the executive ego state. The specific hypothesis is that, because the executive ego state represents and/or demonstrates the motivation for career choice, there will be significant correlations between subjects' executive ego states and the selection of particular careers.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were 31 clinical clients, 16 males and 15 females, between the ages of 18 and 55 years, all of whom had voluntarily sought counseling for mild situational problems. Participation by the subjects was entirely voluntary. The only incentives were the promise of reviewing the results of the study and any personal satisfaction that might be derived from the experience of being research subjects in the determination of the motivation behind career choices.

Materials

Holland's (1985) Self-Directed Search (SDS) Summary codes were compared with the script data obtained from each subject. Holland's theory of occupational/personality types was based on the idea that preferences for occupations are expressions of personality and are a direct product of an individual's life history. The occupations in this classification were arranged in a system that uses the code letters (R, I, A, S, E, C). These code letters describe six basic occupational types:

Realistic occupations (R) include skills such as trades, technical, and some service occupations. Investigative occupations (I) include scientific and some technical occupations. Artistic occupations (A) include artistic, musical, and literary occupations. Social occupations (S)

include educational and social welfare occupations. Enterprising occupations (E) include managerial and sales occupations. Conventional occupations (C) include office and clerical occupations.
(Holland, 1981)

The standard utilization of Holland's SDS involves the three-letter codes, which provide descriptions of occupations. For example, the code of ISC for a biologist meant that biologists resembled people in Investigative occupations most of all, that they resembled people in Social occupations somewhat less, and people in Conventional occupations still less. In this way, the codes provide a brief summary of what an occupation is like by showing its degrees of resemblance to three occupational groups. In this study, however, the decision was made to utilize only the primary occupational type in the three-letter code, in the belief that the first type would theoretically exert and/or reflect the most powerful influence (of the three letter codes) on career choice. Also, the use of all three types could produce astronomically unwieldy and potentially distracting and/or irrelevant volumes of statistical data due to the permutations and combinations thereof.

Holland's Self-Directed Search is used to measure the internal consistency coefficients for the assessment scales given for a sample of college students show, with few exceptions, the SDS scales have a moderate degree of internal consistency. For samples of 2,000 to 6,000 college freshmen, KR 20's for the 6 VPI scales in the SDS range from .67 to .94. (p. 46)

The results of the retest reliabilities of the SDS scales for samples of high-school and college students indicate that the SDS summary scales have the highest degree of reliability and that subscales have a lower degree of reliability. Summary scales are formed by adding all R-items, I-items, A-items, S-items, E-items, and C-items.

Holland and Gottfredson (1975) tested the predictive validity of both the SDS summary codes and each part of the SDS. The SDS was given to 894 males and 989 females at entry into colleges and reported their occupational choices at both 1 and 3 years later. These results showed that a "person's high-point code (highest summary scale score) predicted with moderate efficiency the category occupational choice three years later" (p. 47).

The historical data, which were obtained in each subject's beginning therapy session were used as the basis for determining the subject's script messages from modeling by parents and/or those who were doing the parenting. These data were also used in order to determine each subject's executive ego state used in making career choices. When an ego state dictates an individual's behavior, that ego state is said to have executive power (Berne, 1977). The executive ego state becomes a motivating position. The basic tenet underlying this approach was the construct which stated that the executive ego state serves as a motivating postion and/or force which affects the choice of career. Ego states, defined and agreed upon by the raters, were used to determine the executive ego state of each

subject. Those definitions were as follows:

Parent Ego State: This person takes care of others and self, promoting growth, is sympathetic, protective; or is prejudicial, opinionated, moralizing, punitive, judgmental, and may seem bossy, or know-it-all.

Adult Ego State: This person is adaptable, organized, non-prejudicial, a rational person who gathers facts, estimates probabilities, and solves problems.

Child Ego State: This person may be intuitive, affectionate, impulsive, creative, curious, or uninhibited with appropriate affect. This person may be conforming, compliant unassertive, or may withdraw or procrastinate. This person may be manipulative, rebellious, self-centered and use preoperational thinking.

Procedure

These historical data, which were obtained in each subject's beginning session, were used by three raters to determine the subjects' script messages from parents and/or parenting figures. These data were also examined to determine childhood decisions made by each subject as a result of receiving those script messages. This converted information was then utilized by the three raters, independently, to determine the executive ego state of each subject which was functioning as each subject entered therapy.

Definitions of ego states were agreed upon by the three raters and used as criteria in order to relate each subject's occupation to an executive ego state. For instance, if a subject's

script messages indicate that he or she cannot feel important as a person unless he or she is taking care of other people, the subject's executive ego state would fit the definition of the Parent. A subject who wants to control other people in a critical way would also fit the role of Parent. If the subject is rebellious and manipulative, the executive ego state would relate to the Child. If a subject is creative and artistic, this would also fit the Child Ego State. If a subject is very organized and rational, the executive ego state would be the Adult Ego State.

Three clinicians, who were Transactional Analysts, were used as raters to establish the reliability of scores and to minimize the possibility of bias that could occur from using only one rater. The clinicians examined the data which were taken from each subject's first therapy session upon entry in therapy. These historical data were used to determine the subjects' executive ego state as they made their first career choices. The ego states were designated (1) Parent, (2) Adult, and (3) Child. For instance, if the data showed that a subject was operating in the Parent ego state most of the time, the executive ego state was said to be (1). The three raters then examined the historical data independently, and each determined the executive ego state of each subject upon entry into therapy. Each rater's score was then correlated with each of the other two scores and the correlations were averaged to determine that there was consistency in the intake asessments with regard to the determination of the executive ego state for each subject.

Holland's list of occupations in The Occupations Finder, which is used with Holland's Self-Directed Search (1985) were used to match the subject's chosen occupation with Holland's six occupational types, (1) Realistic, (2) Investigative, (3) Artistic, (4) Social, (5) Enterprising, and (6) Conventional. For example, the choice of the occupation of nurse falls in the Social, Conventional, and Investigative types. The second and third types were eliminated and the remaining type was converted to the numbers corresponding to the types, as given above.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The executive ego state of each subject was determined by each of the three clinicians using the previously mentioned criteria in the process of assessing the statements provided to determine which ego state was indicated by the statements to be the strongest.

Using Pearson's "r", a high degree of correlation was found between the three clinician measures. The correlations are summarized in the following table.

Table 1

Inter-Rater Correlations

Rater#1/Rater#2 r=.874
Rater#1/Rater#3 r=.86
Rater#2/Rater#3 r=.845
Mean interrater r= .85966666667= .86

Thus, since the correlations were shown to be so strong, the decision was made that the primary researcher's assessment of executive ego state consistently correlated strongly enough with the others to be considered representative of the three

scores and, therefore, was utilized in further statistical procedures.

There were three categories of Ego State, Parent, Adult and Child, and six categories of occupational types, (1) Realistic, (2) Investigative, (3) Artistic, (4) Social, (5) Enterprising, and (6) Conventional, yielding 18 two by two cell chi-square tables, each having one degree of freedom, (See appendix C, df=1). Each of these tables was set up based on an Ego State and its complement as the row category and an occupational type and its complement as the column category. From these tables 18 chi-square tests were performed. The critical value of chi-square at the alpha level of .05 is 3.84. None of the chi-squares proved to be significant (See Appendix C), so the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, which would indicate that there might be no relationship between the presence of an Executive Ego State and a particular career choice.

Chapter V
Discussion

While most people could probably see intuitively that there are familial influences in career choice and coping skills, and the literature carries many findings which confirm that this is indeed a strong possibility, most efforts to isolate and/or identify the exact nature and/or structure of these influences have failed. This study falls into the same category. Most clinicians would probably be able to find in individual cases some pattern of familial influence of script that would indicate the origins or influences, if not direct causes of career choice and/or coping skills. What frustrates most researchers is that no one has been able to pin down a generalizable pattern that could be utilized in clinical or human resource fields in a constructive or consistent manner. And yet many clinicians are able, through the use of intuitive means, to manage to conceive of, compensate for and assist clients to work through difficulties with occupational situations successfully. Thus, in one more effort to delineate this construct, this researcher attempted to focus on specific parameters of this juggernaut of a theory through the stated hypothesis.

The hypothesis, which stated that there would be significant correlations between subjects' executive ego states and the selection of particular careers, was not supported by the

findings in the study. Although there were strong relationships between the clinician's scores in their assessments of executive ego states, these strengths did not carry through into the rest of the comparisons.

In the attempt to focus on a specific aspect of personality, the presence of a clear executive status in the cathexis of the three ego states was shown to be perceivable in the intake material to the three clinicians. However, the method utilized was novel and, therefore, there might be a more reliable method of assessing the executive status of ego states.

One item of note was that further material derived clinically indicated a lessening or absence of executive status as therapy progressed. This might be explained by the fact that as subjects made changes and redecisions during the process of therapy, they learned to incorporate the other ego states in such a way that there would not be just one ego state in an executive position (Woollams and Brown, 1978, p. 33). Since quite a bit of change in career status and/or change of career was also evident in the population tested, it appeared that the executive ego state would be a promising avenue to pursue. The entry level data appeared at first to lead to a strong indication that the presence of a career choice, even if it is not seen as desirable, and an executive ego state condition might be indicative of the same problem, i.e. the career choice may be an adaptive response to the subject's script injunctions rather than a free choice. However, the career choice and the executive ego state do not appear to be related in terms of specific

predictability or causality. This would indicate that the reason for choosing a career might be more closely related to script than to the actual career choice itself.

The high degree of correlation which was found between the three clinician measures (See Table 1) tends to indicate that the subjects did indeed operate in a particular executive ego state for a majority of the time. This would indicate that, at least, the criteria for the determination of which ego state was executive were clear. Nevertheless, this study did not demonstrate a significant influence of the executive ego state as an isolatable possible motivation for career choice. This would appear to indicate that the role of executive status in an ego state is merely one of a more descriptive nature and not an influential or causal one.

It is possible that, since the executive ego state is formed in response to script messages and/or modeling from parents and/or parent figures, that both the presence of the executive state and the occurrence of an unsatisfactory career choice, may stem from or be caused by the same set of circumstances such that both operate as defense mechanisms (Woollams and Brown, 1978, p. 216). For instance, if a subject operates primarily in the Adult ego state, he or she may react to stimuli, using intellectualization as a defensive mechanism, rather than to act intellectually, as in the case of a deliberate choice for himself or herself. One of the keys here would be that the choices of cathexis of an ego state to executive status and the corresponding career choice might be made almost totally on

the unconscious level, and perhaps without the benefit of a logical conscious process. In this manner intellectualization actually serves as rationalization. Thus, if a subject operates in the Parent ego state, the defensive mechanism may result in a caretaking career, exclusively directed to the needs of others, rather than a free choice of a career made through the influence of the subject's needs and wants. It could also, however, serve unconscious needs of the individual.

A potential script decision occurs when a person decides to discount his or her own needs, wants, or feelings in order to get along. If that decision becomes reinforced and becomes part of a patterned response system that continues to discount the natural self, then he or she has made a script decision (Woollams & Brown, 1978). For example the individual might have a message in his or her script to not be intimate, while simultaneously receiving a message that marriage is a desirable goal. The message regarding intimacy is not socially acceptable and, therefore, probably originates and is maintained unconsciously, while the message regarding marriage is socially acceptable and therefore would tend to be the goal consciously held and pursued. The individual's "real self" and the executive ego state would be in different ego states, causing the person to feel incongruent, or dystonic, in his or her behaviors. (Berne, 1977). Since these messages are conflicting, they would have to be kept separated, possibly through some defense such as splitting. The result might be that the individual gets married with seemingly honest goals of intimacy, but then opts

for a workaholic lifestyle, essentially abandoning his or her spouse or family. The conscious aspect of this conflict would then be much more observable, lending itself more easily to operationalization.

When attempting to apply the scientific method to unconscious processes, as in this case, one runs into problems in trying to make these processes observable. As previously stated, the executive status was chosen as an indicator of one of these processes. However, there is no correlation in the comparison of ego states with job title to personality traits. In an attempt to integrate familial influences, one must apply an almost totally idiosyncratic selection system. In such a process many variables, differing in strength of influence, would have to be considered and the statistical ramifications of this would be staggering, even if these variables could all be known and accounted for. Such a complex process, at least in this study, only shows up in the correlations of data between the clinicians. Thus, the human computer could be better able to assess the predictability of career choice. Unfortunately, without being able to determine why said choice was made, one can never be sure just what the operationalization process produced. Therefore, one cannot say, without using a purely speculative process, exactly what variables are significant, and in what relationship they are significant. For example, in this study, the clinicians were able to integrate more variables into a more flexible model, whereas, Holland's SDS, as strong an instrument as it is, may be limited by rigidity and, therefore, might not be

able to account for idiosyncratic processes. It should also be noted that there have been few successes in this quixotic endeavor by other notable researchers. Perhaps we may claim success only in that another step has been made in the process of elimination.

The findings in this study reiterate the lack of findings in support of Roe (1956) regarding his theories of familial influence. Perhaps if the idiosyncratic process could be fully operationalized cognitively and statistically, these findings might prove stronger. However, either there is a need for the application of intuition, (which is neither consistently reliable nor easily operationalized), or the intuitive process contains no concrete validity, in which case the raters' scores may indicate the measuring of apples, while Holland accounts for the measurement of oranges. In other words the failure of Holland to correlate with clinicians' scores may prove to fail because it is a process of comparing a measure of personality traits to nominal job classifications. While these factors may, indeed, be related, they may not consist of an examination of the same facet of this problem. Similarly, the clinical measures may be in some way related and although this relationship does not prove solid in this study, intuition would still lead to the belief that they are related. Further studies would have to focus on individual cases and their idiosyncrasies. The complexities of this task, however, would appear to place the task in the hands of the individual clinician.

Script Decision-Making

If the executive ego states are formed through an adaptive response to parenting and injunctions from parents, the lack of correlation between executive ego states of subjects and Holland's SDS might be explained thus: The subject's true interests would not correlate with the occupations in which they found themselves. This would create a cognitive dissonance between what they chose as careers and their true interests and needs. Festinger (1957) stated that the attempts of people to reduce cognitive dissonance provide a motivating agent in relation to career decision-making. Thus, since the total script determines the choices which an individual makes, the total script would need to be incorporated into the measurement to determine how an individual makes a career choice. Then, if the individual chooses his or her occupation based on the entire script, chances are that the choice would not be satisfactory because the script would be based on satisfying needs of the parents rather than on the needs of the individual. Indeed, according to Trimble (1977) the adapted child ego state receives an injunction from the parents and makes a decision based upon this injunction. The choice, then, would not be made on the basis of satisfying the real needs of the person. It will instead be based upon satisfying the needs and/or expectations of the parents. Thus, the person might be making a career choice based upon pleasing the parents, and not himself or herself. Regarding this Woollams and Brown (1978) state that

each person makes a series of decisions which area "compromise between what he or she wants on the one hand, and vulnerability to outside pressures on the other hand" (p. 176). As previously mentioned, Stewart and Joines (1987) support this notion, saying that

> Another distinctive assertion of script theory is that the life plan culminates in a chosen alternative. When the young child writes his or her life drama, he or she writes the closing scene as an integral part of it. In the technical language of script theory, this closing scene is called the payoff of the script. The theory suggests that, when as adults, we play out our script, we are choosing, without awareness, behaviors which will bring us closer to our script payoff. (p. 100)

Therapeutic intervention, however, might serve to destroy this attempt to comply with parental injunctions and, thereby, produce cognitive dissonance. According to Festinger (1957), a potent motivating influence behind human behavior is cognitive dissonance. Thus, someone in the middle of therapy might make new choices in order to resolve cognitive dissonance produced by the collapse of defenses such as splitting. Or the individual might resolve the dissonance by changing an attitude or belief within himself or herself. For example let us suppose that a man's mother wanted him to be a doctor. Although he liked the medical field, he might not wish to comply with his mother's control. Therefore, he might become an entomologist, thereby finding a way to please himself and to rebel against mother. However, he might feel that he had made his choice as a reaction to parental

injunctions, and this could cause him to be unhappy in his job. If he were to resolve the issue of his mother's control over his life in therapy, he might then be able to decide that his job choice was indeed appropriate for him and be able to continue in his career, free from the previous condition of rebellion.

Limitations of the Method

As in the case of the aforementioned example, most of the subjects in the study came from dysfunctional families. Therefore, their choices of career would be adaptive, or dysfunctional, being made in relation to the family of origin as a reaction, perhaps, rather than free decisive choices. Although this might explain why so many people change careers after making changes in themselves in therapy, it also might complicate this study in that Holland's occupational categories are based on people who were happy in their careers. Executive ego state choices do not necessarily indicate happy people. In keeping with this train of thought, is the notion that those whose executive ego state was Parent may have been adapting to messages from their parents as a way to continue their script plans. Those with Child executive ego state may have been continuing the symbiosis with parents established in childhood. If this is the case, then Holland might not have been the appropriate measure for an intake assessment. Holland's SDS might be a more appropriate measure to use at an exit point rather than an intake point since it compares the subject to people who are happy in their jobs and one would expect a subject who is finishing therapy to conform to these standards,

while one might expect a subject who is entering therapy to contrast with these standards. By the same token, as has been noted previously, one of the notable traits of a healthy person is the primary lack of executive status of any ego state. Thus, the two measures might be opposite poles with regards to what they are measuring, indicating that some other type of criteria similar in format, perhaps, to Holland's SDS, but one that is designed to measure "normalcy" in career choice for people who are unhappy in their jobs might be more appropriate. The inherent problem in this approach is one that is similar to that which has been found by many researchers in that the choice of career is multi-determined. Therefore, the significance of one factor is often lost in the variance accounted for by other factors. Consequently, an attempt to build an instrument similar to Holland's SDS could be bogged down by the presence of too many other factors that might not be able to be contained in a simple model.

Another problem in the approach of this study is that the executive ego state is not the only factor in an individual's choices. The presence of an executive ego state is based upon early childhood decisions which are determined primarily by external forces exerted by the parent or by the environment. These forces are multitudinous at best. The life-script is decided as the best strategy for surviving and getting needs met in a world that often seems hostile. While this seems obvious, observable, and understandable, the complex web of interplay presented by these forces is overwhelming to

operationalize and has stood so in the face of many and varied attempts to tame it. We must also consider that the literature states in many areas that other factors play into career choice, i.e., talent, skills, opportunities, etc..

Some of the problems that were encountered in this study that may have served to contribute to the failure to find significant relationships were as follows: The sample (N = 31) was too small to accurately measure the trait that was being assessed. The sample was unrepresentative of the measure used, i.e. all the subjects had sought therapeutic help, all the subjects were in one type of therapy--group therapy, the therapy was all the same orientation--TA, and all the subjects were in therapy with the same therapist. In light of these complications some suggestions for additional research would include a written test designed specifically to measure executive ego states, another kind of test to evaluate the script of each subject, the use of stated reasons given by subjects for career choice, a sample of subjects not in therapy to serve as a control group, a much larger sample of 150 or more and a way to measure many variables and/or to control them.

Appendix A
Ego States

Critical Parent		Nurturing parent
Condemning Critical Prejudiced Physical/ Emotional Abuse.	**PARENT**	Loves, nurtures, Takes care of, Sets limits, Makes rules, Controls to protect Good strokes Healthy permissions.
Adult		Adult
No permission to think for self.	**ADULT**	Computer, facts information, logic Probability testing, Good decisions.
Child		Child
Adapt please people, rebel Don't feel Rackets, Games Die, Alcoholic, suicide, Accidents, go Crazy, I'm not OK.	**CHILD**	Free, Natural, Feelings OK, Creative, safe, Fun, belong, Trust, risk, love, be loved, give and take, spontaneous, Playful, I'm OK, Mad, sad, glad, Scared.

Note: Adapted from Wollams And Brown, 1978.

Appendix B

Categorical Injunctions

Health injunctions

1. Don't be: This injunction is received by children in several ways. Some of these are given by parents who commit suicide; by parents who abuse alcohol or drugs; by parents who show the children that they are not safe through accidents, rape, incest, and by parents who leave or abandon the children.

2. Don't be well: This injunction is modeled by parents who are often ill, or who are hypochondriacs. If children are stroked for being ill, instead of for being well, they will decide that this is the way they are supposed to fit into the family. This is the way children learn to be accepted and to get accepted by parents.

3. Don't be sane: In order to accept this injunction, children must not be in touch with feelings, but rather control feelings. Parents may actually tell children that they are crazy, or act crazy. These children may watch a parent acting "crazy," or may get conflicting messages which make children feel crazy.

4. Don't be you: Children who should have been the opposite sex in order to please parents, or who are "supposed' to replace another sibling are often given this message. The children are told to be like someone, or are told they are "like someone." Some girls hear a message from father to be a boy, so that dad does not have to deal with his own sexual feelings about his daughter. Boys may get a message from mother to

be a girl in order to make mother feel safe.

5. Don't be close: This is a very common injunction in many families. It is taught by parents who are afraid to be close to others themselves in order to prevent being emotionally hurt. Sometimes the message is more specific, such as, "Don't be close to men," or "Don't be close to women." Many fathers give this message to daughters who are reaching puberty, and make their fathers feel uncomfortable because of the daughter's physical development. This message makes the father feel safer, but can be interpreted by his daughter as, there is something wrong with her.

Economic and education injunctions

1. Don't succeed: This injunction is given with messages which imply that children must be the best, be perfect, must not make mistakes, will never be good enough, and will never be satisfied. Since children want to please their parents, these messages give children a sense of failure since they are impossible to fulfill.

2. Don't think - Don't be in control: Children who receive these messages are encouraged to let others think for them. They are criticized for questioning and thinking for themselves, so they become dependent on others to control their lives.

3. Don't decide: When children are blamed for mistakes and failures, or they are taught to ask others what to do, instead of being encouraged to decide for themselves. They

feel that their decisions are inadequate and will be wrong unless others tell them that they are right. These children will grow up staying on the fence, unable to determine what they want to do, or should do, thereby becoming stuck at an impasse.

Don't be smart: Messages like, "You are dumb, stupid, or ridiculous," give children the feeling that they are not smart and cannot think or be creative.

Social injunctions

1. Don't trust: Children sense when they are not safe with adults around them. They will decide to be careful about what they say or show to them. Children can also get the message when people don't validate what they hear, see, or feel.

2. Don't need anyone: This message is integrated when children feel that no one will be there for them. When they have to act grown up, take care of other children, and do things before they can do so legitimagely, or should have to do so, children decide that they will not or cannot need anyone else.

4. Don't be important or compete: These children grow up feeling that others are always more important and must come first. They will not speak up for themselves , and will take care of others, putting themselves last. They are stroked for "doing'" instead of "being." They do not acknowledge their own needs, and they give away their power to others. They discount their own feelings in order to follow this injunction.

Self-actualization injunctions

1. Don't show feelings or acknowledge them - don't give up control: These children do not receive touch nor see feelings expressed in their families. They are told not to cry or be angry, or that feelings are silly, ridiculous, weak, or childish. They are often told that they don't feel what they say they feel. Usually, these feelings from a child make parents feel uncomfortable or inadequate.

2. Don't hear: This injunction is accepted when children hear so many negative things that they "tune them out", so that they won't have to take in the sad, scary, or angry things going on in the family.

3. Don't see or look: When children are taught that they shouldn't see what is going on, such as angry faces, or parents hiding something, they will integrate a message not to see.

4. Don't take risks: These children had a parent who was really frightened that his or her children would be hurt. These parents will be over-protective and give messages to be careful, watch out, and don't try that or something will happen. Therefore, the children will grow up being careful not to try something new and avoiding situations which involve any risk.

5. Don't be lovable: These children are given messages that they are ugly, too skinny, too fat, too tall or too short, pimply, sloppy, or awkward. They are told directly and subtly that their physical qualities are unlovable. One way of following this injunction would be through becoming obese or anorectic.

6. Don't: This injunction is given by parents who say "no" to almost everything It can be a "feeling" of "don't" as perceived by children.

7. Don't be powerful: When parents feel threatened by powerful children, they give messages to those children which tell them not to be physically or mentally strong. These children will grow up unwilling to insist, or persist, in their own values and beliefs.

8. Don't have fun: These children are taught that to have fun or make noises is a waste of time and childish. This message is received through parents' disapproving words or looks. This injunction also includes the message that it is not all right to enjoy themselves until all the work is done.

9. Don't grow up: This injunction results in helplessness and dependency. It is often given by parents who need to keep their children dependent on them, so that they won't have to let go of them. This message causes children to discount their feelings, discount their ability to think and act, and it causes children to deny their own autonomy.

10. Don't be a child: This message comes from parents who have not grown up themselves. Children may be given the job of raising their siblings, or of taking care of parents who won't be adult themselves. Many battered children are given this message (Stewart & Joines 1988).

Appendix C

Key

R = Realistic
I = Investigative
A = Artistic
S = Social
E = Enterprising
C = Conventional

1.	R	Not R	Total
Parent	0	15	15
Not Parent	2	14	16
Total	2	29	31

2.	R	Not R	Total
Adult	0	1	1
Not Adult	2	28	30
Total	2	29	31

3.	R	Not R	Total
Child	2	15	17
Not Child	0	14	14
Total	2	29	31

4.	I	Not I	Total
Parent	2	15	17
Not Parent	3	13	16
Total	5	26	31

5.	I	Not I	Total
Adult	0	1	1
Not Adult	5	25	30
Total	5	26	31

6.	I	Not I	Total
Child	3	11	14
Not Child	2	15	17
Total	5	26	31

7.	A	Not A	Total
Parent	1	14	15
Not Parent	2	14	16
Total	3	28	31

8.	A	Not A	Total
Adult	0	1	1
Not Adult	3	27	30
Total	3	28	31

9.	A	Not A	Total
Child	2	13	15
Not Child	1	15	16
Total	3	28	31

10.	S	Not S	Total
Parent	6	9	15
Not Parent	3	13	16
Total	9	22	31

11.	S	Not S	Total
Adult	0	1	1
Not Adult	9	21	30
Total	9	22	31

12.	S	Not S	Total
Child	3	12	15
Not Child	6	10	16
Total	9	22	31

13.	E	Not E	Total
Parent	6	9	15
Not Parent	6	10	16
Total	12	19	31

14.	E	Not E	Total
Adult	1	0	1
Not Adult	11	19	30
Total	12	19	31

15.	E	Not E	Total
Child	5	10	15
Not Child	7	9	16
Total	12	19	31

16.	C	Not C	Total
Parent	0	15	15
Not Parent	0	16	16
Total	0	31	31

17.	C	Not C	Total
Adult	0	1	1
Not Adult	0	30	30
Total	0	31	31

18.	C	Not C	Total
Child	0	15	15
Not Child	0	16	16
Total	0	31	31

Appendix C

Chi-square 1

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	2.0043	p = .1569
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.2464	
Phi:	.2543	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.4682	p = .4938

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	15	15
Row 2	2	14	16
Totals:	2	29	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	12.5%	87.5%	100%
Totals:	6.45%	93.55%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	
Row 1	0%	51.72%	48.39%
Row 2	100%	48.28%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

Row 1	.97	14.03	15
Row 2	1.03	14.97	16
Totals:	2	29	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

Row 1	-1.42	1.42
Row 2	1.42	-1.42

Appendix C

Chi-square 2

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.0713	p = .7895
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0479	
Phi:	.0479	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	3.247	p = .0716

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	1	1
Row 2	2	28	30
Totals:	2	29	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	6.67%	93.33%	100%
Totals:	6.45%	93.55%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	3.45%	3.23%
Row 2	100%	96.55%	96.77%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	.06	.94	1
Row 2	1.94	28.06	30
Totals:	2	29	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	-.27	.27
Row 2	.27	-.27

Appendix C

Chi-square 3

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	1.7606	p = .1845
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.2318	
Phi: .2383		
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.3509	p = .5536

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	2	15	17
Row 2	0	14	14
Totals:	2	29	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	11.76%	88.24%	100%
Row 2	0%	100%	100%
Totals:	6.45%	93.55%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Columr Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	100%	51.72%	54.84%
Row 2	0%	48.28%	45.16%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1.1	15.9	17
Row 2	.9	13.1	14
Totals:	2	29	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	1.33	-1.33
Row 2	-1.33	1.33

Appendix C

Chi-square 4

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.1679	p = .682
G Statistic:	.1691	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0734	
Phi:	.0736	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.0062	p = .9372

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	2	13	15
Row 2	3	13	16
Totals:	5	26	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	13.33%	86.67%	100%
Row 2	18.75%	81.25%	100%
Totals:	16.13%	83.87%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	40%	50%	48.39%
Row 2	60%	50%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	2.42	12.58	15
Row 2	2.58	13.42	16
Totals:	5	26	31

Post-Hoc Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	2.42	12.58	15
Row 2	2.58	13.42	16
Totals:	5	26	31

Appendix C

Chi-square 5

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.1987	p = .6558
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0798	
Phi:	.0801	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.8763	p = .3492

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	1	1
Row 2	5	25	30
Totals:	5	26	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	16.67%	83.33%	100%
Totals:	16.13%	83.87%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	3.85%	3.23%
Row 2	100%	96.15%	96.77%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	.16	.84	1
Row 2	4.84	25.16	30
Totals:	5	26	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	-.45	.45
Row 2	.45	-.45

Appendix C

Chi-square 6

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.0835	p = .7726
G Statistic:	.0829	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0527	
Phi:	.0528	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.064	p = .8003

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	2	11	13
Row 2	2	15	17
Totals:	4	26	30

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	15.38%	84.62%	100%
Row 2	11.76%	88.24%	100%
Totals:	13.33%	86.67%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	50%	42.31%	43.33%
Row 2	50%	57.69%	56.67%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1.73	11.27	13
Row 2	2.27	14.73	17
Totals:	4	26	30

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	.29	-.29
Row 2	-.29	.29

Appendix C

Chi-square 7

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.3014	p = .583
G Statistic:	.3075	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0981	
Phi:	.0986	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.0035	p = .9531

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1	14	15
Row 2	2	14	16
Totals:	3	28	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	6.67%	93.33%	100%
Row 2	12.5%	87.5%	100%
Totals:	9.68%	90.32%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	33.33%	50%	48.39%
Row 2	66.67%	50%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1.45	13.55	15
Row 2	1.55	14.45	16
Totals:	3	28	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	-.55	.55
Row 2	.55	-.55

Appendix C

Chi-square 8

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.1107	p = .7393
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0597	
Phi:	.0598	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	1.9221	p = .1656

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	1	1
Row 2	3	27	30
Totals:	3	28	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	10%	90%	100%
Totals:	9.68%	90.32%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	3.57%	3.23%
Row 2	100%	96.43%	96.77%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	.1	.9	1
Row 2	2.9	27.1	30
Totals:	3	28	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	-.33	.33
Row 2	.33	-.33

Appendix C

Chi-square 9

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1		
Total Chi-Square:		.4444	p = .505
G Statistic:		.4505	
Contingency Coefficient:		.1189	
Phi:		.1197	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:		.0035	p = .9531

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	2	13	15
Row 2	1	15	16
Totals:	3	28	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	13.33%	86.67%	100%
Row 2	6.25%	93.75%	100%
Totals:	9.68%	90.32%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	66.67%	46.43%	48.39%
Row 2	33.33%	53.57%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1.45	13.55	15
Row 2	1.55	14.45	16
Totals:	3	28	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	.67	-.67
Row 2	-.67	.67

Appendix C

Chi-square 10

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	1.6968	p = .1927
G Statistic:	1.7185	
Contingency Coefficient:	.2278	
Phi:	.234	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.8221	p = .3646

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	6	9	15
Row 2	3	13	16
Totals:	9	22	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	40%	60%	100%
Row 2	18.75%	81.25%	100%
Totals:	29.03%	70.97%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	66.67%	40.91%	48.39%
Row 2	33.33%	59.09%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	4.35	10.65	15
Row 2	4.65	11.35	16
Totals:	9	22	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	1.3	-1.3
Row 2	-1.3	1.3

Appendix C

Chi-square 11

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.4227	p = .5156
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.116	
Phi:	.1168	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.2205	p = .6387

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	1	1
Row 2	9	21	30
Totals:	9	22	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	30%	70%	100%
Totals:	29.03%	70.97%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	4.55%	3.23%
Row 2	100%	95.45%	96.77%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	.29	.71	1
Row 2	8.71	21.29	30
Totals:	9	22	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	-.65	.65
Row 2	.65	-.65

Appendix C

Chi-square 12

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	1.151	p = .2834
G Statistic:	1.169	
Contingency Coefficient:	.189	
Phi:	.193	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.458	p = .4985

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	3	12	15
Row 2	6	10	16
Totals:	9	22	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	20%	80%	100%
Row 2	37.5%	62.5%	100%
Totals:	29.03%	70.97%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	33.33%	54.55%	48.39%
Row 2	66.67%	45.45%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	4.35	10.65	15
Row 2	4.65	11.35	16
Totals:	9	22	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	-1.07	1.07
Row 2	1.07	-1.07

Appendix C

Chi-square 13

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.0204	p = .8864
G Statistic:	.0204	
Contingency Coefficient:	.0256	
Phi:	.0256	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.0511	p = .8211

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	6	9	15
Row 2	6	10	16
Totals:	12	19	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	40%	60%	100%
Row 2	37.5%	62.5%	100%
Totals:	38.71%	61.29%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	50%	47.37%	48.39%
Row 2	50%	52.63%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	5.81	9.19	15
Row 2	6.19	9.81	16
Totals:	12	19	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	.14	-.14	
Row 2	-.14	.14	

Appendix C

Chi-square 14

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	1.6361	p = .2009
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	.2239	
Phi:	.2297	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.0555	p = .8137

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1	0	1
Row 2	11	19	30
Totals:	12	19	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	100%	0%	100%
Row 2	36.67%	63.33%	100%
Totals:	38.71%	61.29%	100%

Apperdix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	8.33%	0%	3.23%
Row 2	91.67%	100%	96.77%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	.39	.61	1
Row 2	11.61	18.39	30
Totals:	12	19	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	1.28	-1.28	
Row 2	-1.28	1.28	

Appendix C

Chi-square 15

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	.3541	p = .5518
G Statistic:	.3553	
Contingency Coefficient:	.1063	
Phi:	.1069	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	.0511	p = .8211

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	5	10	15
Row 2	7	9	16
Totals:	12	19	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	33.33%	66.67%	100%
Row 2	43.75%	56.25%	100%
Totals:	38.71%	61.29%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	41.67%	52.63%	48.39%
Row 2	58.33%	47.37%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	5.81	9.19	15
Row 2	6.19	9.81	16
Totals:	12	19	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	-.6	.6	
Row 2	.6	-.6	

Appendix C

Chi-square 16

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	•	p = •
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	•	
Phi:	•	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	•	p = .0001

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	15	15
Row 2	0	16	16
Totals:	0	31	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	0%	100%	100%
Totals:	0%	100%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	0%	100%	100%
Totals:	0%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	0%	100%	100%
Totals:	0%	100%	100%

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	•%	48.39%	48.39%
Row 2	•%	51.61%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Appendix C

Chi-square 17

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	•	p = •
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	•	
Phi:	•	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	•	p = .0001

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	1	1
Row 2	0	30	30
Totals:	0	31	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0%	100%	100%
Row 2	0%	100%	100%
Totals:	0%	100%	100%

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	•%	3.23%	3.23%
Row 2	•%	96.77%	96.77%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	1	1
Row 2	0	30	30
Totals:	0	31	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	•	•
Row 2	•	•

Appendix C

Chi-square 18

Contingency Table Analysis

Summary Statistics

DF:	1	
Total Chi-Square:	•	p = •
G Statistic:	•	
Contingency Coefficient:	•	
Phi:	•	
Chi-Square with continuity correction:	•	p = .0001

Observed Frequency Table

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	15	15
Row 2	0	16	16
Totals:	0	31	31

Percents of Row Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	15	15
Row 2	0	16	16
Totals:	0	31	31

Appendix C

Percents of Column Totals

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	•%	48.39%	48.39%
Row 2	•%	51.61%	51.61%
Totals:	100%	100%	100%

Expected values

	Column 1	Column 2	Totals
Row 1	0	15	15
Row 2	0	16	16
Totals:	0	31	31

Post-Hoc Cell Contributions

	Column 1	Column 2
Row 1	•	•
Row 2	•	•

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