CAREER DECISION-MAKING DIFFICULTIES OF THE TRANSITION FROM MILITARY TO CIVILIAN SECTOR

by

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Under the Direction of Clifton Smith

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived career decision-making difficulties of individuals transitioning from the military to civilian sector at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia from the spring and early summer of 2004. The dependent variables used in this study came from the three major categories in the Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ): lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information. The independent variables used in this study were taken from the selected demographics of the study participants: age, gender, education level, marital status, military rank, and reason for leaving the military. Of the six independent variables, age and gender were the two to show statistically significant differences in all three major categories of the CDDQ instrument. Findings from the study revealed that 50+ year old respondents reported more difficulty in transitioning from the military to civilian sector compared to their younger counterparts. Findings also revealed that males experienced more difficulties in transitioning from the military to civilian sector than did their female

counterparts. This knowledge could contribute to building more effective tools for future transitioners in the areas of readiness and information gathering that could eventually lead them to more effective and consistent information. While this study focused on those transitioning from the military to civilian sector immediately prior to leaving the military, more research needs to identify the transitioners' career decision-making difficulties six months to one year after leaving the military.

INDEX WORDS: Transition; career decision-making.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Since those leaving the Air Force today, either through retirement or separation, are relatively young in age, they find it necessary and desirable, to seek continued employment in the civilian sector. In making the decision to continue in the workforce, most have another important decision to make – choice of a career.

Department of Defense (DoD) officials recognized the need to provide transition assistance to personnel leaving active military duty (Third Quadrennial Review of Military Compensation, 1976). Each branch of the military service has developed its own plan to assist and prepare separating and retiring service members for the civilian labor market. Since DoD guidance was general in nature, it may have resulted in programs operating quite differently at each military branch's locale. However, one constant is the steady stream of military personnel transitioning to the civilian workforce.

Transition assistance programs (TAP) are made available for all personnel leaving military service. It is not a requirement for all personnel to attend. Since some service members delay program attendance until they are at the end of their contract, it's important that the program be able to identify individual career decision-making difficulties and concerns as early as possible in the transition process.

The military retirement system is unique. It provides the opportunity for service members to retire at an early age, thereby giving them the possibility to pursue a second career in the civilian world and, if not a second career, then a potentially lengthy post-military life. Identifying one's career decision-making difficulties during this very important life-changing transition is the focus of this study.

Anxiety has been identified as a common factor experienced by those transitioning before actual separation from the military, and their subsequent lifestyles may not be as well defined after leaving the military (Auster, 1992). Accepting this change in lifestyle, or not, is a source of the anxiety. Stability that had been provided by a secure job must now be found elsewhere and this may be a new experience for some people.

Within the context of today's rapidly changing world, especially the world of work, military retirees and those separating from military service are faced with critical decisions (i.e.; job retraining; career changes; geographical change in order to find work; uprooting immediate family members) as they transition into the civilian world. What actions these men and women take to prepare for that move affect how well they adapt to this new environment. Because many retirees or separatees enter the civilian job market after they leave the military either out of choice, necessity, or both, the U.S. Air Force has instituted a pre-retirement program aimed at helping those with an approved retirement or separation date in preparing for civilian employment.

Although there may be growing similarities between the military and the civilian world with the transition at the same age (early to mid-40s) for a management level worker who is out placed as a result of corporate changes, there are several fundamental differences that make the former unique. One of those differences is the military's own legal system to which its members are accountable as well as to the existing civilian legal system. The military legal system with very stringent laws against things like fraternization between senior and junior personnel legitimizes the myriad of regulations that govern almost every aspect of military life. Although other organizations in the government and civilian world have regulations, the scope of their control is not as extensive. One further difference is the manner in which military personnel gain

their positions. For the majority, they are more or less ordered to take certain positions. Although individuals may try to maneuver to obtain the most desirable position possible, they do not apply or interview for that job, nor do they have much say in where they will perform that job. Even though these are hardships that may be faced in the current corporate world, the military member does not generally have the option that the civilian employee has to quit and seek employment elsewhere without losing his or her vestment (at least until they have 20 years of service and can retire).

Differences between the military and civilian world may be somewhat exaggerated to highlight the difficulty of making the transition after retirement. There may be strong similarities between the military retiree and the middle-aged out placed worker, but there are some fundamental differences that have definite potential for complicating the transition for the military retiree and his or her family. For example, from day one, the military member is taught "service before self," in direct contrast to the necessity for the military transitioner to do the reverse prior to leaving the military.

Independent Variable

The independent variables used for this study were the selected demographic information obtained from participants (i.e., participants' ages, gender, education level in years, marital status, military rank, and reason(s) for leaving the military service).

Dependent Variables

The three dependent variables for this study were: lack of readiness on the part of the individual to begin career decision-making processes; lack of information; and inconsistent information. Also, these three major categories have within them ten difficulty categories that

were also studied. More in depth information on the dependent variables can be found in the literature review of this document.

Purpose of Study

This causal-comparative study identified the career decision-making difficulties of individuals who participated in the military transition assistance program at Robins Air Force, Georgia during the spring and early summer of 2004. The study examined the perceived career decision-making difficulties, lack of readiness on part of the individual to begin the career decision-making process; lack of information; and inconsistent information of the participants immediately prior to program participation.

Research Questions

The following key research questions were used to guide the study:

1. To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and the lack of readiness from the individual to begin career decision-making?
2. To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and the lack of information that may affect individual decision-making?
3. To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and inconsistent information that may affect individual decision-making?

Theoretical Framework

While Super's (1957, 1977, 1982) theory of vocational choice hinges on the idea that people tend to choose jobs that implement their self-concepts, and Holland's (1985) work showed that the choice of vocation is an expression of global personality types, Granovetter (1980) examined occupational choice within a social networks framework informed by labor market theory and economic notions of rational behavior. This study's theoretical framework comes from work done by Gati, Krausz, and Osipow (1996). They developed a taxonomy for understanding the various difficulties contributing to career indecision. In their taxonomy, a basic distinction is made between career decision-making difficulties occurring prior to the beginning of the career decision-making process and those occurring during the career decision-making process itself. Gati et al. identified three theoretical categories of career decision-making difficulties that they believed contributed to a lack of readiness to begin the career decision-making process. The three categories were: a lack of motivation on the part of the individual to begin career decision-making; a general indecisiveness that permeates all types of decision-making for the individual; and various beliefs in dysfunctional career decision-making myths (e.g., career decisions are best made by experts).

Delimitations

Prior to September 11, 2001, and the subsequent War on Terrorism, there were larger numbers of participants using the military transition assistance program workshop. However, due to the need for specific military specialties, military members planning to separate or retire have chosen to remain or have been mandated to remain in the Air Force until further notice. Additionally, since the onset of America's current economic recession, those normally separating

or retiring from military service have elected to remain. On other delimitation was the stratification of age groups selected within the age independent variable.

Within the military one learns quickly not to volunteer for fear of being on the receiving end of an unpleasant experience. However, use of services of the military Transition Assistance Program (TAP) (a voluntary venture), most do not hesitate to take part in the exercises since they are eager to learn how to make a successful transition from the military to civilian sector, i.e., volunteering to complete this study's measurement tool, the Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ).

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is two-fold. First, with the strong probability of military retirees and separatees living longer and needing or desiring to continue gainful employment, programs such as the services of the military TAP are necessary in assisting those with career needs to change occupations and life roles. Regardless of whether one thinks that career development in the military is *institutionally-driven* or whether those same careers are seen as occupations, the experience base of those transitioning from the military to civilian status cannot be overlooked. Of course, there are parallels between military members transitioning to the civilian sector and those in corporate America being phased out because of technological advancements. Essentially, the career decision-making difficulties of those facing this life-changing experience must not go unnoticed or unmet. The second reason for the significance of this study is that there are few studies of its kind using military personnel as study participants.

Definition of Terms

Military retirement. One can choose the option to *retire* after 20 years of active military service. Theoretically, someone as young as 37 years old could reach military retirement eligibility.

Pre-retirement planning. Programs range from brief individual or group meetings that outline the benefits for which the future retiree is eligible to more elaborate programs taking several days (Kasschau, 1974).

Role transition. The key element that defines role transition is the stress created by the change in position, the change in behavior, or the interaction of the two (Biddle & Thomas, 1966).

Career decision-making. In summary, the process whereby an individual gathers information about his or her likes and dislikes, personal temperament, and aptitude, and makes a decision based on those assessments.

Process of occupational choice. The process involves five steps: (a) assessing one's self; (b) researching careers; (c) experiencing careers; (d) making a choice or decision; and (e) periodically evaluating that choice.

Life satisfaction. According to Andrews and Withey (1976), life satisfaction or quality of life is "… not just a matter of the conditions on one's physical, interpersonal and social setting but also a matter of how these are judged and evaluated by oneself and others -- the values that one brings to bear on life are in themselves determinants of one's assessed quality of life" (p. 12).

This chapter introduced the study, identified its purpose and research questions, and its theoretical framework. It further provided delimitations of the proposed study, terms, introduced

the independent and dependent variables and the significance of the study. The purpose of the study is to examine the perceived career decision-making difficulties of military members from Robins Air Force, Georgia, within six months of leaving the military. Three research questions were discussed with emphasis in finding comparisons to independent variables (i.e., grade; age; gender; etc) and dependent variables (i.e., lack of readiness; lack of information; and inconsistent information). The study's theoretical framework further identified career decision-making difficulties believed to contribute to a lack of readiness to begin the career decision-making process. The possibilities of fewer numbers of study participants due to the War on Terrorism and the down turn in our nation's economy were discussed as delimitations to study's findings. Definitions for six common terms used within the context of this study were shown.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

A review of the literature was undertaken to establish a need for the study and to assist in determining the appropriate research methodology. This chapter contains six sections: (a) Historical Context of the Military Transition Assistance Program; (b) Previous Studies of the Military Transition Assistance Program; (c) Life Satisfaction and Career Decision-Making; (d) Instrumentation in Career Decision-Making; (e) Validity and Reliability of the Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire; and (f) Summary.

Historical Context and Previous Studies of the Military Transition Assistance Program

Without knowledge of the evolution and prior history of the military transition assistance program, it's difficult to grasp where it is now. Today's program has changed a great deal from its earlier roots in 1968. Project Transition was started in 1968 by the Department of Defense (DoD), at the urging of President Johnson, to help the Vietnam veteran make the transition back into the civilian world (Eastlack, 1973). Although this was a DoD wide program, each branch of service administered its own version of the program. The earlier objectives of this program were threefold. The first objective was to insure that all who were separating from the military were informed of benefits available in both the civilian community and Air Force. The second objective was to provide participating separatees with information and counseling on careers, education and training opportunities, as well as job placement assistance. Finally, this program was intended to enable those eligible to obtain a skill marketable in the civilian job sector before leaving the Air Force (Eastlack, 1973). All personnel within six months of voluntary separation were eligible for Project Transition, but those with the rank of E-7 or below who did not have marketable job skills were given the highest priority. This program consisted of opportunities for

training, either classroom or on-the-job, during the last six months prior to separation from the military (Traudt, 1974). Although Project Transition was intended to assist the separating Vietnam veteran, the retiring military member was also included. It was the apparent abuse by those retiring from the military, along with the misuse of trainees by the cooperating industries, which led to the cancellation of this program in 1974 (McNeil, Lecca & Wright, 1983; Traudt, 1974).

The other program developed by DoD, which was designed specifically to help retirees, was Project Referral. This program, lasting two years from 1970 to 1972, was an offshoot of Project Transition. It combined counseling with a computerized program, which matched the participating military retiree's experience with jobs requested by the civilian sector (Traudt, 1974). Members were eligible to register in the program six months before they retired and their name was kept in the computer for six months after they retired. The computer portion of this program ended in 1972 due to lack of funding (Eastlack, 1973), but the counseling remained.

The initial mandatory retirement briefing was given regularly at base level to active duty personnel retiring from that base. The duration of the briefing varied, but was generally less than one day. It was usually led by personnel specialists and included information about Veterans Administration (VA) benefits, veteran's life insurance, survivor's benefits, educational benefits from the GI Bill, rules governing employment with the Federal government, and other general information about retirement benefits. The effectiveness of these briefings varied from base to base and depended upon the emphasis placed on the briefing by personnel and the relative number of men and women retiring from that base each year.

The military transition assistance program, as it is now known, was initiated at the request of the Department of Defense's Personnel Program Management Office in 1986. The intent was

to prepare retiring and separating Air Force personnel to compete more effectively for mid-management level jobs in the civilian sector. In a 1987 Air Force survey of 3800 members, 82% of those responding indicated the need to establish a transition-counseling program, which provided further impetus for this effort (Forbes, 1988). Four sites were selected in the summer of 1987 to test possible programs. Two sites received a 1-day version and the other two sites received a 3-day version of seminars, which were conducted by a private contractor, Drake Beam Morin (DBM), Inc., a firm specializing in career transition services. DBM's primary function was to assist in the *out placement* of terminated employees from corporations making reductions in their work force. DBM's services focus was on assistance, guidance and support throughout the job search process and for it to generally continue until the client had found new employment. The company reducing its workforce paid for services. The program provided to the Air Force retirees was a one-time seminar with no follow-up services provided by DBM. The 3-day version was chosen and the material was adapted to the needs of a military population, including spouse participation, with emphasis on formulating a resume, interviewing techniques and networking. It was decided to proceed with approximately 20 programs for FY 1988, with future expansion depending on the availability of funding (Forbes, 1988). Since the late 1980s, numerous studies have been conducted on the subject of military transition assistance programs.

Previous Studies of the Military Transition Assistance Program

The literature review showed a relatively small number of previous studies conducted using military personnel as participants. In one of those studies, Wells (1998) examined the perceived transition needs of the participants prior to program participation, their value of the program content upon completion, and participant satisfaction with the program overall. The items most valued by participants after going through TAP were knowledge, practice, and resources of

getting a job. Satisfaction with TAP as a program was based on whether individual needs had been satisfied or not. The item that had the most satisfaction expressed was the segment on job interviews. This segment included class time as well as mock job interviews involving participant preparation.

Strong's (1996) study dealt primarily with the development of an assessment questionnaire, which highlighted critical factors in the functioning of the military family. It further identified transition periods where military families are likely to derail from the progressing life cycle (deployments, relocations, retirement, mobility and war). Her assessment of the transition process was broken into three stages: (a) pre-retirement; (b) role confusion; and (c) adjustment/maladjustment. While experiencing each of those stages, she learned that the transitioners must complete each of them before moving on to a successful transition.

Webb's (1990) study focused on determining whether leadership traits or characteristics developed in the military by officers in the grade of Major/Lieutenant Colonel to Colonel/Captain (USN) affected the transition to successful performance as civilian managers upon separation from the military. His study found that: (a) the lower the former officer's rank upon leaving the military, the higher appeared to be his or her perception of having successfully adapted to the civilian leadership environment; and (b) former officers perceived the military environment to be more honest, nonpolitical, structured, bureaucratic, collegial, trusting and having clearer communications than the civilian business world. They believed the civilian business world to be more efficient in utilizing its resources and more participative than the military environment. Further, he learned that former officers perceived that their military training adversely affected their transition in the areas of communications, problem solving, decision making, and that trust with civilian counterparts was not easily established; and fourth,

the existing military separation preparation and counseling appeared to be inadequate and was not being used by a majority of the officers.

Touris' (1996) study focused on evaluating the effectiveness of the TAP as perceived by selected participants located at Air Force bases located in the Pacific. Touris' findings led to the following conclusions: (a) members participating in the TAP are satisfied with the services received prior to their separation; (b) services provided by TAP are very helpful to separating military members in adjusting to civilian life; (c) based on the low return rate of the post-separation survey forms, it could not be determined whether the services provided by TAP were helpful or not to separating military members in finding employment; and (d) because of the low response rate to the post-separation survey forms (19%), it could not be determined whether the level of formal education contributed to attainment of employment of separating military personnel.

Pinch's (1987) research predicted that role/status factors would be most determinant of occupational status attainment. The results of his study proved to be non-conclusive since the sub-sample (commissioned officers and non-commissioned officers) showed a difference in the importance of some independent variables (problems/no problems being over qualified for civilian job vacancies, etc).

Owens' (1987) study showed the importance for attitude, value, and belief formation for those experiencing role and career transitioning. Also, Perreault (1981) addressed the relationship of satisfaction with the shifts in the self-concept to the extent of mid-life transition concerns, degree of career change, and perception of well-being.

Life Satisfaction and Career Decision-Making

Life satisfaction is sometimes equated with quality of life, or it is seen as part of subjective well-being along with the concept of happiness. There are distinctions made between the definitions of life satisfaction and happiness. Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) describe the distinction by stating that satisfaction implies a judgmental or cognitive experience, while happiness suggests an experience of feeling or affect. George (1979) provides a dimension to the definition of life satisfaction that distinguishes it from the third part of the above definition: life satisfaction is essentially a cognitive assessment of one's progress toward desired goals. Campbell et al. (1976) also distinguishes the two concepts in temporal terms with happiness involving short-term moods of gaiety and elation, while satisfaction is the perceived discrepancy between aspirations and achievement, ranging from the perception of fulfillment to that of deprivation. Andrews and Withey (1976) bring one more dimension to the definition of life satisfaction or quality of life. They see it as not just a matter of the conditions on one's physical, interpersonal and social setting but also a matter of how these are judged and evaluated by oneself and others. The values that one brings to bear on life are in themselves determinants of one's assessed quality of life. Finally, there is one more component in defining the measurement of life satisfaction, which McKennell and Andrews (1983) label affect. This refers to the individual's immediate feeling state that is not anchored to cognitive frames of reference. Diener (1984) postulates that positive or negative affect are not independent but tend to suppress each other in such a way that when one decreases in frequency the other increases.

One definition used for life satisfaction and career decision-making comes from Horley (1984). He described life satisfaction as one measure of subjective well-being, which itself is defined as a self-perceived positive feeling or state. Also, Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin

(1961) created a five part definition which uses the following criteria: (a) takes pleasure from the round of activities that constitute his everyday life; (b) regards his life as meaningful and accepts resolutely that which life has been; (c) feels he has succeeded in achieving his major goals; (d) holds a positive image of self; and (e) maintains happy and optimistic attitudes and mood. It should also be noted that other studies (Adams, 1969; Horley, 1984; Wood, Wylie & Sheafor, 1969) looking at life satisfaction in elderly respondents use a similar definition and use the measure developed by Neugarten et al. (1961).

It is important to place the measurement of life satisfaction within the context of the caveat provided by Campbell et al. (1976) when he postulates that because we are accustomed to evaluating people's lives in terms of their material possessions, we tend to forget that satisfaction is a psychological experience and that the quality of this experience may not correspond very closely to these external conditions of life.

The measurement of life satisfaction has certain parallels with the issue of discrepancy and both are measured either globally (with either single item or multi-item scales) or as a sum of various parts (facets in job satisfaction and domains in life satisfaction). There is one general difference between the two variables, and that is the use of life satisfaction primarily as an outcome variable and not a predictor variable.

While there are several large-scale studies, which measure life satisfaction, the two mentioned by Andrews and Withey (1976) come closest in intent to the question of understanding life satisfaction and related concepts, and are the richest data sources in terms of scope and measurement. Therefore, the instruments used in their two studies have been used more frequently in other research to measure life satisfaction. *The Life Satisfaction Index*

developed by Neugarten et al. (1961) has been widely used as a global measure with a geriatric population but it has not been adapted for or used with a general population (Diener, 1984).

Both these studies examined the various domains or concerns that combine to create overall life satisfaction. Campbell et al. (1976) examined satisfaction with 17 domains of life satisfaction to develop an overall sense of life satisfaction. These domains are as follows: marriage, family life, health, neighborhood, friendships, organizations, job, life in the U.S., national government, religion, community, nonwork, housing, usefulness of education, standard of living, amount of education, and savings. They found that this set of domains explained 54% of the variance of the general *Index of Well-Being*.

Andrews and Withey (1976) determined that there are 12 concerns expressed in separate measures or indexes which are parallel or similar to the domains used by Campbell et al. (1976) above: self-efficacy index, family index, money index, amount of fun, house/apartment, national government index, job index, your health, spare-time activities, things to do with family, consumer index, and time to do things. They found, too, that when these concerns are combined, up to 62% of the variance of overall well-being could be predicted.

In general, there are at least nine commonly utilized variables related to life satisfaction: age, sex, race, income, education, religion, employment, marriage and family, and health. For many of these variables the relationship with life satisfaction is often inconclusive. The relationship of life satisfaction with age and education to parallel the same indicators examined in job satisfaction are but a few of those variables. Since rank is an indicator of status in the military, it is difficult to make a parallel with generally used indicators of socio-economic status (SES), but when rank is combined with education, it may become a stronger indictor of SES.

Thus, this study will see if there is a cause and effect relationship between SES and life satisfaction.

The findings of age as a correlate of life satisfaction are mixed. Andrews and Withey (1976) found virtually no effects of age, which was corroborated by Stock, Okum, Haring & Witter (1983) who found a near zero correlation between age and subjective well being in a meta-analysis of studies conducted prior to 1980. On the other hand, both Campbell et al. (1976) and Medley (1980) did find a positive correlation between age and life satisfaction. Campbell, et al. (1976) results showed a somewhat more complex pattern in that while satisfaction generally increased with age, there was a negative dip in the 45-54 year old group. They also found differences between the reports of happiness and satisfaction over the life span. The younger cohort reported greater happiness but less satisfaction while the older respondents indicated the opposite. On the other hand, the middle age cohorts' reports of happiness and satisfaction were similar in magnitude and direction.

As with age, the relationship between education and life satisfaction is not clearly defined. Andrews and Withey (1976) and Clemente and Sauer (1976) found little or no relationship between the two variables, especially when other factors were controlled. Campbell et al. (1976) found an inverse relationship between amount of education and satisfaction, with those with less education being more satisfied with life than those with more education. This led them to hypothesize that as more education was obtained, there was an increase in the awareness of available alternatives. This led them to conclude, regarding the relationship between education and life satisfaction, that the "… grass may not actually seem greener on the other side of the fence, but ignorance that there is another side may be bliss" (p. 145). Since a major focus of this research is on identifying the perceived career decision-making difficulties of TAP workshop

participants in planning preparation and preparing for obtaining a civilian job after military retirement, it is felt that job satisfaction would temporarily precede life satisfaction. Therefore, the spillover effect that will be examined leads from career satisfaction to life satisfaction rather than the reverse (Iris & Barrett, 1972; Near et al., 1984). The literature shows that those prospective transitioners who experienced career satisfaction showed eventual life satisfaction since one's career is a key player in one's overall self.

Much of the career satisfaction literature comes from industrial or applied psychology, with authors most frequently attached to business schools. Because of this business orientation, research is often designed to study career satisfaction with an aim to improve productivity, efficiency and/or employee relations. On the other hand, these studies also look for correlations that will indicate methods to reduce absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover, which are among the more prominent concerns of researchers and employers (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Khaleque & Rahman, 1987; Robinson, Athanasiou & Head, 1969). These assumptions about career satisfaction and its relationship with other job-related variables are generally implied rather than overtly stated and are often tied to social policy issues related to work, in specific, and employment on a more global scale (Nord, 1977; Seashore & Taber, 1975).

During the course of a person's development, one makes numerous important decisions that will affect major areas of his or her life. Making a career choice is one of these important decisions. A main concern of career counselors has been assisting these people in making a confident, acceptable, realistic career decision. However, for some, making a career decision is quite a cumbersome task. Some of these decision makers need little time to decide or have been decided for a number of years. Some take more time to decide, but they generally know the

course they want to take. Yet, many of these individuals lack essential elements necessary to making the right career decision.

A frequent finding of many studies shows that many individuals, whether undecided or decided, have common deficiencies in decision-making and career planning skills (Beal & Noel, 1980; Gordon, 1985; Holland & Holland, 1977). Holland and Holland (1977) suggested that career-undecided students should be conceptualized as a heterogeneous group consisting of multiple subtypes. Cohen, Chartrand, and Jowdy (1995) divided students who have not yet made a career decision into four groups: (a) ready to decide – low anxiety, high self-esteem, good vocational identity; (b) developmentally undecided – emotionally stable, but do not yet have a clear picture of themselves or the world of work; (c) choice anxious – high choice anxiety, little need for career information, low vocational identity; and (d) chronically indecisive – low vocational identity, high need for career and self-information, low goal directedness, and low self-esteem.

One main controversy regarding career indecision is the dimensionality of the construct. Using the *Career Decision Scale* (CDS) (Osipow, Carney, & Barak, 1976), numerous studies have identified four factors associated with career indecision: diffusion; support; approach; and external barriers (Martin, Sabourin, Laplante, & Coallier, 1991). Osipow (1980) states that due to the instability regarding the number and content of the factors, career indecision should be viewed as a unidimensional construct.

According to decision-making theory, an individual observes a problem, explained as a gap between the current situation and the expected outcome, and explores possible alternatives (Miller-Tiederman, 1977). Thus, according to this theory of decision-making, "the best decision is the one that best helps to achieve the decision maker's goals" (Gati et al., 1996, p. 511). These

goals are represented by the individual's preferences with respect to the various attributes of the alternatives under consideration. A rational career decision maker chooses the alternative with the highest utility, that is, the highest subjective value or desirability of possible states (Gati, 1996). Thus, the indecisive individual may have problems in many areas of the decision-making process, including vague goals, unclear alternatives, and the inability to formulate clear ideas of utility.

The proposed taxonomy itself is hierarchic (Fleishman, Quaintance, & Broedling, 1984), in which broad categories of difficulties are separated into categories and then subcategories based on finer distinctions. Thus, each difficulty can be classified into one major category and then into finer categories and subcategories.

Career Decision-Making Research

The study of career satisfaction is an outgrowth of the scientific management theory of Frederick Taylor, who performed his studies at the end of the nineteenth and first part of the twentieth centuries, where even though the worker was disdained, his cooperation was necessary for both labor and management to measure the relationship between physical working conditions and efficiency. The human relations movement was another approach to studying the more intangible aspects of career satisfaction. It evolved from the Hawthorne experiments of the 1920s and 30s, which were the first attempt to measure or evaluate productivity as a by-product of worker morale (i.e. satisfaction). More recently, starting in the 1950s and lasting into the 70s, the later human relations theorists, represented here by Herzberg, placed more emphasis on the intrinsic aspects of the job rather than extrinsic factors as ways to motivate workers. Much of the later human relations theorists' ideas are based on Maslow's notions of hierarchy of needs and self-actualization. Using Maslow's concepts, where the individual's needs, as well as the

achievement of self-actualization (often exemplified by a satisfactory retirement) were of key importance, these theorists explored the issues created between the interests and needs of the individual and those of the organization. From this, they evolved the notion of democratic organizations and the idea of participative management as being more important than efficiency of productivity (Harmon & Mayer, 1986).

The Hawthorne experiments were the first to attempt to correlate morale with productivity or performance. Since then, there have been numerous studies that have attempted to find a relationship between career satisfaction and performance, as well as researchers that have summarized those studies (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg, 1966; Vroom, 1964). None of these studies have found a strong relationship between career satisfaction and performance.

The two areas where career satisfaction has been, historically, a highly correlated predictor variable has been absenteeism and turnover (Locke, 1976; Quinn, 1974; Robinson et al., 1969). With the use of more sophisticated statistical analyses, especially meta-analysis, even these apparently strong relationships are being brought into question (Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Hackett & Guion, 1985; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

Sex (gender) has never been a significant moderator of career satisfaction (Quinn, 1974), except in certain work settings such as private versus government organizations (Brush, Moch & Pooyan, 1987). Age, on the other hand, has been more significantly associated with career satisfaction (Quinn, 1974), with satisfaction rising with age. Brush et al. (1987) found that race accounted for such a small amount of the variance of career satisfaction that they excluded it from their final analysis although there has been evidence that black workers have been less satisfied than white workers (Robinson et al., 1969).

There appears to be a strong relationship between job status and career satisfaction, i.e. those with higher status careers are more satisfied than those with lower status careers (Blauner, 1960; Locke, 1976; Quinn & Shepard, 1974; Wilensky, 1964). These studies all found that white collar workers are more satisfied than blue collar workers and/or, when categories from professional down to laborer are used, there is a progression of increasing satisfaction from lower status workers to higher status workers. There is a gray area where this relationship becomes less clear and that is in the middle of the spectrum, which is identified as lower white collar/upper blue-collar worker.

Despite the above relationship between job status and career satisfaction, education does not appear to correlate positively with career satisfaction. Quinn (1974) indicates in his review of six large surveys, finding that the association between education level and career satisfaction is distinctly nonlinear -- that is, each increment in education is not necessarily matched by a corresponding increase in career satisfaction. The most interesting possibilities speculated are (a) job (career) satisfaction is likely to be lowest among workers with "intermediate" levels of education; (b) this *intermediate* level may have shifted upward over the last decade or so -- from having a high school education to having *some college* education but no degree. Another meta-analysis (Brush et al., 1987) examined six demographic variables, including education, in 21 different studies and found no pattern of significant correlations with career satisfaction were observed for education. They attribute previous findings of correlations between career satisfaction and education to sampling error, to artifacts controlled in the present research, or to variables, which interact with organizational types.

Like most other issues related to work, career satisfaction seems to be an outgrowth of the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution brought a clearer differentiation between work

and non-work because the worker had to leave home to go to a work site, often a factory, to earn enough to provide for himself and his family (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; de Grazia, 1964; Macarov, 1980). At the same time, the factory owners had some interest in maintaining a satisfied labor force (e.g. morale) and to minimize disruptions in productivity. Therefore, when studying career satisfaction, many of the values such as the *work ethic*, competition, the delicate balance between organizational interest in promoting satisfaction versus making a profit, and work as a central life interest are all generally taken for granted (Nord, 1977).

Career satisfaction's definition is closely tied to its measurement. Macarov (1980) points out some of the difficulties in the task of trying to measure job satisfaction; when discussing attitudes to work, it is important to distinguish between satisfactions and dissatisfactions, as separately-determined attitudes. Although much of the research acknowledges the difference between satisfaction and dissatisfaction, most measures attempt to determine the degree of satisfaction.

Hopkins (1983) states that most definitions of career satisfaction assume the existence of the individual's needs and satisfaction resulting from the fit between these needs and the job (career) environment. Portigal (1976) defines satisfaction as it relates to careers as something experienced by the individual with reference to a particular state of affairs. This *something* involves the individual's perceptions, it involves evaluations in terms of his unique, but normally largely shared set of values, and may involve a wide range of emotional responses to what is perceived and evaluated. The facet definition is provided by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), who say that job (career) satisfaction are feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation. Locke (1969) gives us the discrepant definition when he says that career satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's

job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing. Finally, there are the definitions which combine the concepts: Evans, Ekerdt, & Bosse (1985) looked at five aspects to arrive at a definition: (a) a generalized affective orientation to all aspects of the job (career), (b) the measurement of satisfaction with various aspects of the job, (c) the measurement of the attainment of either needs or goals, (d) the measurement of level of aspirations for both needs and goals, and (e) the measurement of importance of either (1) job facets or (2) needs and goals.

The first issue raised in the Locke (1969) definition is the notion that overall career satisfaction is the result of a discrepancy between the ideal (*would like* or *should be*) and what the actual feelings are (*is now*). Others have also examined this concept as part of a definition of overall career satisfaction (Seashore & Taber, 1975) and it has not shown to be significantly more effective than an *is now* measure. Seashore and Taber (1975) point out three possible explanations for this. First, the units of measurement for the derived score are ambiguous. Second, the errors of measurement and two bias components may be additive. Finally, the respondent may incorporate any perceived discrepancy into the *is now* response.

The other issue raised by these definitions is the use of facets in the development of an overall measure of career satisfaction. Incorporated into this notion is whether or not to weigh the facets on how they should be summed to create the overall measurement. This involves the use of two scales: a career satisfaction scale measuring satisfaction with various aspects of the career (e.g. pay, co-workers, supervision, responsibility, etc) and another instrument to measure the importance of each of these facets. It is the latter function, which determines how much weight each facet will have in the summing for an overall measure. Although this notion sounds plausible, Quinn and Mangione (1973) found no empirical support for the hypothesis that the validity of career satisfaction measures can be improved through weighting satisfaction ratings

by importance ratings. Also others (Quinn & Shepard, 1974; Quinn & Staines, 1979; Smith et al., 1969) have not used facet scales alone as a measure of overall career satisfaction. They combine the faceted scales with a global measure to obtain an overall career satisfaction score. Arguably, career indecision on the part of the transitioner can result in little career and/or life satisfaction.

Gati, Krausz, and Osipow (1996) developed a taxonomy for understanding the various difficulties contributing to career indecision. In their taxonomy, a basic distinction was made between career decision-making difficulties occurring prior to the beginning of the career decision-making process and those occurring during the career decision-making process itself. They further subdivided the latter factor, resulting in three major categories overall: lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information. Gati et al. further identified three theoretical sub-categories of career decision-making difficulties that they believed contributed to a lack of readiness to begin the career decision-making process. These three categories were: (a) a lack of motivation on the part of the individual to begin career decision-making, (b) a general indecisiveness that permeates all types of decision-making for the individual, and (c) various beliefs in dysfunctional career decision-making myths (e.g., career decisions are best made by experts).

The lack of information major category was divided into four additional sub-categories of career decision-making difficulties: (a) Lack of information about the career decision-making process (i.e., not knowing how to make a career decision); (b) lack of information about the self (e.g., not having knowledge about capabilities, personality traits, or interest(s); (c) lack of information about occupations (e.g., not understanding what work is involved in specific occupations and not knowing about the wide range of occupational options available); and (d) lack of information about ways of obtaining career information (i.e., confusion about how to

begin researching vocational options). The inconsistent information major category was divided into three additional sub-categories of career decision-making difficulties: (a) Inconsistent information due to unreliable information (i.e., difficulties related to unreliable or fuzzy information); (b) inconsistent information due to internal conflicts (e.g., difficulties related to the evolving personal identity of the individual); and (c) inconsistent information due to external conflicts (e.g., conflicts involving significant others).

Gati, Osipow, Krausz and Saka (1998) tested the *Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire* to empirically examine their taxonomy of career decision-making difficulties. They administered the questionnaire to a sample of 259 young Israeli adults who were at the beginning of their career decision-making process and to an American sample of 304 university students. Their results indicated that the pattern of relationship among the 10 decision-making difficulty categories was generally similar to the hypothesized pattern in both samples and that there were no significant differences between the two samples (despite age and cultural differences). They believed their taxonomy of career decision-making difficulties needs further elaboration, especially the 10 decision-making difficulty categories, before it can be claimed that the construct of career indecision is well understood.

The concept of self-efficacy and its connection to life satisfaction originated from Bandura's (1986) contention that people who believe in their ability to successfully complete the tasks required to achieve an outcome are more likely to engage in and persist at those tasks. This idea has been extended to career development and has become and important variable in understanding the career decision-making process. For example, Blustein (1989) found that higher self-efficacy about career decision-making was positively related to engagement in career exploratory behaviors. Also, students' self-efficacy beliefs about their

capabilities relate to the range and nature of career options considered and that levels of self-efficacy predict "academic performance and persistence as well as career decision-making intentions and behaviors" (Betz & Voyten, 1997, p. 180).

Several studies examined the relationship among sex-role orientation and choice of college major and occupation with conflicting results. Dawson-Threat and Huba (1996) reported that males in male-dominated and female-dominated college majors were comparable in masculinity. In contrast, Jome and Tokar (1998) found that career-traditional men endorsed significantly higher stereotypic male attitudes (e.g., *toughness*, anti-femininity, etc) than men in non-traditional careers, though there were no differences in conflicts between work and family relations.

Instrumentation in Career Decision-Making

Although career satisfaction has generally been felt to be a combination of a variety of specific aspects of the career, there have been those researchers who took a one-dimensional approach. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) are among the most noted scholars to consciously take this position. They developed their scale to measure the individual's attitude toward his work. Their purpose for developing their instrument was for personal studies and assisting management in making various personnel and training decisions. The first requirement for their scale was that it should give an index to *over-all* career satisfaction rather than to specific aspects of the job situation. As the measurement of career satisfaction has become more sophisticated, this one-dimensional approach has generally been used in conjunction with multi-faceted scales to test their correlation with overall career satisfaction but not as an unshared measure.

In the Saunders, Peterson, Sampson and Reardon (1998) work, depression and dysfunctional career thinking were investigated as components of the state of career indecision.

The participants were 215 undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory psychology course at a large southeastern university. The *Career Decision Scale* (Osipow, Carney, Winer, Yanico, & Koschier, 1976) was used to measure career indecision, whereas the *Beck Depression Inventory* (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh, 1961) and *Career Thoughts Inventory* (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon, & Saunders, 1996) were used to measure depression and dysfunctional career thinking respectively. The *Career Decision Scale* measures the participant's overall level of career indecision. Results of that research support the existence of dysfunctional career thoughts as a significant component of career indecision.

Another commonly used methodology has been to examine, individually, satisfaction with the many facets, which comprise a career. Hoppock (1935), one of the first researchers of job (career) satisfaction, and also one of the first to take the multifaceted approach to trying to measure it, also saw career satisfaction as related to the availability of work, which is not surprising when one considers the availability of jobs when he surveyed his sample during the early 1930's in the Eastern part of Pennsylvania. His findings indicated six major components of overall career satisfaction: (a) The way one responds to unpleasant situations; (b) the facility with which the worker adjusts to others on and off the job; (c) the worker's status compared to others with whom he/she identifies; (d) the nature of the work in relation to the ability, interests, and preparation of the worker; (e) the quest for economic and social security; and (f) loyalty and devotion to interests as they transcend self interest. These particular *facets* of career satisfaction certainly confirm Hoppock's other view that career satisfaction must be viewed within the context of general life satisfaction. The use of the term *facet* in this literature review is meant to identify phases and/or features of the reflected subject.

Another researcher using facets to examine job (career) satisfaction is Herzberg (1966), who labeled his postulate the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg divides the facets of the job into two categories: Motivators and Hygiene factors. The Motivators were defined as the intrinsic aspects of the job involving personal growth and self-actualization (achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement); they were the satisfiers of the career. The other category, the Hygiene factors, was the extrinsic facets of the job, which involved the environment and unpleasantness of the career (company policy, administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and salary). Herzberg viewed the Hygiene factors as dissatisfiers because they failed to provide positive satisfactions and didn't have the characteristics necessary to provide a sense of psychological growth. It should be noted that his theory of job (career) satisfaction has been widely debated and researched with mixed results (Locke, 1976, Robinson et al., 1969).

Kornhauser (1965) also looked at the many facets of career satisfaction from an intrinsic and extrinsic point of view. He found multiple satisfiers and dissatisfiers in both the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the career, but because one of his major concerns was the mental health of workers, his 11 indicators tended to focus more on the intrinsic characteristics of the career and the relationship of the career to non-work life. He also thought that career satisfaction was a part of life satisfaction and the correlations among the facets he examined lent support to the theory that career satisfaction and life satisfaction *spill over* into each other.

There are two other noted researchers in the field who have used scales, which examine 5-6 facets as determinants of career satisfaction. Vroom (1964) thought there were five factors that acted as the motivational bases for work: wages, expenditure of energy, production of goods and services, social interaction, and social status. As a result of this explanation, he sees the

following facets as determinants: supervision, work group, job content, wages, promotion opportunities, and hours of work. It should be noted that Vroom used a discrepancy model which looked at the difference between what participants indicated as their job preference, what job they chose, and finally what career they attained.

The other major contributor to the 5-6 faceted measures of career satisfaction is Smith et al. (1969). Their *Job Descriptive Index (JDI)* has been the most widely used measure of job (career) satisfaction (O'Connor, Peters & Gordon, 1978) and has proved very reliable and highly valid. Their intent in creating this instrument was "to construct a series of scales, measuring satisfaction on the job within both an evaluative-general-long-term framework and a descriptive-specific-short-term framework, and covering the important areas of satisfaction" (p. 10). The five facets they target are very similar to that Vroom used: work, supervision, people, pay and promotions. This scale mostly taps general career satisfaction and its items are directed more at the extrinsic job values than the intrinsic. The researchers set the norms for their scale by correlating it with an overall scale.

Although not necessarily chronological, as the search for more specific measures of career satisfaction grew so did the development of multifaceted scales that attempted to measure more than 23 facets of a job. The most extensive study was the longitudinal study, the *Quality of Employment Survey*, by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan, with measures taken in 1969, 1972-3 and 1977 (Quinn & Shepard, 1974; Quinn & Staines, 1979). Twenty-three job facets were factor analyzed and five factors were created in the '72-'73 study: Comfort, Challenge, Financial Rewards, Relations with Co-workers and Resource Adequacy. A sixth was developed after 1973 -- Promotion. These faceted questions were combined with two

one-dimensional job (career) satisfaction questions to arrive at an over-all career satisfaction measure.

Much of the research examining career and life satisfaction tends to focus on the two theoretical arenas. In an attempt to better understand the relationship between these two variables, researchers have examined overall satisfaction as well as the various facets or domains of each and their impact on each other. With the advent of more sophisticated, multivariate statistical analyses, researchers have begun to explore the more complex aspects of this relationship (especially the facets/domains and other variables that affect the relationship) and the sources of variance in the interaction, which will comprise the second half of our review.

There are those who see the spillover theory, with career satisfaction affecting life satisfaction, as a general way of explaining the relationship between the two (Iris & Barrett, 1972; Kornhauser, 1965; Orpen, 1978; Meissner, 1971). Some researchers have found that this spillover effect is explained by extrinsic career factors (e.g. pay, prestige) rather than overall career satisfaction or the intrinsic factors that are generally only career relevant (Chacko, 1983; Steiner & Truxillo, 1987). There are also some who suggest that life satisfaction can predict career satisfaction (Schmitt & Mellon, 1980; Schmitt & Pulaskos, 1985) or that the spillover is bi-directional or reciprocal (Keon & McDonald, 1982; Schmitt & Bedeian, 1982). There are also those who find support for both spillover and compensation for explaining various aspects of the relationship. For example, Chacko (1983) found that intrinsic job (career) factors had a compensatory effect on life satisfaction and Staines (1980) found, when looking at role involvement, expectations, activities, level of competence, needs satisfaction, and subjective reactions that various combinations of the data supported all three theories, but the spillover theory was the most prevalent. Finally, there are those who support theories such as

segmentation (Bedeian & Marbet, 1979) where there is no apparent influence of each of these variables on the other and the disaggregation theory (Rice, Near & Hunt, 1980; Steiner & Truxillo, 1987), where the importance of work in one's life moderates the relationship between career and life satisfaction.

As the comparison between career and life satisfaction has become more complex, the amount of variance accounted for by career satisfaction in overall life satisfaction has decreased. When the zero-order comparison between the two variables has been analyzed, career satisfaction has been positively but modestly related to life satisfaction (Rice et al., 1980; Schmitt & Bedeian, 1982; Schmitt & Mellon, 1980). The results of multivariate analyses used to assess this relationship have been mixed and inconclusive. Even with these varied conclusions, career satisfaction has not accounted for the highest amount of variance when combined with other domains or variables. The other area that has been scrutinized in this manner is the role of moderators, especially gender, with males indicating a stronger career satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship than females. Of the other analyzed moderator variables, only age, education and SES have indicated any moderately significant effects (Balmundo & Kopelman, 1980). Rice (1979) made a comparison using subjective and objective work related and extra-work related variables and found that objective work variables (tenure and prestige) have a stronger direct impact on life satisfaction than do subjective job variables (career satisfaction). Using a longitudinal analysis, Near (1984) again did not find causal influence either way between the two variables but she concluded that if job (career) satisfaction and life satisfaction exert any causal influence on one another, it clearly is short-term (i.e., about one year) in nature. This review of the literature on the relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction demonstrates some of the complexity of the relationship and how the relationship operates i.e.

spillover, compensation or segmentation. Because the spillover theory tends to be more often demonstrated to explain the comparison, the examination of the impact of pre-retirement planning on this relationship and what variables may act as moderators becomes more salient.

Validity and Reliability of Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)

The dimensionality of career indecisiveness has continually eluded researchers for several years. These measures have been either purely theoretical or purely empirical. A relatively new instrument, the CDDQ, is based on a taxonomy of decision-making difficulties. In their 1999 study, Lancaster, Rudolph, Perkins and Patten, of Abilene Christian University, assessed the reliability and construct validity of the CDDQ, along with differences between decided and undecided groups. The sample included 268 university students. Convergent validity was assessed using the *Career Decision Scale (CDS)* (Osipow, 1987). Discriminant validity was assessed using measures of anxiety and social desirability. The CDDQ showed convergence with the CDS, and discriminated against both anxiety and social desirability. Differences between groups were statistically significant on most decision-making difficulty scales. The results provided support for the reliability and validity of the CDDQ, suggesting that this measure may be useful in attempting to understand the multidimensionality of career indecisiveness and further assist in the development of a more comprehensive and accurate theoretical perspective of the construct of career indecisiveness.

The CDDQ (Gati et al., 1996) challenged previous measures of career decision-making through its establishment of a theoretical base, while also maintaining sound empirical standards. While adapting the theoretical model proposed in decision-making theory, the CDDQ emphasized the understanding of the process of making career decisions (Brown, 1990; Gati, 1986; Katz, 1966).

Lancaster et al. (1999) study's focus was three fold. The first purpose was to replicate the original Gati et al. (1998) study. Second, convergent and discriminant construct validity was assessed by using the *Career Decision Scale* (Osipow, 1987). It was expected that the researchers' findings would confirm that the CDDQ was a global measure of indecisiveness and that two well-known confounds, anxiety and social desirability, would show low compatibility with the CDDQ. Finally, differences between decided and undecided students were assessed in order to better understand the differences between the two populations and to determine the similarities between the CDS and the CDDQ.

The participants of the Lancaster et al. (1999) study consisted of 139 male and 140 female students from a private Midwestern university. Eleven students were excluded from the study due to incomplete data, leaving 131 male and 137 female students (age range = 17-56 years, *M* = 20 years). Among them, 52% were freshman, 28% were sophomores, 11% were juniors, and 8% were seniors. Of the student population examined, 86 (approximately 33%) were undecided. The determinant for whether the student was decided or undecided came from two areas: (a) their current classified matriculation using the university student information system and/or (b) indication on a question at the beginning of the testing that they considered themselves to be undecided.

Other instruments designed to assess career decision making difficulties include the *Career Decision Scale (CDS)* (Osipow, 1987); the *Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI)* (Beck, Epstein, Brown, & Steer, 1988) ; and the *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (M-C SDS)* (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). *The Career Decision Scale (CDS)* was designed to identify barriers, which prevent individuals from making career decisions. The scale consists of 19 items, of which 18 are arranged on a 4-point Likert scale, with a score of 1 corresponding to *Not at all like me* and a

score of 4 corresponding to *Exactly like me.* Items 1 and 2 indicate certainty of career choice. Items 3 through 18 represent the 16 items that measure career indecision. Items can also be examined in terms of factor scores. The CDS Manual (Osipow, 1980) reports test-retest reliabilities ranging from .82 to .90 in two studies over a 2-week period; the majority of individual item test-retest correlations reported are in the .60 or .70 range. The internal consistency of the CDS has been consistently high with *r*s in the .80s (Fuqua & Hartman, 1983). A number of investigations also summarized in the manual indicate that the CDS appears to be sensitive to developmental stage, and to interventions to reduce career indecision, thus establishing some degree of validity for the scale.

The *Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI)* (Beck et al., 1988) is an anxiety measure that determines the severity of self-reported anxiety (Beck & Steer, 1990). The scale is made up of 21 descriptive statements of anxiety symptoms, which are rated on a 4-point scale. The BAI has demonstrated high internal consistency (Beck et al., 1988; Fydrich, Dowdall & Chambless, 1992) and high test-retest reliability (Beck et al., 1988). The content validity of the BAI was based on the inclusion of symptoms considered to represent guidelines for diagnosing patients with anxiety disorders, most notably symptoms listed for the panic and generalized anxiety disorders (Beck & Steer, 1990).

The *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (M-C SDS)* (Crowne et al., 1960) is an instrument that measures the tendency for individuals to respond to personality test items in a manner that presents them in a positive light. The scale is comprised of 33 items answered on a true-false scale. The scale was designed to measure a less severe population yet still have sensitivity to account for those attempting to *fake-good*. The M-C SDS has positive psychometric properties, including high internal consistency, .88, and test-retest reliability, .88 (Robinson &

Shaver, 1973). Holden and Fekken (1989) factor analyzed three measures of social desirability, the *Jackson Social Desirability Scale* from the Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1984), *Edwards Social Desirability Scale* (Edwards, 1957), and the M-C SDS (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960), and found that the M-C SDS loaded as a separate factor. This factor is a measure of *Interpersonal Sensitivity,* which has more emphasis on concerns about how one is perceived by other people. The other two measures loaded on a single factor, measuring how one perceives oneself.

The initial reliability study for the CDDQ was measured in two different groups, one in Israel and one in the United States (Gati et al., 1998). Positive test-retest reliability (range = .50 - .72, *M* = .63) was found for the Israeli sample. Both samples also indicated impressive, yet somewhat variable, alpha coefficients. One minor deviation from the theorized model occurred with the Lack of Knowledge About the Process scale. In both samples, instead of lining up under the Lack of Readiness scale, it appeared under the Lack of Information scale. Also, within the American sample only, the External Conflicts scale lined up under the Lack of Readiness category instead of the hypothesized Inconsistent Information category.

For the Lancaster et al. 1999 study, the reliability analysis included the 3 CDDQ major categories, the 10 CDDQ scales, and the CDDQ Total. For cluster analysis, Pearson product-moment correlations were used for the 10 CDDQ scales. The validity analysis included three demographic variables: age, gender, and undergraduate class. These variables were used to determine any possible correlational tendencies on decision-making. Along with the three CDDQ major categories, the 10 CDDQ scales, and the CDDQ Total, three other variables were used: the *Career Decision Scale (CDS)* (Osipow, 1987), the *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (M-C SDS)* (Crowne et al., 1960), and the *Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI)* (Beck et al., 1988). The

independent variables were the same as those used in the validity study, with the 10 CDDQ scales added in order to account for specific differences.

The data were analyzed four ways. First, a Cronbach (1951) coefficient alpha was obtained to determine the level of internal consistency demonstrated in the CDDQ. This included the three CDDQ major categories, the 10 scales, and the overall total of the CDDQ. Second, hierarchical cluster analysis was computed on the 10 CDDQ scales using Ward's (1963) minimum variance method. Third, since the CDDQ is a cumulative measure of difficulties in career decision making, it was hypothesized that indecisive individuals, as defined by scores on the CDDQ, would show marked differences on most, if not all, areas measured by the CDDQ, when compared to decisive individuals. The convergent construct validity of the CDDQ was evaluated by computing Pearson *r* scores between the scores on this instrument with scores on the *Career Decision Scale.* Discriminant validity was examined using the *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale* and the *Beck Anxiety Inventory*. Pearson *r* scores were also used with this data to determine any statistically significant relationships.

Pearson *r*s and a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) were computed between decided and undecided students to assess areas of difference between the two populations and to determine the similarities between the CDS and the CDDQ. For a test measuring general personality variables, Aiken (1982) reported that alpha coefficients above .80 were recommended. Therefore, the study conducted by Lancaster et al. (1999) followed this recommendation. In the study conducted by Gati et al., (1998), no systematic or meaningful differences between men and women were observed in the reliability analysis.

The means, standard deviations, and Cronbach alphas obtained from all scales, along with three main categories and the CDDQ Total, show the internal consistency of the scales varied

widely, with Dysfunctional Myths (.34) being the lowest and Lack of Information About Self (.93) being the highest. The Lack of Readiness category indicated the lowest overall reliability (.66), which can mainly be attributed to the unreliability of the Dysfunctional Myths scale. The other two categories, Lack of Information (.96) and Inconsistent Information (.92) showed high internal consistency. The CDDQ Total indicated high reliability (.96). Most scales indicated alpha levels consistent with or slightly above both the American and Israeli studies done by Gati et al., (1998).

The Pearson *r* intercorrelations between the CDDQ major categories, scales, and CDDQ Total were found to be consistent with the Gati et al. study (1998) finding and showed adequate variation between the scales (range .05 - .81; median = .46). The correlations between individual scales and the overall total revealed some variability, with the Dysfunctional Myths scale (.24) being the lowest and the Lack of Information About Self (.92) being the highest.

A hierarchical agglomeration schedule using Ward's method (Ward, 1963) showed that during the first four stages one cluster develops. This cluster is made up of the following scales: Lack of Information About Occupations (LO), Lack of Information About Ways of Obtaining Additional Information (LA), Lack of Information About Self (LS), Lack of Knowledge About the Process (LP), Unreliable Information (IU), and Internal Conflicts (II). Also, during the seventh stage, External Conflicts (IE) joins the first cluster. During the sixth stage, another cluster forms from the Lack of Motivation (RM) and Indecisiveness (RI) scales. It isn't until the eighth stage (coefficient = 5.61) that Dysfunctional Myths (RD) enters the cluster.

For both convergent and discriminant validity, the variables gender and undergraduate class were left out because there were no systematic or meaningful differences between classes or between genders. Also, $p < .05$ was used as the standard level of significance. Pearson *r*

correlations between the CDS and the scales of the CDDQ showed an expected strong relationship since both are measures of problems in career decision-making. Indeed, most of the CDDQ scales revealed statistically significant ($p < .01$) correlations with the CDS, with the exception of the RM ($r = -.10$) and the RD ($r = .10$) scales. The LS ($r = .74$) and the IU ($r = .74$) scales tied for the highest correlation with the CDS. Among the three main categories, the Lack of Readiness (L = .50) category and the Inconsistent Information (I = .78) categories tied for the highest correlation with the CDS. The correlation between the CDDQ Total and the CDS was .82 ($p < .01$).

During a comparison of the CDDQ scales with both the *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale* (Crowne et al., 1960) and the *Beck Anxiety Inventory* (Beck et al., 1988) it was expected that the CDDQ would be measuring something other than social desirability and anxiety. Pearson r correlations comparing the M-C SDS with the CDDQ scales except for the RD ($r = .05$) scale. The negative correlations ranged from -.17 (RM and LA) to -.28 (LS) with a median r = -.25. Further, all three main categories of the CDDQ (R = -.18; L = -.25; I = -.28) and the measure overall (Total = -.28) indicated negative correlations with the M-C SDS. Although the statistically significant negative correlations between the CDDQ and the M-C SDS are somewhat lower relative to other correlations in this study, there does appear to be some effect of social desirability as it reflects that those who are relatively high on social desirability tend to report fewer difficulties.

A comparison between the CDDQ scales and the *Beck Anxiety Inventory* (Beck et al., 1988) indicated statistically significant correlations. The RI ($r = .13$), RD ($r = .21$), and IU ($r = .17$) scales indicated statistically significance at the $p < .01$ level. At the $p < .05$ level, five scales, LP ($r = .13$), LS ($r = .12$), LA ($r = .11$), II ($r = .12$), and IE ($r = .13$), revealed statistically

significance. All three main categories indicated a statistically significant correlation with the BAI, with Lack of Readiness obtaining a higher correlation (r = .25). Further, the CDDQ Total compared with the BAI received a Pearson r score of .18, which is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Because of the commonality between the CDDQ and the BAI, it appears that the CDDQ is somewhat influenced by anxiety. The correlation of the CDS with the BAI was .18 ($p < .01$), which is the same correlation found between the CDDQ with the BAI. Therefore, the statistically significant relationship between the CDDQ and the BAI reveals the sensitivity of the CDDQ to the high prevalence of anxiety found in indecisive individuals.

During a look at the relationship between decidedness and the CDDQ scales, every scale except Dysfunctional Myths indicated a statistically significant inverse relationship to decidedness ($p < .01$). A Pearson r intercorrelation between the BAI, CDS, M-C SDS, the CDDQ categories R, L, and I, and the CDDQ Total for the decided (upper right diagonal) and undecided (lower left diagonal) groups were also conducted. The BAI for the undecided group revealed a statistically significant correlation with the CDS (r = .29) and CDDQ Total, whereas the decided group did not. Also, the M-C SDS showed statistically significant negative correlations on all variables in the decided group, whereas the undecided group did not. This coincides with the earlier observation that decided students have a tendency to present themselves as having less difficulty in decision making than undecided students.

A multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) for decided and undecided students and how they differ on the *Career Decision Scale* (Osipow, 1987), the *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale* (Crowne et al., 1960), and *Beck Anxiety Inventory* (Beck et al., 1988), the three CDDQ categories, the 10 scales, and the CDDQ Total was conducted too. The CDS and the

CDDQ Total both showed similar differences between both populations for CDS, $F(1, 266) = 137.05$ and for CDDQ Total, $F(1, 266) = 134.34$. Also, the M-C SDS indicated a statistically significant difference, $F(1, 266) = 11.43$, between decided and undecided students.

In summary, the 1999 study conducted by Lancaster et al., the CDDQ demonstrated high reliability compared with other studied instruments with similar intent. Further, a review of the convergent validity indicates that the CDDQ and the CDS are measuring similar constructs (CDDQ Total and CDS $r = .82$). The Pearson *r* correlations between the CDS and the CDDQ scales revealed correlations statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level for all scales except two scales of the Lack of Readiness category; Lack of Motivation (RM) and Dysfunctional Myths (RD). When comparing correlations with the Lack of Information and Inconsistent Information (both *r*'s = .78) categories and the CDS, the Lack of Readiness ($r = .50$) category indicated less convergence with the CDS. Gati et al. (1996) hypothesized that the Lack of Readiness category includes difficulties that precede the engagement in making a specific career decision, while Lack of Information and Inconsistent Information include difficulties that arise during the actual process of career decision-making. Thus, indecisiveness, as indicated by the CDS, is more evident during the process of decision-making, rather than prior to beginning of the process of decision-making. Further, the CDS and Indecisiveness (RI) scale only received a Pearson r of .48, which is somewhat lower than what was expected.

Further, disciminant validity of the CDDQ was confirmed on two areas of possible contamination, namely social desirability and anxiety. The *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale* (Crowne et al., 1960) indicated statistically significant negative correlations on most of the CDDQ scales. This indicates that many students who score lower on the CDDQ may be trying to present themselves in a positive light. Also, the statistically significant *F* between decided and

undecided students reveals that many decided students might be trying to portray themselves as socially desirable when discussing problems in decision-making. The CDDQ used for this study can be found in Appendix A.

Summary

This chapter provided a review of literature and research related to career decision-making difficulties. The historical context of the military transition assistance program and previous studies of the military transition assistance program were presented too. Additionally, life satisfaction and career decision-making research findings and previously utilized instruments and their design were included in this chapter. Lastly, information showing the test of validity and reliability of the *Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)* (Gati et al., 1998) was shown.

Information on the forerunner programs, which eventually lead to the current military transition assistance program (i.e., Project Transition, 1968); Project Referral, 1970-72, were reviewed. The literature review also took a look at the previous studies of the military transition assistance program (i.e., Owens, 1987; Pinch, 1987; Strong, 1996; Touris, 1996; Webb, 1990). Research findings about life satisfaction and career decision-making were also discussed. Works from Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) described the distinctive differences in life satisfaction and career decision-making; and so does Horley (1984). Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin (1961) also created a five-part definition for both. Work performed by Andrews and Withey (1976) determined 12 concerns in separate measures or indexes similar to those used by Campbell et al (1976). Also, an in depth look of numerous career decision-making measurements and surrounding research was made. From Frederick Taylor's scientific management theory through the Hawthorne experiments of the 1920s and 1930s, to Herzberg and Maslow's study of

the intrinsic aspects of jobs and careers, we took a look at each of them. Additionally, the works of Quinn and Mangione (1973), Seashore and Taber (1975), and Nord (1977) lead way to an understanding of Gati, Krausz, and Osipow's (1996) work for measuring career decision-making difficulties. Previous instruments used by researchers were also introduced (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Herzberg, 1966; Hoppock, 1935; Kornhauer, 1965; Saunders, Peterson, Sampson & Reardon, 1998; Vroom, 1964; just to name a few). Lastly, the work done by Lancaster et al., (1999) to test the validity and reliability of the Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ) was reviewed.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter provides a description of the research design, the population and sample selected for the study, the instrument used, and information on its validity and reliability, and independent and dependent variables. Additionally, the procedures followed in collecting data and the methods to analyze the data are included.

Research Design

The causal-comparative research design was selected for this study and it is sometimes referred to as an *ex post facto* study, whereby the effect and the alleged cause(s) have already occurred and must be studied in retrospect. Also, while correlational studies attempt to identify relationships, in using this chosen design an attempt was made to identify cause-effect relationships. Regarding study groups, causal-comparative studies involve two or more groups and one independent variable, while with correlational studies, typically one group and two variables are involved. The causal-comparative design studies individuals because they belong to groups; whereas experimental studies use individuals randomly selected and assigned to two or more groups. The researcher cannot manipulate the independent variable using the causal-comparative study design. However, the researcher can manipulate the independent variable if using an experimental design. Also, in using the chosen design, the causal comparative study sample was selected from an already existing population, rather than using a random sample selected from a single population.

This design's strength is that it allows researchers to isolate and target dependent variables; in this case, the perceived career decision-making difficulties of Transition Assistance Program (TAP) participants during a representative period in time. However, a weakness of a causal-

comparative design is that it is difficult to control for intervening variable(s), and in order to show a true representative sample, a relatively large sample size (150-200 range) is important. In the selection of comparison groups, the independent variable must be clearly and operationally defined. Of course, there are other weaknesses to the causal-comparative design. Sources of weaknesses include the lack of randomization, manipulation, or control; and the groups may differ in some important variable that is not the independent variable. Every effort was made to collect as much information about the group as possible; and to control for all possible mitigating variables.

Selected Population Sample

Participants in this study were military personnel within six months of leaving the military at the Robins Air Force Base during the spring and early summer of 2004. Participants were asked to assist in the study at the beginning of their Transition Assistance Program (TAP) experience. Prospective participants had the option to decline. Those participants retiring from military service and those separating from the military before reaching retirement eligibility were used for this study. Participants who have 20 or more years of military service are classified as retirees. Those not retiring are classified as participants being separated from the military before reaching retirement eligibility. Regarding the age range of participants, this study was unlike some previous studies of its kind. Previous studies' age range was somewhat constrained (approximately 20 year age range), and fell within two of the general age ranges (35-44, 45-54) (Pinch, 1987; Strong, 1996; Webb, 1990). In contrast, this study provides an age range of 46 years (19-65).

Instrument

Since this is a causal-comparative study, a questionnaire was used. A written questionnaire is intended to gather information from a large number of people and is one way of self-reporting information. One purpose of the questionnaire was to get self-reported answers to the characteristics of people who use the services of the military transition assistance program. The selected instrument, the *Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)* (Gati et al., 1996), was used in this study to collect data from military TAP participants at Robins AFB during the spring and early summer of 2004. Since the role of Robins Air Force Base is multi-faceted, its personnel hold most of the Air Force's career specialties.

Making a career decision is a step everyone must take. While some people make decisions easily and with no apparent difficulties, many individuals face difficulties in making their career decisions. To help those who encounter difficulties in their career decision-making process, it is necessary to locate and identify their specific areas of difficulty. The taxonomy of career decision-making difficulties used in the CDDQ-feedback is based on decision-making and information-processing theories. Gati et al., defined any deviation from the ideal career decision-making process (i.e., the process carried out by the ideal career decision maker) as a difficulty that may lead to indecision or a less than optimal choice.

An ideal career decision maker is a person who is aware of the need to make a career decision and willing to reach such a decision. That person is also capable of making the decision properly (that is, using a systematic process to reach the decision most compatible with his or her goals). Career decision-making difficulties can be classified into distinct categories, according to: the time at which they arise (before or during actual engagement in the career decision-making process); the source of difficulty (cognitive or affective); the impact of the difficulty on

the decision (blocks the process or leads to a less than optimal decision); and is the intervention required to overcome the difficulty (Gati et al., 1996). Indecision may result from a single difficulty or a combination of difficulties. Also, each individual's difficulties may belong to one category or a number of categories.

The proposed taxonomy of career decision-making difficulties is based on three levels of categorization. The first distinction is between difficulties arising before actually beginning the career-decision making process and those that arise during the process. The former include difficulties related to a lack of readiness to enter the career decision-making process. Gati, Krausz, and Osipow (1996) distinguished between difficulties related to lack of information and difficulties in using available information due to information inconsistency. Each of the three major categories of difficulties (lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information) is further divided into specific difficulty categories, for a total of ten difficulty categories. The following information provides a short description of each of the specific difficulty categories.

The lack of readiness category consists of three specific-difficulty categories: lack of motivation (represented in questions 12-14); indecisiveness (represented in questions 15-18); and dysfunctional beliefs (represented in questions 19-23). A high score in the lack of motivation area reflects a lack of willingness to make a decision at this point. A high score in the indecisiveness area reflects a general difficulty in making decisions. A high score in the dysfunctional beliefs area reflects a distorted perception of the career decision-making process, irrational expectations of it and dysfunctional thoughts about it (Gati et al., 1996).

The lack of information category consists of four specific-difficulty categories: a high score in the area of lack of information about the decision-making process (represented in

questions 24-26) reflects a lack of knowledge about how to make a decision wisely and specifically a lack of knowledge regarding regarding the specifics steps involved in the career decision-making process. A high score in the area of lack of information about self (represented in questions 27-30) reflects a situation where one feels that one does not have enough information about oneself (e.g., about career preferences, abilities, etc). A high score in the area of lack of information about occupations (represented in questions 31-33) reflects a lack of information regarding the existing array of career options: what alternatives exist and/or what each alternative's characteristics are. A high score in the area of lack of information about ways of obtaining information (represented in questions 34-35) reflects a lack of additional information or help that may facilitate decision-making (Gati et al., 1996).

The inconsistent information major category consists of three specific-difficulty categories: unreliable information (represented in questions 36-40); internal conflicts (represented in questions 41-43); and external conflicts (represented in questions 44-45). A high score in the unreliable information area indicates that the individual feels that he or she has contradictory information about himself or herself or about the considered occupations. A high score in the internal conflicts area reflects a state of internal confusion. Such internal conflict may stem from a difficulty in compromising in the many factors the individual views as important, when some of these factors contradict each other. A high score in the external conflicts area may indicate a gap between an individual's preferences and the preferences voiced by others who are significant to him or her, or a contradiction between the opinions of two significant others (Gati et al., 1996).

Gati et al. (1998) cited four possible uses of the Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire. They are: initial screening of clients, initial diagnosis of difficulties, needs assessment, and

evaluating interventions. Initial screening of clients is the screening of clients according to the three major categories or the 10 difficulty categories and directing them to relevant intervention options (e.g., face-to-face counseling, occupational library, relevant Internet sites). Initial diagnosis of difficulties provides the face-to-face counselor with initial relevant data, by beginning the first counseling session with an analysis of the CDDQ's results. Needs assessment involves the collecting of information about the types of difficulties that occur frequently in a particular group. Evaluating interventions involves evaluating the effectiveness of career interventions (e.g., comparing before/after situations). The CDDQ used for this study can be found in Appendix A.

Data Collection Procedures

The TAP office is located in the Family Support Center (FSC) at Robins Air Force Base. Initial contact was made by telephone with the Transition Assistance Program Manager and the Veterans Affairs Representative employed by the Georgia Department of Labor. The TAP resources include facilities, records, computer hardware and software, class materials, and participants. For base-level approval, an email was sent to the Director of the Robins AFB Family Support Center and in turn the director provided written approval via an official Air Force letter. The TAP facilities provided ample room and opportunity for prospective participants to successfully complete the CDDQ.

The questionnaire was provided to those agreeing to participate in the study. The questionnaire, its contents, and a cover letter were designed to be all-inclusive and formatted in a brochure-type presentation style. The cover letter explained the importance of questionnaire completion and that participation was voluntary (Appendix B).

Before providing the questionnaire to prospective participants, appropriate paperwork was accomplished and forwarded to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for its review and approval. Once final approval was received by the governing IRB the study was started on March 29, 2004 and concluded on August 6, 2004.

Data Analysis

In order to report research findings, descriptive statistics (means, frequencies, percentages, etc.) were used to analyze the data. Statistical analysis was conducted by use of the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)* software. Frequencies and percentages were computed for demographic characteristics on the questionnaire. These were intended to help identify the characteristics of potential participants who use the services of the transition assistance program.

Summary

This chapter provided a description of this study's research design, the population and sample to be selected, the instrument to be used, and further information about the independent and dependent variables. Data collection procedures and methods used to analyze the data were also included.

The research design is causal-comparative and the study's population was those transitioning from the military to the civilian sector assigned to Robins Air Force Base, Georgia. The *Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)* (Gati et al., 1996) was chosen for the study's measurement instrument. The independent variables for this study were briefly discussed and so were the dependent variables used in the study. Lastly, the use of the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) software to analyze and report collected data was discussed.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents the following: (a) statement of the purpose; (b) instrument; (c) summary of responses; (d) selected demographics of sample; (e) analysis based on the research questions, and (f) summary.

Statement of the Purpose

This causal-comparative study identified the career decision-making difficulties of individuals who participated in the military transition assistance program at Robins Air Force, Georgia during the spring and early summer of 2004. The study examined the perceived career decision-making difficulties (i.e.; lack of readiness on part of the individual to begin the career decision-making process; lack of information; and inconsistent information) of the participants immediately prior to program participation.

Instrument

The instrument used to provide data to answer the research questions was the *Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)* (Gati et al., 1996). The CDDQ was developed by Gati et al (1996) based on a taxonomy of decision-making difficulties. The three categories and their subcategories of career decision-making difficulties are (a) lack of readiness: lack of motivation, general indecisiveness, and dysfunctional beliefs; (b) lack of information: lack of knowledge about decision-making process, lack of information about self, lack of information about occupations, lack of information about ways to obtain additional information; and (c) inconsistent information: unreliable information, internal conflicts, and external conflicts.

The dependent variables included three major categories: (a) lack of readiness; (b) lack of information; and (c) inconsistent information. Within each of these major categories are

subcategories or ten difficulty categories. Each major category is measured by a specific range of questions; while specific difficulty sub-categories are measured by each specific question.

A high score for CDDQ questions 12-14 in the Lack of Readiness: Lack of Motivation area reflects a lack of willingness to make a decision at this point in time. This may indicate that the individual doesn't feel like making the decision now. A high score for CDDQ questions 15-18 in the Lack of Readiness: General Indecisiveness area reflects a state of general difficulty in making decisions. Many people tend to be indecisive in various areas of their lives. Decisions are often accompanied by hesitation and fear of failure or commitment.

Dysfunctional Beliefs, within the Lack of Readiness major category, refers to irrational beliefs and expectations about career decisions. A high score for CDDQ questions 19-23 in this area reflects a distorted perception of the career decision-making process. Irrational beliefs and expectations about career decisions, such as the belief that one only chooses a career once and that that choice is necessarily a life-long commitment, are common.

A high score for CDDQ questions 24-26 in the Lack of Information about the Decision-Making Process area reflects a lack of knowledge about how to reach a decision wisely, and specifically about the steps involved in the career decision-making process. A high score in the Lack of Information about Self area reflects a situation where the individual feels that he or she does not have enough information about self. The individual may not know what he or she wants - for example, what work conditions are preferred or whether he or she is talented enough in a certain field.

A high score for CDDQ questions 31-33 in the Lack of Information about Occupations area reflects a lack of information about existing career options: what alternatives exist and/or what each alternative is like. A high score for CDDQ questions 34-35 in the Lack of Information

about Additional Sources of Information area reflects a lack of information about ways of obtaining additional information or help that may facilitate decision making. For example, one may not know where to search for information about occupations, or where to find personal career counseling.

A high score for CDDQ questions 36-40 in the Inconsistent Information: Unreliable Information area indicates that the individual feels that the information about self or about the considered occupations contains contradictions. For example, there may be contradictions between the way one views self and the way others view him or her, or between subjective and objective information about self.

A high score for CDDQ questions 41-43 in the Inconsistent Information: Internal Conflicts area reflects a state of internal confusion. Such conflict may stem from difficulties in compromising between the many factors viewed as important, (for example, one has been accepted at a particular college, but a partner lives in a different city). Internal conflicts may also arise when an attractive occupation involves a certain unattractive element.

A high score for CDDQ questions 44-45 in the Inconsistent Information: External Conflicts area may indicate a gap between your preferences and the preferences voiced by significant others, or between the opinions of two significant others. External conflicts arise when one decides to take a certain factor into account or choose a certain occupation, while significant other/s have other preferences.

The instrument has produced high reliability (.96) using Cronbach-alpha calculations (Lancaster et al., 1999). Further, the validity of the CDDQ produced a .82 using Cronbach-alpha calculations (Lancaster et al., 1999). The self-rating inventory on the CDDQ allowed the respondents to select from a list of statements concerning their career decision-making process in

the degree to which each statement applied to them. Each statement was measured using a Likert scale from 1 to 9 as follows: 1 - Definitely Does Not Describe Me Well; 2-3 - Does Not Describe Me Well; 4-5 - Somewhat Does Not Describe Me Well; 6 - Somewhat Does Describe Me; 7-8 - Describes Me Well; and 9 - Definitely Does Describe Me Well.

Summary of Responses

This study included 261 participants who accepted the opportunity to complete the CDDQ. This number includes all Robins AFB airmen experiencing a transition from the military to civilian sector for the time period of March 29 to August 6, 2004. The questionnaire was provided to participants in-person by a member of the Robins AFB TAP office. Of the 261 participants, two did not complete the entire questionnaire, so their questionnaires were excluded and not used, leaving 259 completed CDDQs.

Selected Demographics of Sample

Demographic data collected from 259 respondents included age, gender, formal education level, marital status, military rank, and reason for leaving the military. Refer to Table 1 for a detailed description. Age of the participants ranged from 19 to 65 years of age (a 46 year span) and the mean age of 40. The typical respondent for this study was a married, 40-49 year old enlisted male due to retire from the Air Force with an undergraduate college education.

Analysis of Research Questions

To analyze the three research questions, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized at a Bonferroni-adjusted .01 level of significance to determine statistical significance. Previous research performed using this study's questionnaire (Career Decision-Making

Table 1

Selected Demographics of Sample

Independent Variables	*N*	Percentage
Age		
19-29	72	27.8
30-39	50	19.3
40-49	123	47.5
50+	14	6.4
Gender		
Male	209	80.7
Female	50	19.3
Education Level in Years		
12	49	18.9
13-14	98	37.8
15-16	67	25.9
17-18	42	16.2
19+	3	1.2
Marital Status		
Single	50	19.3
Married	172	66.4
Separated	2	0.6
Divorced	35	13.7
Military Rank		
Enlisted	225	86.9
Officer	34	13.1
Reason for Leaving the Military		
Separation	95	36.7
Retirement	164	63.3

Difficulties Questionnaire) by Gati et al. (1998) and Lancaster et al. (1999) used the .01 level of significance to determine statistical significance. If no statistical difference was found, a multiple

analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized. A review of descriptive statistics of this study's findings can be found at Appendixes C, D, and E.

Research Question Number One

Research Question Number One stated: To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and the lack of readiness from the individual to begin career decision-making? The Lack of Readiness composite score is composed of three subcategories. The first subcategory, Lack of Motivation, is composed of three questions (Question 12: *I know that I have to choose a career, but I don't have the motivation to make the decision now (I don't feel like it).* Question 13: *Work is not the most important thing in one's life and therefore the issue of choosing a career doesn't worry me much.* Question 14: *I believe that I do not have to choose a career now because time will lead me to the right career choice.* The second subcategory, general indecisiveness, is composed of four questions: (Question 15: *It is usually difficult for me to make decisions.* Question 16: *I usually feel that I need confirmation and support for my decisions from a professional person or somebody else I trust.* Question 17: *I am usually afraid of failure. Question 18: I like to do things my own way.)* The third subcategory, dysfunctional beliefs, is composed of five questions (Question 19: *I expect that entering the career I choose will also solve my personal problems.* Question 20: *I believe there is only one career that suits me.* Question 21: *I expect that through the career I choose I will fulfill all my aspirations.* Question 22: *I believe that a career choice is a one-time choice and life-long commitment.* Question 23: *I always do what I am told to do, even if it goes against my own will).* Results for this study

provide answers to the three research questions. Differences of each dependent variable on each of the independent variables were calculated.

Age. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Readiness with age as the independent variable showed there were no statistically significant differences among the age groups ($F(3, 255)=2.920$, $p=.035$; see Table 2). There was no statistically significant difference with data scores from the Lack of Readiness: General Indecisiveness and Dysfunctional Beliefs subcategories among age groups ($F(3, 255)=0.380$, $p=0.767$ and $F(3, 255)=1.837$, $p=0.141$, respectively). However, data scores from a subsequent ANOVA showed significant differences for question 13 ($F(3, 255)=6.656$, $p=.000$; see Appendix C). These results showed that respondents 50+ years of age report that *work was not the most important thing in one's life and therefore the issue of choosing a career doesn't worry me much*. In the Air Force, once a member has served for twenty years or more, he or she becomes eligible for an annuity of at least one-half of their full time military pay. Since most, if not all, 50+ years of age respondents are retirement eligible, it is understandable why that age group thinks it is not an important thing in their lives to choose a career, thus, they have little worry about it. Also, data scores from a subsequent ANOVA showed statistically significant differences among the age groups for question 14 and 20 ($F(3, 255)=3.603$, $p=.014$ and $F(3, 255)=3.947$, $p=.009$, respectively; see appendix C). Those results showed that respondents 50+ years of age report *I believe that I do not have to choose a career now because time will lead me to the right career choice* and the same age group reported *I believe there is only one career that suits me.* Respondents in the 50+ years of age group have spent decades within a military system that essentially told them what career they work in, where they would work, and for how long a time period. Older respondents have retained the mind set that time will lead them to the right career.

Gender. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Readiness with gender as the independent variable showed there were no statistically significant differences between the scores of males and females ($F(3, 258)=3.504$, $p=0.062$; see Table 2). When examined separately through an ANOVA, no significant differences were found with the Lack of Readiness subcategories Lack of Motivation ($F(3, 258)=2.176$, $p=0.141$); General Indecisiveness ($F(3, 258)=4.276$, $p=0.040$); and Dysfunctional Beliefs ($F(3, 258)=.510$, $p=.476$) (see Table 2 and Appendix C).

Education Level. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Readiness with education level as the independent variable showed there were no statistically significant differences found among the education level groups. Data scores from separate ANOVAs for each subcategory (Lack of Readiness: Lack of Motivation; General Indecisiveness; and Dysfunctional Beliefs) did not reveal any significant differences ($F(4, 254)=1.80$, $p=.129$; $F(4, 254)=.925$, $p=.450$; and $F(4, 254)=1.479$, $p=.209$, respectively) (see Table 2).

Marital Status. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Readiness with marital status as the independent variable showed there were no statistically significant differences found among the marital status groups ($F(3, 255)=1.037$, $p=.377$) (see Table 2). Data scores from separate ANOVAs for each subcategory (Lack of Readiness: Lack of Motivation; General Indecisiveness; and Dysfunctional Beliefs) did not reveal any significant differences ($F(3, 255)=.307$, $p=.820$; $F(3, 255)=1.080$, $p=.358$; and $F(3, 255)=.511$, $p=.675$, respectively) (see Table 2).

Military Rank. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Readiness with military rank as the independent variable showed there was no statistically significant differences ($F(1, 257)=.311$, $p=.578$) (see Table 2). Data scores from separate

ANOVAs for each subcategory (Lack of Readiness: Lack of Motivation; General Indecisiveness; and Dysfunctional Beliefs) did not reveal any significant differences (F(1, 257)=.099, p=.753; F(1, 257)=.022, p=.882; and F(1, 257)=.480, p=.489, respectively; see Table 2).

Reason for Leaving. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Readiness with reason for leaving as the independent variable showed there was no statistically significant differences (F(1, 257)=.655, p=.419) (see Table 2). Data scores from separate ANOVAs for each subcategory (Lack of Readiness: Lack of Motivation; General Indecisiveness; and Dysfunctional subcategory (Lack of Readiness: Lack of Motivation; General Indecisiveness; and Dysfunctional Beliefs) did not reveal any significant differences (F(1, 257)=.137, p=.712; F(1, 257)=1.239, p=.267; and F(1, 257)=.711, p=.400, respectively; see Table 2).

Research Question Number Two

Research Question Number Two stated: To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and the lack of information that may affect individual decision-making? The Lack of Information composite score is composed of four subcategories. The first subcategory, lack of information about the process, is composed of three questions: (Question 24: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what steps I have to take.* Question 25*: I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what factors to take into consideration.* Question 26: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I don't know how to combine the information I have about myself with the information I have about the different careers).* The second subcategory, lack of information about self, is composed of four questions (Question 27: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what my abilities and/or*

Table 2

Lack of Readiness Composite Scores, Means and Standard Deviation

Independent Variables					
	N	M	SD	F	*p*
Age					
19-29	72	3.58	1.08		
30-39	50	3.55	1.10		
40-49	123	3.35	1.18		
50+	14	4.51	1.90	2.92	.035
Gender					
Males	209	3.67	1.23		
Females	50	3.31	1.07	3.50	.062
Education Level					
12	49	3.68	1.13		
13-14	98	3.79	1.23		
15-16	67	3.26	1.09		
17-18	42	3.57	1.29		
19+	3	4.21	1.65	2.14	.076
Marital Status					
Single	50	3.78	1.12		
Married	172	3.60	1.26		
Separated	2	3.62	0.58		
Divorced	35	3.31	1.06	1.03	.377
Military Rank					
Enlisted	225	3.58	1.24		
Officer	34	3.70	0.95	.311	.578
Reason for Leaving					
Separated	95	3.68	1.22		
Retirement	164	3.55	1.20	.655	.419

personality traits will be like in the future. Question 28: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I am not sure about my career preferences yet (for example, what kind of a relationship I want with people, which working environment I prefer).* Question 29: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about my competencies (for example, numerical ability, verbal skills) and/or about my personality traits (for example, persistence, initiative, patience).* Question 30: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what my abilities and/or personality traits will be like in the future).* The third subcategory, lack of information about occupations, is composed of three questions (Question 31: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about the variety of occupations or training programs that exist.* Question 32: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about the characteristics of the occupations and/or training programs that interest me (for example, the market demand, typical income, possibilities of advancement, or a training program's prerequisites).* Question 33: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I don't know what careers will look like in the future).* The fourth subcategory, lack of information about other sources of information, is composed of two questions (Question 34: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know how to obtain additional information about myself (for example, about my abilities or my personality traits).* Question 35: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know how to obtain accurate and updated information about the existing occupations and training programs, or about their characteristics.).*

Age. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Information with age as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences ($F(3, 255)=2.04$, $p=.108$; see Table 3). Data scores from separate ANOVAs for each subcategory

(Lack of Information: Process; Self; Occupations; and Sources) did not reveal any statistically significant differences (F(3, 255)=1.59, p=.191; F(3, 255)=2.35, p=.073; F(3, 255)=1.18, p=.315; and F(3, 255)=2.03, p=.110, respectively; see Table 3).

Gender. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Information with gender as the independent variable showed a statistically significant difference (F(1, 257)=7.033, p=.008; see Table 3). Data scores using separate ANOVAs on each question showed significant differences for questions 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30 (F(1, 257)=7.887, p=.005; F(1, 257)=11.170, p=.001; F(1, 257)=6.476, p=.012; F(1, 257)=8.021, p=.005; F(1, 257)=8.079, p=.005; and F(1, 257)=6.191, p=.013, respectively; see Appendix D). Results from question 25 showed that males reported more difficulties than their female counterparts; question 25 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what factors to take into consideration.* The vast majority of women in the military serve in *traditional* office environments (for example, clerical and medical services) which have historically been filled by women. In contrast, the vast majority of men in the military serve in *traditional* non-office environments (for example, security forces, pilots, mechanics). Because of this difference, the males may not have ready access to career decision making information at the job site as do their female counterparts. For question 26, males reported more difficulty than their female counterparts; question 26 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I don't know how to combine the information I have about myself with the information I have about the different careers.* Located at each military facility is an office dedicated to assist those anticipating a career transition from the military to the civilian sector. The information is designed to enable the Air Force member in accessing information about themselves and how learning about self may or may not mirror the personal qualities and qualifications necessary for

the many different careers out there. Again, males reported more difficulties through their response to question 27. Question 27 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I still do not know which occupations interest me.* For question 28, male respondents showed more difficulty than their female counterparts. Available to each military transitioner are numerous information opportunities on civilian occupations. For instance, the military has developed a tool that provides the military member with information which converts the military job experience and title into easy to understand civilian job experience and their associated job titles. For example, a military job entitled Air Force Instructor can be researched to learn that those civilian jobs associated with specific job duties mirror those found in a college faculty member. Question 28 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I am not sure about my career preferences yet (for example, what kind of a relationship I want with people, which working environment I prefer).* Males also reported more difficulty through their response to question 28. Similar to other kinds of information available to the military transitioner at the Family Support Center at each Air Force base, batteries of tests are free for the asking and designed to assist the member in identifying his or her career preferences. Those assessment tools can help the transitioner readily see if they will be a better fit for an inside or outside job environment and whether they fit best working with people or not. Question 29 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about my competencies (for example, numerical ability, verbal skills) and/or about my personality traits (for example, persistence, initiative, patience).* Males also reported more difficulty through their response to question 29. Batteries of tests designed to show the personal competencies of transitioners are free to the military members. Unfortunately, the male transitioners responding to this study's questionnaire revealed they are either unaware of those tests or have not taken advantage of their readily

available access. For question 30, males also reported more difficulty than their female counterparts. Question 30 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what my abilities and/or personality traits will be like in the future.* Available to the military transitioner at the Family Support Center on every Air Force base is information about the future outlook regarding skills, abilities, and knowledge necessary for landing and holding civilian jobs for many years from now.

Education Level. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Information with education level as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences ($F(4, 254)=1.167$, $p=.326$; see Table 3). Data scores using separate ANOVAs on each subcategory (Lack of Information: Process; Self; Occupations; and Sources) revealed no statistically significant differences among education level groups ($F(4, 254)=1.027$, $p=.394$; $F(4, 254)=1.283$, $p=.277$; $F(4, 254)=.934$, $p=.445$; and $F(4, 254)=1.228$, $p=.299$, respectively; see Table 3 and appendix D).

Marital Status. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Information with marital status as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences ($F(3, 255)=.476$, $p=.699$; see Table 3). Data scores using separate ANOVAs on each subcategory (Lack of Information: Process; Self; Occupations; and Sources) revealed no statistically significant differences among marital status groups ($F(3, 255)=.810$, $p=.489$; $F(3, 255)=.318$, $p=.813$; $F(3, 255)=.646$, $p=.586$; and $F(3, 255)=.272$, $p=.846$, respectively; see Table 3).

Military Rank. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Information with military rank as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences ($F(1, 257)=2.572$, $p=.110$; see Table 3). Data scores using separate ANOVAs on each

subcategory (Lack of Information: Process; Self; Occupations; and Sources) revealed no statistically significant differences between enlisted and officer respondent groups (F(1, 257)=5.425, p=.021; F(1, 257)=1.844, p=.176; F(1, 257)=1.415, p=.235; and F(1, 257)=.487, p=.486, respectively; see Table 3 and appendix D).

Reason for Leaving. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Lack of Information with reason for leaving as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences (F(1, 257)=1.043, p=.308; see Table 3). Data scores using separate ANOVAs on each subcategory (Lack of Information: Process; Self; Occupations; and Sources) revealed no significant differences (F(1, 257)=.156, p=.693; F(1, 257)=2.140, p=.145; F(1, 257)=.484, p=.487; F(1, 257)=1.158, p=.283, respectively; see Table 3 and Appendix D).

Research Question Number Three

To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and inconsistent information that may affect individual decision-making? The Inconsistent Information composite score is composed of three subcategories. The first subcategory, Unreliable Information, is composed of five questions (Question 36: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I constantly change my career preferences (for example, sometimes I want to be self-employed and sometimes I want to be an employee).*Question 37: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I have contradicting*

Table 3

Lack of Information Composite Scores, Means and Standard Deviation

Independent Variables					
	N	M	SD	F	*p*
Age					
19-29	72	3.03	1.63		
30-39	50	3.29	1.59		
40-49	123	3.40	1.84		
50+	14	4.26	2.39	2.04	.108
Gender					
Males	209	3.47	1.72		
Females	50	2.73	1.94	7.03	.008
Education Level					
12	49	3.58	1.83		
13-14	98	3.42	1.63		
15-16	67	2.94	1.70		
17-18	42	3.44	2.14		
19+	3	3.19	1.12	1.16	.326
Marital Status					
Single	50	3.60	1.72		
Married	172	3.27	1.75		
Separated	2	3.50	0.48		
Divorced	35	3.20	2.05	.476	.699
Military Rank					
Enlisted	225	3.25	1.80		
Officer	34	3.75	1.63	2.57	.110
Reason for Leaving					
Separated	95	3.18	1.66		
Retirement	164	3.41	1.88	1.04	.308

data about my abilities and/or personality traits (for example, I believe I am patient with other people but others say I am impatient). Question 38: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I have contradictory data about the existence or the characteristics of a particular occupation or training program.* Question 39: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I'm equally attracted by a number of careers and it is difficult for me to choose among them.* Question 40: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not like any of the occupations or training programs to which I can be admitted).* The second subcategory, Internal Conflicts, is composed of three questions (Question 41: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because the occupation I am interested in involves a certain characteristic that bothers me (for example, I am interested in medicine, but I do not want to study for so many years).* Question 42: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because my preferences can not be combined in one career, and I do not want to give any of them up (e.g., I'd like to work as a free-lancer, but I also wish to have a steady income).* Question 43: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because people who are important to me (such as spouse or friends) do not agree with the career options I am considering and/or the career characteristics I desire).* The third subcategory, External Conflicts, is composed of two questions (Question 44: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because my skills and abilities do not match those required by the occupation I am interested in.* Question 45: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because there are contradictions between the recommendations made by different people who are important to me about the career they recommend that I choose, or about what career characteristics should guide my decision).*

Age. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Inconsistent Information with age as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences

among the age groups (F(3, 255)=2.71, p=.045; see Table 4). Data scores from the Inconsistent Information subcategories (Unreliable Information; Internal Conflicts; and External Conflicts) reveal no statistically significant differences (F(3, 255)=2.551, p=.056; F(3, 255)=2.702, p=.046; and F(3, 255)=1.747, p=.158, respectively; see Table 4 and Appendix E).

Gender. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Inconsistent Information with gender as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences between male and female respondents (F(1, 257)=3.971, p=.047; see Table 4). Data scores from the Inconsistent Information subcategories (Unreliable Information; Internal Conflicts; and External Conflicts) reveal no statistically significant differences (F(1, 257)=4.275, p=.040; F(1, 257)=2.544, p=.112; and F(1, 257)=2.234, p=.136; see Table 4). However, data scores from a subsequent ANOVA showed statistically significant differences for question 39 (F(1, 257)=6.194, p=.193; see appendix E). Males reported more difficulty than their female counterparts for question 39. Question 39 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I'm equally attracted by a number of careers and it is difficult for me to choose among them.*

Education Level. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Inconsistent Information with education level as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences among education level groups (F(4, 254)=.502, p=.735; see Table 4). Data scores from the Inconsistent Information subcategories (Unreliable Information; Internal Conflicts; respectively; see Table 4 and Appendix E).

Marital Status. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Inconsistent Information with marital status as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences (F(3, 255)=.371, p=.774; see Table 4). Data scores using separate ANOVAs on each

subcategory (Unreliable Information; Internal Conflicts; and External Conflicts) revealed no statistically significant differences; see appendix E.

Military Rank. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Inconsistent Information with military rank as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences ($F(1, 257)=1.023$, $p=.313$; see Table 4). Data scores from the Inconsistent Information subcategories (Unreliable Information; Internal Conflicts; and External Conflicts) reveal no statistically significant differences ($F(1, 257)=.587$, $p=.444$; $F(1, 257)=.851$, $p=.357$; and $F(1, 257)=1.563$, $p=.212$, respectively; see Table 4 and appendix E).

Reason for Leaving. Composite data scores for major category and dependent variable Inconsistent Information with reason for leaving as the independent variable showed no statistically significant differences ($F(1, 257)=.012$, $p=.913$; see Table 4). Data scores from the Inconsistent Information subcategories (Unreliable Information; Internal Conflicts; and External Conflicts) reveal no statistically significant differences ($F(1, 257)=.146$, $p=.702$; $F(1, 257)=.458$, $p=.499$; and $F(1, 257)=.162$, $p=.687$, respectively; see Table 4 and appendix E).

Summary

Age and gender were the only independent variables that showed statistically significant differences within all three categories of career decision making difficulties (Lack of Readiness; Lack of Information; and Inconsistent Information). The Lack of Readiness dependent variable, the 50+ year old respondents reported work was not the most important thing in life and choosing a career did not worry them. Also, the 50+ year old respondents reported they did not have to choose a career now because they believe time will lead them to the right career.

Within the Lack of Information dependent variable, the male respondents reported finding it difficult to make a career decision because they do not know what factors to take into

consideration. Also, males reported finding it difficult to make a career decision because they do not know how to combine the information about self with information they have about different careers. Compared to their female counterparts, males reported finding it more difficult to make a career decision because they do not know which occupations interest them. Males also reported it difficult to make a career decision because they are not sure about career preferences yet (ie., what kind of relationship they want with people, and which working environment they prefer). Males reported finding it difficult to make a career decision because they do not have enough information about their competencies (ie., numerical abilities and verbal skills) and/or about their personality traits (ie., persistence, initiative, patience). Also, males reported finding it difficult to make a career decision because they do not know what their abilities and/or personality traits will be like in the future.

Within the Inconsistent Information dependent variable, the male respondents reported finding it difficult to make a career decision because they are equally attracted by a number of careers and find it difficult to choose among them.

Table 4

Inconsistent Information Composite Scores, Means and Standard Deviation

Independent Variables					
	N	M	SD	F	*p*
Age					
19-29	72	2.84	1.56		
30-39	50	2.84	1.47		
40-49	123	2.99	1.68		
50+	14	4.16	2.11	2.71	.045
Gender					
Males	209	3.08	1.50		
Females	50	2.57	1.87	3.97	.047
Education Level					
12	49	3.14	1.84		
13-14	98	3.09	1.54		
15-16	67	2.79	1.59		
17-18	42	2.89	1.80		
19+	3	2.70	1.55	.502	.735
Marital Status					
Single	50	3.20	1.68		
Married	172	2.94	1.61		
Separated	2	3.00	.707		
Divorced	35	2.89	1.84	.371	.774
Military Rank					
Enlisted	225	2.94	1.66		
Officer	34	3.25	1.59	1.02	.313
Reason for Leaving					
Separated	95	2.97	1.59		
Retirement	164	2.99	1.69	.012	.913

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents (a) statement of purpose, (b) research questions, (c) research procedures, (d) analysis of data, (e) summary of findings, (f) conclusion, (g) discussion, and (h) recommendations for further research.

Summary

Since those leaving the Air Force today, either through retirement or separation, are relatively young in age, they find it necessary and desirable, to seek continued employment in the civilian sector. In making the decision to continue in the workforce, most have another important decision to make -- choice of a career.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived career decision-making difficulties (i.e.; lack of readiness on part of the individual to begin the career decision-making process; lack of information; and inconsistent information) of Transition Assistance Program (TAP) participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia, from March 29 to August 6, 2004, immediately prior to program participation.

Research Questions

1. To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and the lack of readiness from the individual to begin career decision-making?
2. To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military

transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and the lack of information that may affect individual decision-making?

3. To what extent is there a difference in selected demographics (age; gender; education level; marital status; military rank; and reason for leaving the military) of military transition assistance program participants at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia and inconsistent information that may affect individual decision-making?

Research Procedures

Participants in this study were military personnel within six months of leaving the military at the Robins AFB from March 29 to August 6, 2004. They were asked to assist in the study at the beginning of their TAP experience. Of course, prospective participants had the option to decline. Those participants retiring from military service and those separating from the military before reaching retirement eligibility were used for this study. Participants who have 20 or more years of military service are classified as retirees. Those not retiring are classified as participants being separated from the military before reaching retirement eligibility. Regarding the age range of participants, this study was unlike some previous studies of its kind. Previous studies' age range was somewhat constrained (approximately 20 year age range), and fell within two of the general age ranges (35-44, 45-54) (Pinch, 1987; Strong, 1996; Webb, 1990). In contrast, this study provides an age range of 46 years (19-65). Since this is a causal-comparative study, a questionnaire was used. A written questionnaire is intended to gather information from a large number of people and is one way of self-reporting information. One purpose of the questionnaire was to get self-reported answers to the characteristics of people who use the services of the military transition assistance program. The selected instrument, the *Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)* (Gati et al., 1996), was used in this study to collect data

from military TAP participants at Robins AFB during the spring and early summer of 2004. These participants were selected because this study was conducted at Robins AFB, Georgia, and selected participants have similar military backgrounds to TAP participants worldwide. Since the role of Robins Air Force Base is multi-faceted, its personnel hold most of the Air Force's career specialties.

The questionnaire was provided to those agreeing to participate in the study. The questionnaire, its contents, and a cover letter were designed to be all-inclusive and formatted in a brochure-type presentation style. The cover letter explained the importance of questionnaire completion and that participation was voluntary (Appendix B).

Before providing the questionnaire to prospective participants, appropriate paperwork was accomplished and forwarded to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for its review and approval. The study was started in late March 2004 once final approval was received by the governing IRB.

Analysis of Data

A one-way analysis (ANOVA) was used on each research question (ten difficulty sub-categories). When a one-way analysis did not find a significant difference, a t-test was used to answer each series of questions (major categories of career decision-making difficulties). Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to compare the independent variables with dependent variables. The mean and standard deviation were used to compare transitioners' demographic data (gender, age, military rank, formal education, reason for leaving the military, and marital status) with dependent variables (the three major difficulty categories of lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information; and the ten difficulty sub-categories of lack of motivation, general indecisiveness, dysfunctional myths, lack of knowledge about

process, lack of information about self, lack of information about occupations, lack of information about ways of obtaining additional information, unreliable information, internal conflicts, and external conflicts. The alpha level was set at .01 to establish significance for the study.

Summary of Findings

According to the research results, based on one's age, military rank, gender, reason for leaving the military, marital status, and formal education level, some career decision-making difficulties are inevitable. Of the six independent variables used in this study, age and gender were the two to show a statistical significant difference in all three major categories of CDDQ instrument (Lack of Readiness, Lack of Information, and Inconsistent Information).

The following are findings as analyzed from the research questions formulated for the study:

1. Research Question One: There were statistically significant differences based on age. On two occasions those respondents 50+ years of age reported that work was not the most important thing in life and choosing a career did not worry them, and 50+ year old respondents reported they did not have to choose a career now because time will lead them to the right career. This could be one of the reasons the military has time limitations (number of years) based on age requirements. In the Air Force, once a member has served for twenty years or more, he or she becomes eligible for an annuity of at least one-half of their full time military pay. Since most, if not all, 50+ years of age respondents are retirement eligible, it is understandable why that age group thinks it is not an important thing in their lives to choose a career, thus, they have little worry about it. Respondents in the 50+ years of age group have spent decades within a military system that essentially told them what career they work in, where they would work, and for how

long a time period. Those older respondents apparently have retained the same mind set that time will lead them to the right career. The remaining independent variables (military rank, marital status, reason for leaving, and education level) recorded no statistically significant differences in the Lack of Readiness dependent variable category.

2. Research Question Two: For the Lack of Information dependent variable, the gender independent variable showed statistically significant differences on six occasions. Results from question 25 showed that males reported more difficulties than their female counterparts; question 25 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what factors to take into consideration.* The vast majority of women in the military serve in *traditional* office environments (for example, clerical and medical services) which have historically been filled by women. In contrast, the vast majority of men in the military serve in *traditional* non-office environments (for example, security forces, pilots, mechanics). For question 26, males reported more difficulty than their female counterparts; question 26 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I don't know how to combine the information I have about myself with the information I have about the different careers.* Located at each military facility is an office dedicated to assist those anticipating a career transition from the military to the civilian sector. That information is designed to enable the Air Force member in accessing information about themselves and how learning about self may or may not mirror the personal qualities and qualifications necessary for the many different careers out there. Again, males reported more difficulties through their response to question 27. Question 27 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I still do not know which occupations interest me.* Available to each military transitioner are numerous information opportunities on civilian occupations. For instance, the military has developed a tool that provides the military member with information

which converts the military job experience and title into easy to understand civilian job experience and their associated job titles. For example, a military job entitled Air Force Instructor can be researched to learn that those civilian jobs associated with specific job duties mirror those found in a college faculty member. Question 28 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I am not sure about my career preferences yet (for example, what kind of a relationship I want with people, which working environment I prefer).* Males also reported more difficulty through their response to question 28. Similar to other kinds of information available to the military transitioner at the Family Support Center at each Air Force base, batteries of tests are free for the asking and designed to assist the member in identifying his or her career preferences. Those assessment tools can help the transitioner readily see if they will be a better fit for an inside or outside job environment and whether they fit best working with people or not. Evidently, this study's male respondents are unaware of this free service or chose not to use it. Question 29 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about my competencies (for example, numerical ability, verbal skills) and/or about my personality traits (for example, persistence, initiative, patience).* Males also reported more difficulty through their response to question 29. Batteries of tests designed to show the personal competencies of transitioners are free to the military members. Unfortunately, the male transitioners responding to this study's questionnaire revealed they are either unaware of those tests or have not taken advantage of their readily available access. For question 30, males also reported more difficulty than their female counterparts. Question 30 stated: *I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know what my abilities and/or personality traits will be like in the future.* Available to the military transitioner at the Family Support Center

on every Air Force base is information about the future outlook regarding skills, abilities, and knowledge necessary for landing and holding civilian jobs for many years from now.

3. Research Question Three: For the Inconsistent Information dependent variable, one of the independent variables (gender) showed a statistical significant difference. The only time gender showed a statistical significant difference, it revealed that males find it difficult to make a career decision because they are equally attracted by a number of careers and find it difficult to choose among them. According to this study's findings, men tend to be attracted to and choose a larger number of careers than their female counterparts.

Discussion

Well's 1998 study showed that the items most valued by TAP participants after going through their program offerings were knowledge, job interviewing practice, and resources on getting a job. This coincides with information learned from this study's findings in the major career decision making difficulty's Lack of Information category.

Webb's 1990 study focused on determining whether leadership traits or characteristics developed in the military by officers in the grade of Major/Lt Colonel to Colonel/Captain (US Navy) affected the transition to successful performance as civilian managers upon separation from the military. His study found that the lower the former officers rank upon leaving the military, the higher appeared to be his or her perception of having successfully adapted to the civilian leadership environment. Data from this study shows the same results, even though it looks at the transition prior to his or her reentry from the military to the civilian sector. He also found that senior officers reported that the existing military separation preparation and counseling appeared to be inadequate and was not being used by the majority of officers. In this

study, the number of officers eligible for TAP services was larger than those who chose to use those services.

Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin in a 1961 study created a five-part definition for life satisfaction which concluded that transitioners' have a need for holding a positive self image in order to successful make the transition from military to civilian life. This study has a component regarding the importance of assessing one's Knowledge About Self in order to make a more successful transition from the military to civilian sector. Regarding this study's research findings using the lack of readiness dependent variable, the following information was found. Based on using the age independent variable, results showed that respondents 50+ years of age reported that work was not the most important thing in life and choosing a career does not worry them. Also the 50+ years of age respondents reported they do not have to choose a career now because time will lead them to the right career.

Campbell's 1976 study examined 17 domains of life satisfaction leading to overall life satisfaction. Those domains are: marriage, family life, health, neighborhood, friendships, organizations, job, life in the U.S., national government, religion, community, nonwork, housing, usefulness of education, standard of living, amount of education, and savings. In this study, the *Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)* (Gati, et al., 1996) was used to measure transitioner's adaptation from the military to civilian life. Those three major career decision making difficulties are: Lack of Readiness, Lack of Information, and Inconsistent Information, which are this study's dependent variables.

In the Andrews and Withey 1976 study they stated there are nine randomly used variables related to life satisfaction: age, sex (gender), income, education, religion, employment, marriage

and family, and health. In this study, the independent variables are: age, gender, education level, marital status, military rank, and reason for leaving the military.

Also, the findings for age as a correlate of life satisfaction were reported by Andrews and Withey in 1976 and from a study by Stock, Okim, Harring and Witter in 1983 as mixed. Their findings showed a near zero correlation between age and subjective well-being in the studies. In contrast, Campbell (1976) and Medley (1980) did find a positive correlation between age and life satisfaction. Results showed a somewhat more complex pattern in that while satisfaction generally increased with age, there was a dip in the 45-54 year old group. In this study, we learned that the 50+ year old respondents reported increased difficulties within the lack of readiness dependent variable with their transition from the military to the civilian sector compared to younger respondents.

Andrews and Withey (1976) and Clemente and Sauer (1976) found little or no relationship between education and life satisfaction, especially when other factors were controlled. However, Campbell (1976) found the opposite results. In his study, with the relationship between the amount of education and satisfaction, those with less education were more satisfied with their career decisions than those with more education. This study's results, like those of Andrews and Withey (1976) and Clemente and Sauer (1976) showed no significant differences using the education level independent variable.

In the Osipow, Carney, and Barak 1976 study that used the *Career Decision Scale (CDS)* identified four factors associated with career indecision: diffusion, support, approach, and external barriers. In this study, the CDDQ was used to measure career indecision, using the three major career decision making difficulty categories: Lack of Readiness, Lack of Information, and Inconsistent Information.

Quinn's 1974 study showed that sex (gender) was not a significant moderator of career satisfaction, except in certain work settings, like private versus government organizations. In this study, gender did show significant relationships with all three major career decision making difficulty categories. Quinn's 1974 study showed age as a significant factor in reporting career satisfaction, with satisfaction rising with age. This study's results showed different findings. This study showed that for the 50+ age group, they reported that work was not the most important thing in life and choosing a career does not worry them; and the same age group reported they do not have to choose a career now because time will lead them to the right career.

Conclusions

Based upon the findings reported in this study, the following conclusions have been drawn:

1. Respondents 50+ years of age reported more career decision-making difficulties in the Lack of Readiness area than did their younger counterparts.
2. Male respondents reported more career decision-making difficulties in the Lack of Information area than did their female counterparts.
3. Male respondents reported more career decision-making difficulties in the Inconsistent Information area than did their female counterparts.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study recommendations for further research are presented:

1. A study should be conducted to identify the career decision-making difficulties of those transitioning from the military to civilian sector immediately prior to leaving the military, and strongly suggest further studies take a look at identifying the career decision making difficulties six months to one year after leaving the military.

2. A study should be conducted to identify those various services provided by the Transition Assistance Program (TAP) and rank order them by degree of importance to the respondents based on their demographics (age, gender, military rank, marital status, reason for leaving, and the education level).
3. A longitudinal study should be conducted to compare differences in career decision-making difficulties (if any) from those choosing to use TAP resources and their results to those choosing not to use the TAP resources and their results.

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APPENDIX A

CAREER DECISION-MAKING DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE (CDDQ)

Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire

Please begin by completing the following information:

1. Age at last birthday _____

2. Number of years of formal education _____

3. Gender Male Female

4. Marital Status Single Married Separated Divorced Widowed

5. Military rank _____

6. Reason for leaving the military service Retirement Separation

7. Total years of military service _____

8. Air Force Specialty (Career Field) _____

9. Have you considered what field you would like to major in or what occupations you would like? Yes No

10. If so, how confident are you in your choice?

Not Very Confident At All 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very Confident

11. Have you filled out this questionnaire before? Yes No

Next, you will be presented with a list of statements concerning the career decision-making process. Please rate the degree to which each statement applies to you on the following scale by circling the chosen number.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Definitely Does Not Describe Me Well		**Does Not Describe Me Well**	**Somewhat Does Not Describe Me Well**		**Somewhat Does Describe Me**	**Describes Me Well**		**Definitely Does Not Describe Me Well**

Circle 1 if the statement does not describe you, 9 if it describes you well, or any of the intermediate levels.

The Difficulty	Definitely Does Not								Definitely Does
12. I know that I have to choose a career, but **I don't have the motivation** to make the decision now (I don't feel like it).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Work is not the most important thing in one's life and therefore **the issue of choosing a career doesn't worry me much**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. I believe that I do not have to choose a career now because **time will lead me to the right career choice**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. It is usually **difficult for me to make decisions**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. I usually feel that **I need confirmation and support for my decisions** from a professional person or somebody else I trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. I am usually afraid of **failure**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. I like to **do things my own way**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. I expect that entering the career I choose will also **solve my personal problems**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. I believe there is only **one career that suits me**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

The Difficulty	Definitely Does Not								Definitely Does
21. I expect that through the career I choose I will **fulfill all my aspirations**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. I believe that a **career choice** is a one-time choice and **life-long commitment**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. I always do what I am told to do, even if it **goes against my own will**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know **what steps I have to take**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know **what factors to take into consideration**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
26. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I don't know **how to combine the information I have about myself with the information I have about the different careers**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
27. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I still do not know **which occupations interest me**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I am not sure about my **career preferences** yet (for example, what kind of a relationship I want with people, which working environment I prefer).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29. I find it difficult to make a career decision because **I do not have enough information about my competencies** (for example, numerical ability, verbal skills) and/or about my personality traits (for example, persistence, initiative, patience).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

The Difficulty	Definitely Does Not								Definitely Does
30. I find it difficult to make a career decision **because I do not know what my abilities and/or personality traits** will be like in the **future**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about the **variety of occupations or training programs that exist**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not have enough information about the **characteristics of the occupations and/or training programs** that interest me (for example, the market demand, typical income, possibilities of advancement, or a training program's prerequisites).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I don't know what **careers will look like in the future**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know how to obtain additional information about myself (for example, about my abilities or my personality traits).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
35. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I do not know how to obtain **accurate and updated information about the existing occupations and training programs, or about their characteristics**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
36. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I **constantly change my career preferences** (for example, sometimes I want to be self-employed and sometimes I want to be an employee).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

The Difficulty	Definitely Does Not								Definitely Does
37. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I have **contradictory data about my abilities and/or personality traits** (for example, I believe I am patient with other people but others say I am impatient).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
38. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I have **contradictory data** about the **existence** or the **characteristics** of a **particular occupation or training program**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
39. I find it difficult to make a career decision because I'm **equally attracted by a number of careers** and it is difficult for me to choose among them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
40. I find it difficult to make a career decision because **I do not like any of the occupations or training programs to which I can be admitted**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
41. I find it difficult to make a career decision because the **occupation** I am interested in involves a **certain characteristic that bothers me** (for example, I am interested in medicine, but I do not want to study for so many years).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
42. I find it difficult to make a career decision **because my preferences can not be combined in one career**, and I do not want to give any of them up (e.g., I'd like to work as a free-lancer, but I also wish to have a steady income).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
43. I find it difficult to make a career decision because **people who are important to me** (such as spouse or friends) **do not agree with the career options I am considering** and/or the career characteristics I desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

The Difficulty	Definitely Does Not								Definitely Does
44. I find it difficult to make a career decision because **my skills and abilities do not match those required by the occupation I am interested in**.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
45. I find it difficult to make a career decision because there are **contradictions between the recommendations made by different people who are important to me** about the career they recommend that I choose, or about what career characteristics should guide my decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Thank you for your participation. Best wishes on your transition.

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER ASKING FOR PARTICIPATION IN COMPLETING STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

March 2004

Dear AF Member,

I am currently a doctoral student at the University of Georgia. As part of my doctoral program, I am conducting a survey of the career decision-making difficulties experienced by those transitioning from the military to civilian sector. Your feedback will assist in identifying those specific career decision-making difficulties experienced by those at Robins Air Force Base, Georgia.

I realize how valuable your time is. Realizing this, the Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ) will only take about 10 minutes to complete. Your response is critical so please return it to me as soon as you have completed it.

Answers will remain confidential as I am interested in the aggregate data only and not individual responses. Information, as it relates to you and as an individual, will not be shared. Your participation is voluntary, but nevertheless greatly appreciated.

Thank you very much for participating in my research to identify the career decision-making difficulties experienced by those transitioning from the military to civilian sector.

Your time and responses are greatly appreciated. You may contact me at work (478)327-1906 or at home (478)988-3260 or my committee chair, Dr. Clifton Smith at (706)542-4208 should you have any questions regarding my study.

Sincerely yours,

Don Edwin Jenrette, Jr.

APPENDIX C

RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Lack of Readiness

	Age									
	19-29		30-39		40-49		50+			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=72		*N*=50		*N*=123		*N*=14			
Lack of Motivation										
Question 12	2.35	1.99	3.16	2.44	2.70	2.22	3.50	2.62	1.893	.131
Question 13	3.00	2.14	3.76	2.59	3.45	2.21	5.93	2.46	6.656	.000
Question 14	3.01	2.07	2.72	2.26	2.90	2.25	4.86	2.82	3.603	.014
Composite	2.78	1.65	3.20	1.85	3.01	1.82	4.73	2.06		
General Indecisiveness										
Question 15	2.83	1.99	3.12	2.54	3.33	2.30	3.50	2.92	.802	.484
Question 16	3.78	2.32	3.38	2.27	3.67	2.38	4.79	2.96	1.301	.275
Question 17	3.86	2.54	3.84	2.41	3.89	2.46	3.86	2.74	.007	.999
Question 18	6.40	1.97	6.04	2.02	5.75	2.08	6.29	2.55	1.609	.188
Composite	4.20	1.49	4.07	1.51	4.15	1.65	4.60	2.39		
Dysfunctional Beliefs										
Question 19	3.31	2.34	2.60	1.94	2.86	2.00	4.36	3.10	3.049	.029
Question 20	2.68	2.12	2.58	1.96	2.61	1.95	4.57	2.92	3.947	.009
Question 21	5.25	2.59	4.58	2.50	2.61	2.28	4.14	2.21	1.497	.216
Question 22	3.26	2.31	3.26	2.23	3.15	2.28	4.36	2.79	1.138	.334
Question 23	3.29	2.08	3.66	2.06	3.49	2.32	4.14	2.62	.684	.563
Composite	3.54	1.70	3.32	1.45	3.34	1.41	4.30	2.06		
Lack of Readiness Composite (Age)	3.58	1.08	3.55	1.10	3.35	1.18	4.51	1.90		

Lack of Readiness

	Gender					
	Male		Female			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=209		*N=50*			
Lack of Motivation						
Question 12	2.85	2.24	2.24	2.16	3.032	.083
Question 13	3.55	2.35	3.36	2.34	.263	.609
Question 14	3.10	2.30	2.62	2.02	1.800	.181
Composite	3.16	1.85	2.74	1.74		
General Indecisiveness						
Question 15	3.26	2.34	2.74	2.10	2.090	.150
Question 16	3.87	2.40	3.04	2.22	4.913	.028
Question 17	3.97	2.47	3.48	2.47	1.558	.213
Question 18	6.07	2.02	5.80	2.29	.666	.415
Composite	4.29	1.64	3.76	1.46		
Dysfunctional Beliefs						
Question 19	3.15	2.22	2.46	1.96	4.037	.046
Question 20	2.80	2.23	2.42	1.38	1.348	.247
Question 21	4.75	2.42	4.86	2.44	.089	.766
Question 22	3.23	2.21	3.44	2.68	.334	.564
Question 23	3.53	2.17	3.40	2.44	.129	.719
Composite	3.49	1.54	3.31	1.58		
Lack of Readiness Composite (Gender)	3.67	1.23	3.31	1.07		

Lack of Readiness

	Education Level											
	12		13-14		15-16		17-18		19+			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	SD	*F*	*p*
	N=49		*N=98*		*N=67*		*N=42*		*N=3*			
Lack of Motivation												
Question 12												
	2.76	2.10	3.22	2.51	2.13	1.78	2.50	2.12	3.00	3.46	2.562	.039
Question 13												
	3.16	2.41	3.77	2.34	3.16	2.15	3.71	2.47	6.00	3.00	1.859	.118
Question 14												
	3.14	2.24	3.03	2.30	2.54	2.04	3.60	2.44	2.00	1.73	1.653	.161
Composite												
	3.02	1.82	3.33	1.93	2.61	1.58	3.26	1.92	3.66	2.00		
General Indecisiveness												
Question 15												
	2.92	2.07	3.42	2.31	2.93	2.31	3.21	2.54	3.33	2.51	.623	.646
Question 16												
	4.06	2.25	3.78	2.40	3.13	2.28	4.05	2.57	3.67	2.08	1.481	.208
Question 17												
	4.04	2.44	4.21	2.38	3.39	2.52	3.67	2.66	3.67	1.52	1.245	.292
Question 18												
	6.12	1.95	6.02	2.01	6.06	2.03	5.85	2.46	5.67	2.08	.140	.967
Composite												
	4.27	1.66	4.35	1.53	3.87	1.58	4.22	1.86	3	4.07	0.72	
Dysfunctional Beliefs												
Question 19												
	3.08	2.14	2.99	2.04	2.76	2.06	3.24	2.61	5.33	3.51	1.194	.314
Question 20												
	2.30	2.12	2.73	2.10	2.75	1.85	2.48	2.31	4.33	4.04	.602	.662
Question 21												
	5.00	2.36	5.10	2.49	4.48	2.38	4.17	2.27	5.00	3.00	1.486	.207
Question 22												
	3.43	2.47	3.79	2.30	2.88	2.18	3.17	2.36	4.67	3.78	.993	.412
Question 23												
	3.69	2.20	3.79	2.30	3.06	2.13	3.29	2.20	4.00	1.73	1.292	.273
Composite												
	1.66	1.53	3.60	1.48	3.18	1.51	3.26	1.68	4.66	2.73		
Lack of Readiness Composite												
	3.68	1.13	3.79	1.23	3.26	1.09	3.57	1.29	4.21	1.65		

Lack of Readiness

	Marital Status									
	Single		Married		Separated		Divorced			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=50		*N=172*		*N=2*		*N=35*			
Lack of Motivation										
Question 12	2.78	2.15	2.73	2.26	1.50	.70	2.77	2.35	211	.889
Question 13	3.26	2.26	3.62	2.40	5.00	1.41	3.29	2.29	.676	.568
Question 14	3.48	2.14	3.00	2.29	2.00	1.41	2.40	2.14	1.725	.162
Composite	3.17	1.82	3.11	1.89	2.83	1.17	2.81	1.60		
General Indecisiveness										
Question 15	3.40	1.95	3.16	2.44	6.00	2.82	2.69	1.90	1.702	.167
Question 16	4.18	2.16	3.72	2.44	3.00	1.41	3.00	2.32	1.756	.156
Question 17	3.82	2.34	3.91	2.48	3.50	.707	3.80	2.75	.043	.988
Question 18	6.42	1.89	5.92	2.10	6.50	.70	5.86	2.21	.846	.470
Composite	4.45	1.50	4.17	1.67	4.75	.000	3.82	1.54		
Dysfunctional Beliefs										
Question 19	3.30	2.13	2.92	2.21	1.50	.707	3.14	2.18	.738	.530
Question 20	2.56	1.76	2.89	2.26	2.00	1.41	2.23	1.64	1.187	.315
Question 21	5.28	2.41	4.70	2.41	6.50	.707	4.29	2.42	1.609	.188
Question 22	3.30	2.03	3.35	2.44	3.50	.707	2.80	2.04	.566	.638
Question 23	3.64	1.89	3.47	2.25	2.50	.707	3.54	2.61	.217	.885
Composite	3.60	1.52	3.46	1.57	3.20	0.56	3.20	1.53		
Lack of Readiness Composite (Marital Status)	3.78	1.12	3.60	1.26	3.62	0.58	3.31	1.06		

Lack of Readiness

	Military Rank					
	Enlisted		Officer			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=225		*N=34*			
Lack of Motivation						
Question 12	2.80	2.30	2.29	1.69	1.509	.220
Question 13	3.39	2.38	4.35	1.99	5.058	.025
Question 14	3.02	2.35	2.88	1.85	.113	.737
Composite	3.06	1.91	3.17	1.20		
General Indecisiveness						
Question 15	3.19	2.33	2.97	2.08	.270	.604
Question 16	3.64	2.42	4.21	2.08	1.163	.282
Question 17	3.88	2.52	3.82	2.16	.015	.902
Question 18	6.02	2.10	6.00	1.92	.002	.963
Composite	4.17	1.66	4.22	1.40		
Dysfunctional Beliefs						
Question 19	2.95	2.15	3.44	2.40	1.484	.224
Question 20	2.67	2.07	3.12	2.26	1.336	.249
Question 21	4.85	2.43	4.21	2.29	2.122	.146
Question 22	3.27	2.36	3.26	1.92	.000	.988
Question 23	3.41	2.24	4.12	2.04	3.017	.084
Composite	3.43	1.53	3.62	2.28		
Lack of Readiness Composite (Military Rank)	3.58	1.24	3.70	0.95		

Lack of Readiness

	Reason for Leaving					
	Separated		Retirement			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=95		*N=164*			
Lack of Motivation						
Question 12	2.73	2.30	2.74	2.20	.002	.968
Question 13	3.20	2.36	3.70	2.33	2.680	.103
Question 14	3.16	2.22	2.91	2.27	.699	.404
Composite	3.02	1.90	3.11	1.80		
General Indecisiveness						
Question 15	3.02	2.06	3.24	2.43	.562	.454
Question 16	4.01	2.46	3.53	2.33	2.450	.119
Question 17	4.17	2.55	3.70	2.42	2.147	.144
Question 18	6.15	2.09	5.94	2.06	.605	.437
Composite	4.32	1.55	4.10	1.64		
Dysfunctional Beliefs						
Question 19	3.13	2.31	2.95	2.11	.384	.536
Question 20	2.80	2.27	2.69	1.99	.167	.683
Question 21	5.15	2.53	4.55	2.33	3.716	.055
Question 22	3.39	2.34	3.20	2.29	.398	.528
Question 23	3.35	2.06	3.59	2.31	.627	.429
Composite	3.56	1.67	3.38	1.48		
Lack of Readiness Composite (Reason for Leaving)	3.68	1.22	3.55	1.20		

APPENDIX D

RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Lack of Information

	Age									
	19-29		30-39		40-49		50+			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=72		*N=50*		*N-123*		*N=14*			
Lack of Information on Process										
Question 24										
	3.08	2.05	3.30	2.25	3.39	2.11	4.29	2.84	3.273	.072
Question 25										
	3.50	2.27	3.18	2.16	3.37	2.25	4.57	2.84	1.367	.253
Question 26										
	3.29	2.17	3.52	2.00	3.72	2.30	4.79	2.94	1.884	.133
Composite										
	3.25	1.99	3.33	1.94	3.50	2.02	4.54	2.65	1.594	.191
Lack of Information on Self										
Question 27										
	3.07	2.20	3.54	2.20	3.57	2.32	4.71	2.86	2.147	.095
Question 28										
	2.75	1.94	3.62	2.12	3.52	2.40	4.43	2.90	3.205	.024
Question 29										
	2.72	1.89	3.02	1.92	3.26	2.19	3.79	2.91	1.527	.208
Question 30										
	2.67	2.11	2.64	1.52	2.97	2.05	3.57	2.73	1.109	.346
Composite										
	2.80	1.77	3.20	1.54	3.30	1.97	4.12	2.62	2.354	.073
Lack of Information on Occupations										
Question 31										
	3.35	2.13	3.62	2.65	3.72	2.35	4.43	2.92	.999	.394
Question 32										
	3.26	2.23	3.82	2.10	3.63	2.26	4.14	2.34	.993	.396
Question 33										
	3.26	2.07	3.40	1.94	3.29	2.07	4.50	2.44	1.511	.212
Composite										
	3.29	1.86	3.60	1.93	3.53	2.03	4.33	2.29	1.188	.315
Lack of Information on Sources										
Questions 34										
	2.40	1.60	2.82	1.71	3.02	2.11	3.57	2.44	2.280	.080
Questions 35										
	3.10	2.13	3.10	1.85	3.45	2.38	4.43	2.73	1.665	.175
Composite										
	2.75	1.74	2.96	1.68	3.23	2.13	4.00	2.09	2.032	.110
Lack of Information Composite										
(Age)	3.03	1.63	3.29	1.59	3.40	1.84	4.26	2.39	2.044	.108

Lack of Information

	Gender					
	Males		Females			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=209		*N=50*			
Lack of Information on Process						
Question 24	3.45	2.13	2.84	2.27	3.273	.072
Question 25	3.67	2.25	2.68	2.20	7.887	.005
Question 26	3.85	2.18	2.68	2.35	11.170	.001
Composite	3.63	1.97	2.73	2.20		
Lack of Information on Self						
Question 27	3.67	2.29	2.74	2.35	6.476	.012
Question 28	3.57	2.24	2.56	2.31	8.021	.005
Question 29	3.27	2.11	2.34	1.93	8.079	.005
Question 30	3.00	2.04	2.22	1.83	6.191	.013
Composite	3.35	1.86	2.46	1.91		
Lack of Information on Occupations						
Question 31	3.72	2.21	3.30	2.57	1.341	.248
Question 32	3.69	2.15	3.18	2.57	2.152	.144
Question 33	3.50	2.04	2.82	2.16	4.407	.037
Composite	3.63	1.90	3.10	2.26		
Lack of Information on Sources						
Questions 34	2.94	1.92	2.42	1.97	2.939	.088
Questions 35	3.40	2.19	3.08	2.49	.800	.372
Composite	3.16	1.93	2.75	2.09		
Lack of Information Composite (Gender)	3.47	1.72	2.73	1.94		

Lack of Information												
	Education Level											
	12		13-14		15-16		17-18		19+			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=49		*N=98*		*N=67*		*N=42*		*N=3*			
Lack of Info - Process												
Question 24												
	3.45	2.12	3.33	2.14	3.07	2.06	3.67	2.49	3.00	.000	.536	.700
Question 25												
	3.82	2.37	3.51	2.17	3.13	2.15	3.64	2.65	2.67	.577	.803	.524
Question 26												
	3.82	2.32	3.79	2.16	3.07	2.15	3.95	2.54	2.67	1.55	1.573	.182
Composite												
	3.66	2.09	3.53	1.92	3.09	1.94	3.73	0.89	2.77	0.19		
Lack of Information on Self												
Question 27												
	3.67	2.41	3.57	2.16	2.91	2.20	3.93	2.67	4.33	3.21	1.623	.169
Question 28												
	3.27	2.27	3.57	2.25	2.91	2.20	3.93	2.67	4.33	3.21	1.240	.294
Question 29												
	3.55	2.12	3.14	2.09	2.60	1.89	3.29	2.44	2.33	.577	1.715	.147
Question 30												
	3.24	2.18	2.89	1.87	2.49	1.99	2.90	2.23	2.67	.577	1.012	.402
Composite												
	3.42	1.94	3.25	1.75	2.75	1.83	3.40	2.19	3.75	1.63		
Lack of Information on Occupations												
Question 31												
	3.90	2.26	3.87	2.19	3.19	2.35	3.43	2.40	4.67	2.88	1.275	.280
Question 32												
	3.78	2.22	3.81	2.23	3.30	2.16	3.45	2.39	2.33	.577	.878	.478
Question 33												
	3.59	2.05	3.50	2.11	3.09	2.02	3.31	2.20	2.67	.577	.632	.640
Composite												
	3.73	2.00	3.70	1.95	3.19	1.91	3.36	2.18	3.22	1.26		
Lack of Information on Sources												
Questions 34												
	3.14	1.97	2.93	1.86	2.46	1.77	2.31	2.95	2.00	1.00	1.158	.330
Questions 35												
	3.82	2.27	3.38	2.22	2.93	2.08	3.33	2.47	3.33	3.21	1.125	.345
Composite												
	2.31	1.92	3.15	1.94	2.65	1.75	3.14	2.31	3.66	1.75		
Lack of Information Composite												
	3.58	1.83	3.42	1.63	2.94	1.70	3.44	2.14	3.19	1.12		

Lack of Information

	Marital Status									
	Single		Married		Separated		Divorced			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=50		*N=172*		*N=2*		*N=35*			
Lack of Information - Process										
Question 24	3.48	2.08	3.30	2.19	4.00	2.82	3.29	2.19	.160	.923
Question 25	4.20	2.40	3.29	2.21	2.00	.000	3.49	2.33	2.376	.070
Question 26	3.94	2.26	3.59	2.20	2.50	.707	3.40	2.58	.617	.604
Composite	3.86	2.08	3.36	2.00	2.83	1.17	3.36	2.20		
Lack of Information on Self										
Question 27	3.72	2.22	3.41	2.29	4.00	2.82	3.49	2.72	.254	.858
Question 28	3.54	2.11	3.38	2.35	3.00	1.41	3.11	2.31	.254	.859
Question 29	3.24	1.86	3.06	2.14	3.00	1.41	3.06	2.36	.100	.960
Question 30	3.20	2.21	2.75	1.98	4.00	1.41	2.80	1.95	.859	.463
Composite	3.42	1.84	3.12	1.97	3.50	1.06	3.10	2.08		
Lack of Information on Occupations										
Question 31	3.82	2.19	3.65	2.34	3.00	.000	3.34	2.26	.349	.790
Question 32	3.78	2.29	3.60	2.22	4.50	.707	3.26	2.21	.490	.690
Question 33	3.70	2.21	3.32	2.02	5.50	.707	3.03	2.13	1.477	.221
Composite	3.76	1.93	3.50	1.99	4.33	.000	3.20	2.09		
Lack of Information on Sources										
Question 34	2.84	1.74	2.80	1.93	3.00	.000	3.06	2.33	.177	.912
Question 35	3.74	2.18	3.23	2.25	3.50	2.12	3.26	2.36	.673	.569
Composite	3.29	1.80	3.01	1.96	3.25	1.06	3.16	2.27		
Lack of Information Composite (Marital Status)										
	3.60	1.72	3.27	1.75	3.50	0.48	3.20	2.05		

Lack of Information

	Military Rank					
	Enlisted		Officer			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=225		*N=34*			
Lack of Information - Process						
Question 24	3.24	2.18	3.97	1.97	3.388	.067
Question 25	3.36	2.25	4.26	2.30	4.672	.032
Question 26	3.49	2.24	4.47	2.24	5.617	.019
Composite	3.33	2.02	4.23	1.99		
Lack of Information on Self						
Question 27	3.38	2.31	4.21	2.38	3.760	.054
Question 28	3.29	2.29	3.94	2.22	2.337	.128
Question 29	3.05	2.14	3.35	1.88	.593	.442
Question 30	2.82	2.02	3.06	2.02	.403	.526
Composite	3.12	1.91	3.60	1.78		
Lack of Information on Occupations						
Question 31	3.57	2.27	4.06	2.37	1.326	.251
Question 32	3.52	2.23	4.06	2.15	1.701	.193
Question 33	3.33	2.11	3.62	1.84	.522	.458
Composite	3.46	2.00	3.90	1.82		
Lack of Information on Sources						
Question 34	2.82	1.95	3.00	1.907	.259	.611
Question 35	3.29	2.26	3.62	2.174	.612	.435
Composite	3.05	1.99	6.61	3.676		
Lack of Information Composite (Military Rank)	3.25	1.80	3.75	1.63		

Lack of Information

	Reason for Leaving					
	Separation		Retirement			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=95		*N=164*			
Lack of Information - Process						
Question 24	3.13	2.05	3.46	2.22	1.40	.237
Question 25	3.64	2.28	3.39	2.27	.734	.393
Question 26	3.47	2.22	3.71	2.28	.641	.424
Composite	3.40	2.00	3.50	2.07		
Lack of Information on Self						
Question 27	3.31	2.18	3.59	2.41	.905	.342
Question 28	2.98	1.99	3.60	2.42	4.49	.035
Question 29	2.82	1.87	3.25	2.22	2.49	.116
Question 30	2.78	2.05	2.90	2.00	.202	.654
Composite	2.95	1.78	3.32	1.96		
Lack of Information on Occupations						
Question 31	3.51	2.15	3.70	2.37	.495	.482
Question 32	3.44	2.21	3.68	2.24	.701	.403
Question 33	3.32	2.10	3.40	2.07	.104	.747
Composite	3.40	1.90	3.56	2.03		
Lack of Information on Sources						
Question 34	2.64	1.72	2.96	2.05	1.58	.209
Question 35	3.19	2.11	3.42	2.32	.634	.427
Composite	2.91	1.76	3.18	2.07		
Lack of Information Composite (Reason for Leaving)	3.18	1.66	3.41	1.88		

APPENDIX E

RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Inconsistent Information

Age															
19-29			30-39			40-49			50+				
M	*SD*		*M*	*SD*		*M*	*SD*		*M*	*SD*		*F*	*p*
N=72			*N=50*			*N=123*			*N=14*				
Unreliable Information													
Question 36													
3.28	2.33		2.84	2.07		3.20	2.35		4.36	2.70		1.59	.193
Question 37													
2.78	2.02		2.62	1.91		2.58	1.94		3.93	2.70		1.94	.123
Question 38													
2.57	1.82		2.86	1.98		3.07	2.24		4.71	2.64		4.19	.006
Question 39													
3.90	2.38		3.60	2.16		4.11	2.61		4.79	2.32		1.03	.379
Question 40													
2.63	2.07		2.70	1.86		2.50	1.87		4.00	2.68		2.40	.068
Composite													
3.02	1.74		2.92	1.67		3.08	1.76		4.34	2.20			
Internal Conflicts													
Question 41													
2.81	2.17		2.62	1.91		2.79	2.04		4.57	2.68		3.40	.018
Question 42													
2.78	2.17		2.80	1.99		3.08	2.15		4.71	2.43		3.42	.018
Question 43													
2.42	1.94		2.28	1.80		2.27	2.05		2.79	2.25		.789	.501
Composite													
2.66	1.70		2.56	1.98		2.86	1.79		4.00	2.14			
External Conflicts													
Question 44													
.83	2.11		3.22	2.38		3.04	2.28		3.86	2.74		.890	.447
Question 45													
2.44	1.69		2.94	2.06		2.88	2.04		3.93	2.61		2.39	.069
Composite													
2.63	1.68		3.08	2.03		2.95	2.03		3.89	2.44			
Inconsistent Information Composite (Age)													
2.84	1.56		2.84	1.47		2.99	1.68		4.16	2.11			

Inconsistent Information

	Gender					
	Males		Females			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=209		*N=50*			
Unreliable Information						
Question 36	3.33	2.31	2.74	2.33	2.576	.110
Question 37	2.78	1.98	2.44	2.13	1.180	.180
Question 38	3.09	2.13	2.52	2.15	2.829	.094
Question 39	4.17	2.46	3.22	2.29	6.193	.013
Question 40	2.74	1.98	2.30	2.05	1.978	.161
Composite	3.22	1.62	2.64	1.91		
Internal Conflicts						
Question 41	2.97	2.10	2.38	2.13	3.159	.077
Question 42	3.17	2.12	2.44	2.29	4.641	.032
Question 43	2.56	1.93	2.54	2.22	.004	.950
Composite	2.90	1.74	1.71	1.45		
External Conflicts						
Question 44	3.17	2.26	2.60	2.30	2.553	.111
Question 45	2.89	1.93	2.54	2.27	1.262	.262
Composite	3.03	1.91	2.57	2.18		
Inconsistent Information Composite (Gender)	3.08	1.58	2.57	1.87		

Inconsistent Information

	Education Level											
	12		13-14		15-16		17-18		19+			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=49		*N=98*		*N=67*		*N=42*		*N=3*			
Question 36												
	3.57	2.52	3.17	2.24	2.87	2.14	3.52	2.65	2.00	1.00	1.066	.374
Question 37												
	2.98	2.16	2.92	1.98	2.24	1.68	2.76	2.35	2.00	1.00	1.507	.204
Question 38												
	3.18	2.22	3.01	2.07	2.70	2.07	2.88	2.30	3.67	3.05	.543	.705
Question 39												
	4.33	2.65	3.81	2.38	3.85	2.30	4.31	2.71	3.00	1.00	.718	.580
Question 40												
	2.96	2.16	2.94	2.05	2.13	1.67	2.48	2.01	2.67	2.08	2.03	.091
Composite												
	3.40	1.98	3.18	1.72	2.74	1.59	3.18	1.97	2.66	1.61		
Internal Conflicts												
Question 41												
	3.08	2.29	2.96	2.12	2.63	1.92	2.67	2.13	3.67	3.78	.581	.677
Question 42												
	3.35	2.91	2.92	1.98	3.03	2.20	2.90	2.17	3.33	2.51	.371	.829
Question 43												
	2.51	2.03	2.76	1.97	2.63	2.04	2.10	1.93	1.67	.577	.985	.416
Composite												
	2.97	1.97	2.87	1.63	2.76	1.83	2.55	1.87	2.88	2.21		
External Conflicts												
Question 44												
	2.73	2.09	3.47	2.35	2.91	2.21	2.74	2.35	3.00	2.64	1.32	.261
Question 45												
	2.80	1.88	2.90	1.94	2.93	2.14	2.60	2.16	2.00	1.00	.388	.852
Composite												
	2.76	1.84	3.18	1.94	2.91	2.01	2.66	2.16	2.50	1.80		
Inconsistent Information Composite (Ed Level)												
	3.14	1.84	3.09	1.54	2.79	1.59	2.89	1.80	2.70	1.55		

Inconsistent Information

	Marital Status									
	Single		Married		Separated		Divorced			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=50		*N=172*		*N=2*		*N=32*			
Unreliable Info										
Question 36	3.60	2.42	3.13	2.31	2.50	.707	3.09	2.29	.624	.660
Question 37	3.22	2.09	2.55	1.93	4.00	.000	2.77	2.25	1.74	.159
Question 38	3.06	2.08	2.98	2.16	3.00	.000	2.86	2.25	.061	.980
Question 39	4.14	2.40	4.02	2.14	3.00	.000	3.69	2.59	.354	.786
Question 40	2.90	2.11	2.63	2.00	3.50	2.12	2.40	1.80	.567	.637
Composite	3.38	1.81	3.06	1.75	3.20	0.28	2.96	1.97		
Internal Conflicts										
Question 41	3.16	2.24	2.77	2.05	3.50	2.12	2.83	2.32	.502	.681
Question 42	3.46	2.46	2.95	2.10	3.00	1.41	2.83	2.07	.833	.477
Question 43	2.50	1.77	2.59	2.04	2.50	.707	2.46	2.11	.062	.980
Composite	2.37	1.88	2.76	1.74	3.00	1.41	2.70	1.90		
External Conflicts										
Question 44	3.16	2.26	3.02	2.26	2.50	.707	3.17	2.50	.119	.949
Question 45	2.88	1.82	2.81	2.06	2.50	.707	2.86	2.06	.037	.991
Composite	3.02	1.81	2.91	1.98	2.50	0.70	3.01	4.46		
Inconsistent Information Composite										
	3.20	1.68	2.94	1.61	3.00	.707	2.89	1.84		

Inconsistent Information

	Military Rank					
	Enlisted		Officer			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=225		*N=34*			
Unreliable Information						
Question 36	3.24	2.37	3.03	1.99	.242	.623
Question 37	2.70	2.00	2.82	2.11	.107	.744
Question 38	2.94	2.15	3.21	2.08	.445	.505
Question 39	3.85	2.48	4.91	2.08	5.63	.018
Question 40	2.65	2.00	2.68	1.96	.004	.950
Composite	3.06	1.80	3.82	1.65		
Internal Conflicts						
Question 41	2.84	2.12	2.97	2.12	.111	.739
Question 42	2.97	2.17	3.41	2.16	1.20	.274
Question 43	2.51	1.96	2.85	2.19	.871	.352
Composite	2.77	1.78	3.07	1.84		
External Conflicts						
Question 44	3.05	2.27	3.12	2.38	.023	.879
Question 45	2.72	1.92	3.56	2.37	5.30	.022
Composite	2.88	1.94	3.33	2.14		
Inconsistent Information Composite (Military Rank)	2.94	1.66	3.25	1.59		

Inconsistent Information

	Reason for Leaving					
	Separation		Retirement			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*p*
	N=95		*N=164*			
Unreliable Information						
Question 36	3.42	2.36	3.09	2.29	1.21	.272
Question 37	2.84	2.03	2.65	2.00	.566	.452
Question 38	2.78	1.95	3.07	2.24	1.27	.259
Question 39	4.03	2.43	3.96	2.47	.046	.830
Question 40	2.76	2.12	2.60	1.92	.386	.535
Composite	3.16	1.80	3.06	1.78		
Internal Conflicts						
Question 41	2.88	2.24	2.84	2.05	.024	.876
Question 42	2.88	2.14	3.12	2.19	.682	.410
Question 43	2.38	1.85	2.66	2.06	1.18	.277
Composite	2.71	1.67	2.87	1.85		
External Conflicts						
Question 44	3.05	2.27	3.07	2.29	.002	.961
Question 45	2.71	1.86	2.90	2.08	.544	.461
Composite	2.87	1.80	2.98	2.07		
Inconsistent Information Composite (Reason for Leaving)	2.97	1.59	2.99	1.69		