

CHAPTER 5

SELECTION PROCESSES AND VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A MULTI-METHOD APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

In this chapter, we use prospective data collected at age 18, 24, and 25 to classify individuals into career aspiration groups labeled “overselection,” “underselection,” or “one-change.” Representatives from each group were interviewed at age 27. Themes related to selection, optimization, and compensation (SOC) metatheory (Freund & Baltes, 1998), work commitment, and the stressful character of vocational development were compared across groups. Overselection and one-change groups were somewhat advantaged in the education and career arenas when compared to others. Findings indicated goal setting is associated with more positive outcomes within the career domain and selection is an important component of the SOC process at this time of life.

Adolescence is widely considered to be a crucial period for vocational exploration and identity formation. Classic theories of vocational psychology situate key elements of the processes of vocational development and occupational commitment in the second decade of life (Ginzberg, Ginsberg,

Constructing Adulthood: Agency and Subjectivity in Adolescence and Adulthood
Advances in Life Course Research, Volume 11, 1–29
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ISSN: 1040-2608/doi:10.1016/S1040-2608(06)11005-9

1 Axelrad, & Herman, 1951; Osipow, 1968; Super, Starishevsky, Matlin, &
3 Jordaán, 1963). Models of status attainment in sociology likewise emphasize
5 the importance of occupational aspirations, expectations, and plans in ad-
7 adolescence for subsequent occupational achievement (Sewell & Hauser, 1976;
9 Spenner & Featherman, 1978). Investigators of vocational identity devel-
11 opment have usually defined exploration as a process of gathering infor-
13 mation about oneself and the environment in order to make vocational
15 choices and to set career goals (e.g., Blustein, 1997). For example, Grotevant
17 (1992) defined identity exploration as a process of information gathering to
19 make individual choices and commitments. Adams and Marshall (1996)
21 note that this process involves experiences of distress, inconsistency, and
23 confrontation, followed by resolution. Expressions of vocational commit-
25 ment can include the number of occupational interests or choices under
27 consideration, the specificity and certainty of career plans, and the strength
29 of commitment to occupational choices (Blustein, Pauling, DeMania, &
31 Faye, 1994; Vondracek & Skorikov, 1997).

17 All of these perspectives allude to the *selection* of aspirations and the
19 setting of goals that orient choices and development (Freund & Baltes, 1998,
21 2000; see also Weise, Freund, & Baltes, 2000, 2002 for studies in the work
23 domain). They also describe processes of *compensation* that might occur
25 when goals and commitments must be modified because of internal or ex-
27 ternal difficulties. For example, an individual may plan to enter law upon
29 entrance to college, but finds limits in her capacity (an internal constraint) or
31 difficulty in financing legal studies (an external constraint). Lerner, Freund,
33 De Stefanis, and Habermas (2001) applied a dynamic model of development
35 during adolescence and young adulthood derived from the theories of
37 Freund and Baltes (2000). In this model, identity formation is conceived as a
39 process of selection, optimization, and compensation (SOC) that includes
goal selection, goal pursuit, and goal maintenance/alteration, all of which
occur under the usual conditions of limited time and energy. Selection of
goals must occur because limited resources are available. For example, oc-
cupational training can be expensive and time-consuming and preparation
for one vocation generally precludes selection of others. When there are
insufficient resources or resource loss, compensatory processes are used to
manage and regulate goals. More realistic aspirations may have to supplant
prior, loftier objectives. Optimization includes acquiring, allocating, and
refining resources to maintain goal pursuit. Hence, individuals are goal
seeking and purposeful ~~and~~ capable of managing complex circumstances
and adapting to external and internal changes. Other models of vocational
development (e.g., Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994), including those based on

1 self-efficacy and social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1996; Lent et al., 1994;
2 Vroom, 1964), also draw attention to similar facets, including interests,
3 activity involvement, skill development, and performance. In general, plan-
4 ning is a key part of the career development process (Savickas, 1999).

5 It is during adolescence that most young people begin to think about their
6 future goals. Many of these goals reflect the age-graded developmental tasks
7 of adolescence and emerging adulthood, specifically work and the formation
8 of partner relationships (Cantor, Norem, Niederthal, Langston, & Brower,
9 1987; Nurmi, Salmela-Aro, & Koivisto, 2002; Weise et al., 2002). In the
10 process of goal pursuit, the person must make critically important decisions
11 that are linked to subsequent occupational attainment. Such decisions in-
12 clude whether to enter the labor force directly following graduation from
13 high school, or whether to go on with further schooling, and if so, what kind
14 of post-secondary institution to attend (Featherman, 1980). By the mid-20s,
15 a person is expected to become established in work, having attained an
16 occupational identity, and, in some cases, having become positioned in the
17 initial phase of a life-long career. According to Erikson's classic theory
18 (1968), the inability to explore and commit to an occupational identity
19 during adolescence is a source of significant disturbance among young peo-
20 ple.

21 These perspectives assume a substantial degree of agency and some con-
22 tinuity in young people's vocational development. Vocational developmen-
23 tal theorists (e.g., Blustein et al., 1994), drawing from self-determination and
24 intrinsic motivation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), have formulated models of
25 agentic vocational exploration during adolescence and young adulthood. In
26 these models, individual motivations and interests become more stable with
27 age and are thought to influence subsequent career pathways. Some past
28 empirical evidence supports this claim. In a study of 250 Finnish young
29 adults (mean age 24) first assessed 4 months before leaving vocational
30 school, individuals who identified career goals and placed high importance
31 on these goals were more successful in obtaining professional work (Nurmi
32 et al., 2002).

33 In view of these perspectives, one might think that career exploration
34 would be a fairly salient and planful pursuit among young people today.
35 Yet, there is evidence that only a minority of U.S. high school students
36 seriously considers potential career paths by seeking occupational informa-
37 tion or by engaging in exploratory activities, even though most will report
38 occupational aspirations when asked (Schneider & Stevenson, 1999). Ad-
39 olescents often lack basic information about what they need to do to suc-
40 cessfully pursue their aspirations. Moreover, because parents, counselors,

1 and other adults usually expect them to go to college, teenagers' delay in
2 making occupational choices is seen as quite appropriate, enabling them to
3 take advantage of the many resources colleges provide to explore interests
4 and abilities. Young people may even be discouraged from active engage-
5 ment in the exploratory process, so as to not deflect them from pursuing
6 post-secondary education. Some commentators applaud this situation, not-
7 ing that contemporary youth enjoy extensive freedom to go to school, to
8 explore alternative fields of higher education (which often involves shifting
9 majors and extension of college well beyond the traditional 4-year period),
10 to travel, and to try out various work situations before "settling down" (see,
11 for example, Arnett, 2000). Others question whether this delay is optimal
12 and worry that many young people experience a prolonged period of
13 "floundering" (Kerckhoff, 2002) during which time there is relatively little
14 investment in human capital (Hamilton, 1990, 1994). The postponement of
15 occupational commitment is linked to other manifestations of prolonged
16 transition to adulthood, such as the delay of marriage, the tendency to
17 return (after leaving) to the parental home, continuing economic depend-
18 ence on parents, and the continuation of schooling well into the third decade
19 of life (Shanahan, 2000).

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SELECTION, OPTIMIZATION, AND COMPENSATION

27 It is clear that the identification and pursuit of work and career goals can be
28 a complex process that is often not made explicit in the theoretical accounts
29 of career development (Patton & McMahon, 1999). Given that vocational
30 developmental trajectories may include complicated processes of SOC, it is
31 not surprising that many young people have difficulties that result in an
32 extended period of exploration or some floundering. Others may evade the
33 process of exploration by selecting one course early on and being firm in the
34 pursuit of their initial goal. Still others experience unplanned and opportune
35 events that determine their vocational futures (Betsworth & Hanson, 1996;
36 Williams et al., 1998). Of course, a focus on work and career will compete
37 with the many other activities that interest and engage young people. Hav-
38 ing vague ideas and keeping one's options open, on the one hand, or being
39 focused and making an early decision, on the other, may be two common
strategies to delay or bypass this process. Short-term goals and interests may

1 sometimes take precedence over serious, long-term career development
processes, and impact the selection of vocational goals and choices.

3 Freund, Li, and Baltes (1999, see also Lerner et al., 2001) described the
difficulties of selecting too few (“overselection”) or too many (“underselec-
5 tion”) goals. Overselection may not provide the necessary number of op-
tions for optimum development given the possibilities of historical changes,
7 poor initial matches between choices and individual interests and skills, and
other obstacles. Underselection may result in too little focus, impeding the
9 attainment of a level of mastery that would enable occupational achieve-
ment. However, selection is just one part of this process. Compensatory
11 activities and optimization strategies probably become increasingly impor-
tant as vocational development proceeds.

13
15
**STUDY DESIGN AND AIMS OF THE CURRENT
17 STUDY**

19 The current study relied on two sources of information, prospective surveys
and structured, retrospective interviews, to identify young people whose
21 early career aspirations were nonvarying from adolescence to early adult-
hood (suggesting overselection) versus repeatedly changing over time (sug-
23 gesting underselection). We also identified a group with limited age-related
changes. Since this latter group is apparently not characterized by overse-
25 lection or underselection, we expected that this group would experience
advantages in their vocational development, such as greater educational
27 attainment and enhanced career progress.

We focused on patterns of continuity and change in career aspirations
29 from high school (grade 12) to the mid-20s. As both prospective, quanti-
tative data and retrospective, qualitative (narrative) data from the same
31 subjects were available, we applied a mixed research methodology that Ta-
shakkori and Teddlie (1998) and others call Across Methods Triangulation.
33 We compared quantitative data gathered prospectively via questionnaire
with qualitative interview data that retrospectively described experiences of
35 vocational development from adolescence to early adulthood. The survey
data were collected as part of an on-going prospective study of adolescent
37 and young adult development. Questions assessed respondents’ attitudes,
anticipations about the future, job characteristics, and career attainment.
39 The interviews gathered detailed retrospective descriptions of past attitudes
and goals from a subset of the participants in the larger prospective study.

1 This mixed design provides unique insight into the complexity of life course
3 development in the vocational domain, the exercise of human agency, the
5 potential impact of overselection and underselection on vocational experi-
ences, and how people reconceptualize or selectively remember their life
paths and patterns.

In the current analysis, we examine how patterns of career aspirations
7 obtained from prospective surveys were linked to descriptions of the process
of vocational development reported during interviews. Prospective data al-
9 lowed the identification of individuals with different patterns of career as-
pirations during adolescence and young adulthood. Continuity/change in
11 career aspirations over time among the entire prospective sample was as-
sessed, enabling comparison of individuals with different objective career
13 aspiration patterns with regard to several pertinent factors (e.g., educational
plans and income). Qualitative, life history interviews of a subset of indi-
15 viduals were also completed and coded for patterns of career aspirations.
Previously, Mortimer, Zimmer-Gembeck, Holmes, and Shanahan (2002)
17 summarized general topical themes related to vocational development de-
rived from the interviews, including challenges, supports and resources en-
19 countered, perceptions of being on-time or off-time, the timing of decisions
and turning points, and changes in vocational plans. In the present paper,
21 we link subjective experiences of continuity and change in career aspirations
to individuals in each prospectively defined category.

23 Two additional objectives reflect theoretical propositions of Freund, Ba-
ltes, and colleagues (Freund & Baltes, 1998, 2000; Freund et al., 1999) and a
25 model of adolescent identity development (Lerner et al., 2001). First, we
investigate the thesis that overselection (i.e., no changes in career aspirations
27 over time) and underselection (i.e., persistent change in career aspirations
over time) are associated with less salutary vocational development when
29 compared to a group who evidence some, but more modest, change in career
aspirations over time. Second, we identify strategies of SOC used within and
31 across prospectively identified career aspiration groups. We also summarize
themes of commitment to work, priority of work, and the stressful character
33 of the vocational development process within each group.

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DATA AND METHOD

Youth Development Study

The Youth Development Study (YDS) is a longitudinal study conducted in St. Paul, Minnesota, USA. The YDS began in 1988 and participants have been contacted annually since grade 9 (when respondents were about 15-years-old). After randomly selecting ninth grade students, annual assessments during high school were completed in the students' classrooms (see Mortimer, 2003 for a more detailed description of the study). Participants represented the population of ninth grade students in St. Paul public schools. Overall, 74% were white, 10% African American, 5% Hispanic American, and 4% Asian American. The median household income was in the range of \$30,000–39,999. The highest degree earned for 59% of fathers and 61% of mothers was the high school diploma. After high school, the participants were surveyed by mail annually. Of the initial sample of 1,010 respondents, 76% were retained through 1998, seven years beyond high school. Each survey included detailed information about educational and occupational experiences.

The current study included survey data from 787 individuals and structured interviews from 67 participants. Participants were excluded from the analyses reported in this paper ($n = 223$, 22%) if (a) they participated in fewer than two of the three data collection waves that were of interest in the current study, or (b) they did not answer the career aspiration question in more than one of the three waves. Since indecision could engender non-response, this research could underestimate the prevalence of underselection in youth. The three waves of interest in the current study were grade 12 (about age 18; wave 4), age 24 (wave 9), and age 25 (wave 10). Variables of interest included educational aspirations and attainments, career establishment, job satisfaction, income, and career/vocational aspirations.

Measures

At age 25, participants reported the highest level of education they planned to attain. Response options included elementary or junior high school (1), high school or GED (2), technical or vocational school (3), associate's degree, other degrees, certificates, or diplomas (4), some college (5), bachelor's degree (6), master's degree (7), Ph.D., or professional degree (8). This yields a measure of *educational aspirations* and could be equivalent to education

1 already obtained (which was also assessed). Additionally, participants re-
ported how the jobs they held at age 25 related to long-term career goals.
3 *Career establishment* was defined by the following response options: “it will
probably continue as a long-term career” (3), “it provides skills or knowl-
5 edge that will prepare me for my future work” (2), and “it is not linked to
my long-term career objectives” or “I don’t know” (1).

7 To measure *job satisfaction*, respondents evaluated their satisfaction with
the job held at age 25. Responses ranged from extremely dissatisfied (1) to
9 extremely satisfied (6). At age 25, *income* in U.S. dollars was measured by
asking respondents to report how much money they earned through paid
11 employment during the past year, 1997 (before taxes and including tips).
Finally, participants reported their career/vocational aspirations at ages 18,
13 24, and 25 by answering the following question: “What is your long-term
career goal (include homemaker)?” Answers were not restricted by response
15 options.

17

Career Aspiration Patterns and Groups

19

Using repeated assessments of career/vocational aspirations, a typology that
21 reflected the degree of career aspiration continuity was developed and four
groups were formed. The first three categories included individuals who
23 returned all three surveys of interest, differentiated into groups labeled
“overselection,” “one-change,” and “underselection” based on their occu-
25 pational choices at ages 18, 24, and 25. The overselection group reported the
same career aspirations in all waves. Persons in the one-change group re-
27 ported occupational aspirations that changed after high school (between
ages 18 and 24) but were consistent through their mid-20s (at age 24 and
29 25). We assume that the career aspirations of individuals in this one-change
group stabilized in early adulthood. The underselection group included
31 participants who reported different career aspirations at age 18 compared to
24, and at age 24 compared to age 25 (i.e., their choices were different at all
33 three occasions of measurement). For this group, career aspirations had not
yet stabilized in their mid-20s. A fourth group of participants either (a)
35 completed all three waves, but failed to answer the question about career
aspirations in one wave or (b) failed to complete the survey in one year. This
37 group was labeled “missing.”

Assessment of change in career aspirations was based on the functional
39 similarity of earlier as compared to later aspirations. The goal was to iden-
tify a significant change in career direction rather than a slight modification

1 or specification of earlier goals. We made the decision not to use shifts in
occupational categories based on three-digit Census codes as we did not
3 want to consider career choices that were functionally similar as registering
change in aspirations. For example, we did not consider the following as
5 changes in career aspirations: elementary school teacher to high school
teacher, school counselor to psychologist, and sales manager to department
7 store manager. The following are examples of changes: architect to man-
ager, mathematician to forester, and musician to accountant. Hence, one
9 investigator and one research assistant used an iterative process of coding,
discussion, and recoding. A list of typical sequences constituting change and
11 stability in career aspirations was also generated to guide the coding process.
All classifications are available upon request.

13

15

Interviews, Participants, and Procedure

17 Participants completed a structured interview about life experiences, focus-
ing on their vocational development, and career establishment. We planned
19 to interview 60 individuals. To do this, we randomly selected 250 YDS
participants to receive a letter inviting them to participate in the interview.
21 We followed up with individuals by telephone to schedule interviews and
completed 69 interviews in mid-2000 when most respondents were 27-years
23 old. Of these, 67 also had survey data when they were 18, 24, and 25, and
were included in the current study.

25 More women (63%) were interviewed than men, but as Table 1 reveals
there was no significant difference by gender in the prospectively identified
27 career aspiration groups. The underselection and missing groups were
somewhat underrepresented in the interview sample, while the overselection
29 group was overrepresented. Attempts were made to maintain a distribution
of interviews that approximated the proportions of groups within the larger
31 sample, but the overselection and one-change groups were more easily con-
tacted and scheduled for interview than individuals in other groups, result-
33 ing in some deviation from our target. About 57% of the interviews were
completed in person, while others, specifically those who had moved out of
35 the area, were conducted over the telephone. All interviews were audio-
taped, and transcribed; they were approximately 1-h in length.

37 The interview was organized by life periods. Initial questions focused on
participants' current work and on their general and vocational interests (see
39 the appendix). Following this, interests in high school, especially in the
career domain, were discussed, and any interests and future goals recalled

Table 1. Comparisons of Prospectively Identified Career Aspiration Groups.

	Prospectively Identified Career Aspiration Groups ^a			For χ^2 A	Pairwise comparisons
	Overselection (O)	One-change (C)	Undersélection (U)		
Prospective survey data					
N, %	70, 9%	131, 17%	233, 30%	353, 45%	
Male %, Female %	47%, 53%	43%, 57%	38%, 62%	46%, 54%	
N = 787 = 3-6					
White race/ethnicity (%)	89%	81%	82%	75%	
N = 787 = 9-5*	O > M				
Parents' education, M (SD)	3.52 (1.78)	3.42 (1.79)	3.23 (1.69)	3.05 (1.57)	F(3, 755) = 2.6
Family income, M (SD)	6.51 (2.19)	6.53 (2.60)	6.00 (2.33)	5.76 (2.22)	F(3, 755) = 4.6** C > M
Age 25 ^c					
College degree (%)	34%	39%	22%	20%	
N = 787 = 2-8**	O, C > U, M				
Yearly income, M (SD)	\$20,581 (\$11,870)	\$19,756 (\$11,091)	\$19,061 (\$11,597)	\$18,342 (\$10,078)	F(3, 645) = 0.9
Career establishment, M (SD)	2.12 (0.70)	2.24 (0.80)	2.15 (0.75)	1.86 (0.76)	F(3, 650) = 9.7** C, U > M
Educational aspirations, M (SD)	5.96 (1.59)	5.80 (1.78)	5.36 (2.02)	5.08 (2.00)	F(3, 700) = 6.3** O, C > M
Job satisfaction, M (SD)	4.69 (0.83)	4.65 (1.03)	4.53 (0.99)	4.27 (1.09)	F(3, 635) = 5.7** O, C, U > M

1			
3			
5			
7			
9			
11		-	$\chi^2(3, N=67) = 3.7$ above
13			
15		22, 6%	
17			
19		16, 7%	
21		4, 25%	
23			
25		16, 12%	
27		9, 56%	
29		7, 44%	
31		13, 19%	
33		4, 31%	
35		9, 69%	
37	Interviews at age 27 n interviewed, % of total N		
39	Males, n, % Females, n, %		

* $p < 0.05$.
** $p < 0.01$.

^aDetermined by prospective reports of occupational aspirations at age 18, 24, and 25.

^bMissing 1 career aspiration response. Two additional interviews were conducted with individuals missing more than 1 career aspiration response or survey.

^cThe N ranged from 649 to 787 when comparing prospective survey data.

1 from earlier periods of life (e.g., junior high school) were discussed briefly.
2 The remaining portions of the interview asked about work experiences and
3 interests between high school and the present, returning to current work and
4 interests. The interview concluded with questions about perceptions and
5 feelings about the life trajectory, turning points, and a summary of the
6 interview.

7

9

Career Aspiration Patterns and Groups from Interviews

11 Information provided in qualitative interviews was used to categorize in-
12 dividuals into “overselection,” “one-change,” or “underselection” groups.
13 Particularly important interview questions for this categorization were those
14 that asked about aspirations in high school, beyond high school, and at the
15 time of the interview. The number and type of career/vocational possibilities
16 discussed in the final portion of the interview were also considered (see the
17 appendix). One investigator coded all retrospective interviews and was blind
18 to the prospective categorization.

19

21

RESULTS

23

Prospective Career Aspiration Groups

25

26 Table 1 describes the distributions of the four prospectively identified career
27 aspiration groups among the entire prospective sample ($N = 787$). The
28 overselection group was small in size when compared to other groups. Only
29 9% of the included panel made a firm occupational decision in high school
30 that remained constant into early adulthood (about age 25). The fairly large
31 missing group (45%) is also noteworthy. About 69% of individuals in this
32 missing group completed surveys but simply failed to answer the question
33 regarding career aspirations in at least one wave. The other 31% did not
34 complete an entire survey. In view of the very low non-response rates in
35 other sections of the survey, many participants seemed to have some diffi-
36 culties answering the career aspiration questions at some time. In addition,
37 there did not appear to be an association between missing data and age; the
38 percentage of missing responses to the career aspiration question was similar
39 in later years of the prospective study as compared to grade 12. It is unclear
40 what this non-response indicated, but these results may reflect the absence of

1 well-crystallized vocational aspirations or a refusal to report those aspira-
2 tions.

3

5

Comparisons of Prospective Career Aspiration Groups

7 Table 1 also summarizes the results of χ^2 and ANOVA (F) tests used to
8 compare demographic, vocational/career and educational characteristics of
9 the career aspiration groups within the entire prospective sample ($N = 787$).
10 Groups did not contain significantly different proportions of males and the
11 proportion of white participants was similar in the overselection, one-
12 change, and underselection groups. The missing group had fewer white
13 participants than the overselection group. There were ~~also~~ few group differ-
14 ences in parent education and income reported by parents when the re-
15 spondents were in grade 12. Parental income was only higher in the one-
16 change group as compared to the missing group.

17 Annual income at age 25 did not differ when the overselection, one-
18 change, underselection, and missing groups were compared. However, a
19 significantly higher percentage of the overselection and one-change groups
20 ($> 30\%$) had graduated from university compared with underselection and
21 missing groups ($\approx 20\%$). The missing group was also disadvantaged with
22 respect to career establishment and job satisfaction, and had the lowest
23 educational aspirations at age 25.

25

27

Comparison of Prospective and Interview-Based Career Aspiration Groups

28 Table 2 compares membership in the four career aspiration groups (iden-
29 tified based on prospective survey data) to the breakdown of three groups
30 identified based on retrospective interview reports. Sixty percent (27/45) of
31 individuals in the overselection, one-change, and underselection groups
32 based on prospective data were in the same group when retrospective in-
33 terviews were used for classification. Cohen's kappa statistic indicates this is
34 a moderate level of agreement, $\kappa = 0.39$ (Cohen, 1960).

35 In the next sections, interview themes are summarized to illustrate proces-
36 ses of selection in the prospectively defined categories. In addition, themes
37 are highlighted that illustrate compensatory and optimizing strategies that
38 were used within and across groups. As will be apparent from the findings,
39 individuals who were interviewed followed many different career paths and
40 made various career choices. While some made their careers a primary

1 focus, others had spent more time developing other areas of their lives, such
 2 as ~~building~~ a family or pursuing hobbies.

3

5

Interview Narratives of SOC Processes

7 *The (Prospective) Overselection Group*

8 The overselection group reported similar career aspirations at ages 18, 24,
 9 and 25. The narrative interviews of the overselection group revealed sim-
 10 ilarities as well as discrepancies between the prospective record and the
 11 retrospective interview accounts of occupational aspirations. One-half of the
 12 retrospective reports of those placed in this group revealed this continuity.
 13 For example, a female, health technician stated:

14 “I think I always knew I was going to do nursing. In high school, I knew for sure in high
 15 school. Like when I was younger I had ideas, but when I was in high school, I knew
 16 eventually. I didn’t know if it would be right after high school or how long it would take
 17 me, but, yeah, I knew definitely nursing.”

18 Still, other interviewees in this group reported difficulties deciding on career
 19 paths and revealed their perceptions about how goals were selected. A his-
 20 tory of considering alternative careers was revealed. For example, one fe-
 21 male who was working as an elementary teacher at the time of the interview
 22 remarked on the extended length of time it took to finish the undergraduate
 23 degree as she considered her career options and changed her interests. She
 24 did not seem to recall her consistent career aspirations to be a schoolteacher
 25 that were indicated on her prospective surveys. She commented:

26 “That was kind of long process. I didn’t quite know what I wanted to do when I started
 27 college and it took me awhile to finish. I finished in about six years, but about half way
 28 through I got a job {in the public educational system} and really enjoyed that and that’s
 29 what started to get me on the right path as far as thinking about what I wanted to do and
 30 I thought maybe a counselor and I thought a social worker and then finally thought
 31 about teaching ...”

32 Others reported undertaking new processes of selection in their mid-20s or
 33 questioning whether they had explored enough. Yet, such questioning had
 34 not been accompanied by a change in career direction or new pursuits. For
 35 example, a female was currently questioning her long-term choice of pho-
 36 tography as a career. She commented:

37 “I think the big turning point is about when I was turning 26 ... I actually went through
 38 a pretty serious bout of depression where I was just like, what the hell am I doing? Why
 39 am I doing this? I don’t know what I want to do and that’s where {my mentor}, he was

1 the only person who recognized it as, you need help ... I was actually ready to quit
photography entirely, get a job as a bartender or something like that.”

3 Similarly, a female police officer was questioning whether she had explored
her options enough before making her career choice:

5 “I think, I mean, I think in every job, obviously, people are unhappy and there are
drawbacks. Maybe I just think that I would enjoy something else more, but I don’t know
7 what it would be. But then sometimes you think, could you give up having that badge
and the gun and going out and telling people what to do and bossing people around?”

9 Her experience, and that of the photographer, illustrate the questioning that
11 might emerge during the mid-20s and beyond as a result of a history of
overselection during adolescence and emerging adulthood.

13 Other interviews evidenced uncertainties (e.g., questioning of their career
goals) and obstacles that were not directly revealed in the survey reports.
15 These narratives gave evidence of compensatory strategies that seemed in-
fluenced career aspirations and future plans in the face of loss or challenge.
17 For example, one male in this group was an aspiring physician throughout
high school and young adulthood, who recently gave up trying to gain
19 admission to medical school. He described his relinquishment of this goal as
a turning point. While working in social service at the time of the interview,
21 he noted:

23 “A turning point in my life. I guess, your big one is on my third MCAT, when I didn’t
get in {to medical school}. That was it. I pretty much decided I’ve given that an honest
shot. For now that door is closed. I don’t ever say it’s closed forever, but I do say that
25 door is closed for right now. That’s the biggest turning point in my life.”

In sum, most of the overselection group reported fairly continuous career
27 goals in both their prospective and retrospective accounts. In addition, the
qualitative interviews revealed that most were very committed to their work
29 (69%) and almost all of these individuals placed work as central or as a very
high priority in their lives. Nevertheless, there were career doubts, uncer-
31 tainties, compensatory strategies, and temporary shifts in direction for some
individuals. Of the 13 individuals, 54% (7) reported that the process of
33 selecting and making a career was a stressful process because of planning
uncertainties, concerns over making the “right” career decisions, job inter-
35 views, and balancing different aspects of their lives.

37 *The (Prospective) Underselection Group*

39 Based on prospective data, 16 interviewees had changed their career aspi-
rations between high school and ~~about~~ age 24 and had changed their career
aspirations again between the age 24 and 25 surveys. These individuals were

1 classified into a group labeled underselection. Most of this group also de-
 2 scribed changing career interests during interviews. More than 60% were
 3 classified as underselection using both prospective survey data and interview
 4 narratives (see Table 2).

5 The fields of work reported by this group were quite varied, including
 6 homemaker, store clerk, daycare provider, waitress, factory worker, attor-
 7 ney, news producer, and puppeteer. Some in this group were seemingly
 8 straddling different involvements as 56% were married, 50% had children,
 9 and almost 40% had two or more children. In comparison, only one in-
 10 dividual (8%) in the overselection group had a child and only four (31%)
 11 were married. Moreover, over one-half of the underselection group de-
 12 scribed work as a way to make money rather than a career. Overall, 56%
 13 described fairly low commitment to their current jobs and work as a lower
 14 priority than family or other interests, including hobbies, artistic pursuits,
 15 religion, and volunteer work. As a female clerical worker stated:

17 “... I would rather be doing something more creative. I’m really interested in photog-
 18 raphy and I’m trying to break out into that in a side business.”

19

20 At the most extreme, one individual in this group had so many jobs that she
 21 had difficulty recalling each position:

23 “I mean, realistically, I think that I’ve never ... thought about work much actually. I
 24 mean I never thought about a career in high school and I always thought it was crazy
 25 when people knew what they wanted to go to college for.”

27 **Table 2.** Comparison of Prospectively and Retrospectively Identified
 28 Career Aspiration Groups.

Prospective Career Aspiration Groups (age 18, 24, 25) ^a	Retrospective Career Aspiration Groups (age 27) ^b		
	Overselection	One-change	Underselection
Overselection	7 (54%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)
One-change	3 (19%)	10 (63%)	3 (19%)
Underselection	1 (6%)	5 (31%)	10 (63%)
Missing	7 (32%)	6 (27%)	9 (41%)

37 *Note.* Numbers and percentages indicate cell sizes and row percentages.

^aDetermined by prospective reports of occupational aspirations at ages 18, 24, and 25.

39 ^bDetermined by coding of career aspirations reported during interviews at age 27 (see
 text). Measure of agreement for overselection, one-change, and underselection ~~(prospective)~~
 groups: $\kappa = 0.39$.

1 Conversely, a subset of this group seemed to have found careers that they
2 were very committed to at the time of the interviews. One female working as
3 a health educator stated:

4 “I’m very committed, you know, I like this I’ve started to think about doing grad-
5 uate work in a way that would enhance what I’m doing right now, um, because that’s
6 kind of really why I’ve waited to go to graduate school.”
7

8
9 A key characteristic of the underselection group is that they mentioned
10 many careers during their interviews. At the same time, when they were
11 interviewed, they often neglected to mention many of the choices reported
12 on their prospective surveys. For example, one male participant (702) had
13 listed artist, supervisor, and farmworker on prospective questionnaires at
14 age 18, 24, and 25, but when interviewed at age 27, he described his earlier
15 interests in architecture and automotives. A recurrent theme within this
16 group was the emphasis on families, personal problems, hobbies (e.g.,
17 travel), and religion or creative interests (e.g., art, writing), rather than their
18 current jobs and the career paths that might follow from their current work.
19 Hence, examining selection within a domain such as work and career may
20 not identify selection that occurs across domains such as family, work, and
21 leisure activities.

22 Some of this group had additional histories of difficulties with commit-
23 ment to education or future careers. For example, almost 20% ($n = 3$) had
24 not graduated from high school. In comparison, all members of the over-
25 selection and one-change groups had completed high school. On the other
26 hand, the process of vocational development did not appear to be any more
27 stressful or challenging when compared to other groups. A similar percent-
28 age (about 50%) described their experiences of career development as en-
29 tailing no or minimal stress. For example, a female working as a health
30 educator commented: “No, I think it was weird, I mean like I wasn’t wor-
31 ried at all. I was like this is just for now and I’ll do something else that’s
32 better later on.” This was unexpected in view of classic vocational devel-
33 opmental perspectives that would lead one to predict a greater degree of
34 anxiety and less life satisfaction stemming from prolonged vocational in-
35 decision (Ginzberg et al., 1951; Osipow, 1968; Super et al., 1963). This is ~~also~~
36 inconsistent with our hypothesis that underselection would be disadvanta-
37 geous based on recent theory (e.g., Lerner et al., 2001) and empirical evi-
38 dence (Nurmi et al., 2002; Weise et al., 2002). Still, others in this group did
39 feel that they were not as focused as they should have been. A female
homemaker summarized such feelings:

1 “I think I put a lot of pressure on myself to ... to really feel, to be directed and have this
really clear idea of what I’m doing and where I’m going and, and I never really have that,
3 so I always kind of beat myself up about that. ...I feel like I’ve just found mostly that
things just kind of, I don’t know they just kind of happen, like they just kind of fall in
5 your lap and end up being what you need at the time.”

The (Prospective) One-change Group

7 The 16 individuals in the prospectively identified one-change group reported
different aspirations in grade 12 as compared to aspirations at age 24, but
9 the individuals in this group had not changed career aspirations between age
24 and 25. Most (81%) were engaged in work at the time of the interview,
11 which reflected their recently articulated career goals. Many in this group
were also beginning to form families with children. Eleven members (69%)
13 of this group were married and two were engaged. About one-third (38%)
had one child by the time of the interview; one of these individuals had two
15 children.

17 Most of this group (63%) also indicated one-change in career aspirations
during their interviews at age 27. As a result, their retrospective descriptions
of career pathways reflected a change in career aspirations, which was fairly
19 consistent with the prospective record. In fact, the narratives of this group
sometimes provided evidence of additional continuity in underlying interests
21 that was not revealed by the prospective survey data. One individual always
knew he wanted to be in a business environment; more than one respondent
23 was always interested in math and science, and multiple persons reported
their interests in working with and helping people. The individuals in this
25 group seemed to have selected more abstract “higher order” goals. In other
words, they seemed to have selected broad areas of interest that directed
27 their pursuit of specific careers rather than selecting a specific career path
(e.g., police officer) as was more often the process reported by individuals in
29 the overselection group.

31 A minority of this group did report more changes in their career aspira-
tions than were found by summarizing the prospective data. A few in-
33 dividuals in this group were classified as underselectors based on interview
data (i.e., they reported multiple changes in career aspirations), and de-
scribed their paths as somewhat haphazard or unexpected. For example, a
35 male working in forestry as an arborist commented:

37 “I never saw any of the options before they came. The options were opportunities that
fit, they were right fits. I didn’t have them picked out before. I didn’t know I was going to
do forestry before I did it. I didn’t know I was going to do urban forestry until I did it. I
39 didn’t know I was going to ... so they just fit. I found things that fit ... I mean, I didn’t
know what I wanted to do, but I knew I didn’t ... I realized that, I didn’t have anything

1 to put in the box for career, so it worried me, but I was just actively seeking them out as
2 they occurred, when I suddenly needed a career or needed to decide something I would
3 choose and make the choices along the way.”

5 Overall, this was a mixed group when themes of career commitment were
6 examined. About 50% of this group expressed clear and strong commit-
7 ments to their careers. Yet, some were exploring their “dream” careers or
8 alternative careers like officiating at sporting events, golf instructor, com-
9 puter repair, or owning a business. The majority of this group (63%) did not
10 find the process of vocational development to be stressful. This was a
11 slightly higher proportion than was found in the “overselection” and “un-
derselection.”

13 In sum, most of the members of the one-change group seemed to have
14 been similarly or more active than the overselection group in selecting and
15 constructing their career paths. They considered more options, but became
16 committed to a career somewhat later in life. A few were more similar to the
17 underselection group – they were still considering their options and explor-
18 ing their interests to optimize their career trajectories. Alternatively, they
19 were in the process of making choices in other domains and had other
20 priorities.

21 Many individuals in this one-change group were in the process of ad-
22 justing to their situations and forming their commitments, similar to the
23 processes of compensation and optimization proposed by Freund and Baltes
24 (1998, 2000; see also Freund et al., 1999; Lerner et al., 2001). This is also
25 consistent with Becker (1981) who considers adult development as a process
26 of *situational adjustment* as a person moves through a variety of social
27 situations, learning new roles and what it takes to succeed. If there is a
28 match between situational demands and personal capacities, the person
29 comes to think of the self as someone who can succeed in the situation.
30 Commitment to the new role or situation follows. For example, a male
31 described why he has become so committed to his current career and com-
32 pany by noting how his goals, interest, and personal style fit with the com-
33 pany he now works for:

35 “the company, it happens to be ... there are many people here that have been here for
36 30, 40 years, which is unusual in a corporate environment like we’re in and that happens
37 to fit my style in terms of the stable, all the kind of stuff, types of personality traits. It’s
an honest-type company. It isn’t real flashy or gimmicky and stuff like that I do like
to present a good image, but yet not trendy or flashy-type of stuff”

39 Even though persons adjust to their situations, people exhibit some con-
sistency as they move from situation to situation, and change tends to be

1 restricted (Freund & Baltes, 1998, 2000; Becker, 1981). Shanahan (2000)
 3 further examines this kind of process in relation to structural constraints to
 individual decision-making and goal attainment that produce “bounded
 agency.”

5 Combinations of agency, selection, constraints, compensation, and opti-
 7 mization were thus evident in this one-change group. Most were adjusting to
 their situations, and most were consistent in their commitment to a re-
 9 stricted set of interests and goals. While some had changed their interests
 along the way, these changes were becoming more and more bounded by
 individual characteristics and social phenomena including previous history,
 11 goals, motivation, skills, supports, and interests. As a male working in ac-
 ademic administration commented:

13 “Well, the experience that one builds up has a direct influence on what will happen in the
 future, in other words like if I wanted to go into experimentation of the development of a
 15 new type of semi-conductor, no possible way, because of the choices that I made before
 ... so that is limited by my own experience and by my own choices It’s more of a
 17 sense of focusing ... I don’t see it as my options being limited, I see them as being more
 focused”

19 *The (Prospective) Missing Group*

21 When the interviews conducted at age 27 were used as data for group clas-
 sification, the prospectively identified missing group was approximately
 23 evenly divided between the overselection, one-change, and underselection
 groups (see Table 2). Regardless of these classifications, this group as a
 25 whole clearly differed from other groups when data from prospective in-
 terviews were examined (see Table 1) and when interviews were analyzed.
 27 Overall, the interviews reiterated many of the prospective survey findings
 (e.g., lower educational attainment). The interviews also revealed a group
 29 that contained many of the motivated, but directionless high school students
 described by Schneider and Stevenson (1999). About 64% of this group
 31 reported that they had no career goals in high school other than going to
 college or making money (e.g., continuing in high school jobs, waitressing,
 33 retail work). Interestingly, this group included one of the most socioeco-
 nomically successful respondents, a 27-years old female attorney, who com-
 35 mented:

37 “No, for it me it was just automatic college. So, no matter what we did or no matter
 what I wanted to do it was just college – {college} was just like an extension of high
 school. It wasn’t like a choice at all.”

39 When asked about high school interests, rather than providing us with their
 career aspirations as a response, many described their interests in leisure and

1 artistic pursuits such as sports, reading, music, fun, and partying rather than
noting specific career goals. Most had to be prompted to think about their
3 career goals in high school. Yet, it was clear some members of this group
were motivated and involved in their activities. For example, multiple in-
5 dividuals were quite politically active and focused on community develop-
ment while in high school. This group seemed to be taking more time to
7 make other commitments as well, such as forming families. Compared to the
other three groups, far fewer in the missing group were married (18% versus
9 53%).

A few individuals (18%) in this group were pursuing graduate degrees or
11 medical school at the time of the interviews. The jobs associated with these
goals were not clearly formed in high school and seemed to have emerged
13 when they found they liked their areas of study in college. These individuals
within this missing group also did well in college and found that they had
15 the opportunity to pursue further education. As a third year medical student
noted, "In college I was playing around with biology or English. I like both
17 a lot and I went more towards biology ... I basically divided biology into
research or medicine so I dedicated to go to medicine, but it was difficult."

19 Fifty percent of this group was not directly trained for the positions they
held at the time of the interviews and only 4 (18%) were working in the
21 career areas they noted on surveys at age 25. Most had either not completed
college or had earned college degrees in fields without well-defined career
23 paths (e.g., majoring in English, history, and communication). Some indi-
viduals had found their current positions by signing up to do temporary
25 work until this turned into full-time employment, applying for a range of job
openings or networking with friends/family. As a male working as a tel-
27 ecommunications engineer described, "I applied at a temp agency for jobs.
{my current position is a job} that I was sent to. It was a much better
29 atmosphere than other places that I went to, I liked that, so I took that job."
The interviews indicated that this group recognized the need to work for an
31 income but that external opportunity rather than individual selection of
careers, or pursuit of planned and defined work lives, primarily influenced
33 their choices for work. As the environment changed or it was discovered
that an opportunity taken was not acceptable for some reason (e.g., the job
35 was too stressful), plans changed. In sum, the missing group seemed less
involved in the selection of their career goals and more reliant on the op-
37 portunities that presented themselves as they moved through this stage of
life.

39 The process of vocational development was also more stressful for the
missing group. Only 36% of individuals in the missing group reported that

1 this process was *not* stressful, while 63% of individuals in other groups
3 reported that the vocational development process was *not* stressful. Stress
5 was thus a common experience for the missing group. As a female editorial
7 assistant described, “Um, it was kind of tough sometimes. I would really
9 get, I would really get stress myself out too much. My friends always used to
pick on me because I used to stress out so much about everything.” Some-
times individuals pointed out that it was the process of finding work rather
than the selection of career goals that was stressful. One female graduate
student noted:

11 “I don’t think it’s been particularly stressful in terms of figuring out what I want to do. I
think what has been stressful is not being able to find a job ... even with a college degree,
that’s you know, that is full time, that has benefits.”

13 There was also evidence of a lack of commitment to work. Similar to the
15 underselection group, 45% of the individuals in this group expressed low
17 commitment to their current jobs, while only 23% said they were very
19 committed. Almost all others were somewhat vague about their levels of
21 commitment stating, for example, that it depended on the day of the week or
23 other external factors. As a male, multimedia designer offered: “I’m fairly
25 committed {to my job}. It depends. It really depends what day it is and
27 whether, well, a lot of it depends on whether my boss tells me I did a good
job or not.” Likewise, many had made time-limited commitments. A female
working in a flower shop stated, “I’d say for right now I’m very committed,
at least for a year.” Others were committed because of friendships with co-
workers or other interpersonal factors, as a female in retail work com-
mented: “The only reason I’m committed to my job is because my boss ...
he’s been my boss for three years and he’s kind of my friend.”

29

DISCUSSION

31

33 In this multi-method study, we used three waves of prospective survey data
35 collected in grade 12 (age 18), and 6 and 7 years later, and retrospective
37 interviews completed when most participants were age 27, to identify groups
39 with stability/change in career aspirations. Groups were labeled as overse-
lection if they showed no changes in career aspirations over time, one-
change if they changed career aspirations between high school and age 24,
but were stable thereafter, underselection if they changed career aspirations
between each of the three waves of measurement, and “missing” if they did
not answer the question on career aspirations in one wave of data collection

1 (or failed to complete an entire survey). We then compared the career and
educational achievements of these groups, and identified and compared relevant
3 themes of work and home commitments, and stressfulness of the vocational developmental process. Themes of selection, optimization, and
5 compensation (SOC; Freund & Baltes, 1998) were also summarized for each group. Based on the SOC metatheory of Freund and Baltes (1998, 2000; see
7 also Freund et al., 1999), the one-change group was expected to have some advantages in the career and educational domains when compared to the
9 overselection and underselection groups. The current study findings revealed processes of SOC in each group even when career goals were relatively
11 continuous from high school. In other words, many individuals use these SOC strategies to manage their vocational lives, but these processes seemed
13 most salient in the overselection and one-change groups.

As the use of SOC strategies would suggest, individuals in the overselection
15 and one-change groups are somewhat advantaged in the educational and/or career arenas when we used prospectively collected data to compare
17 groups. Our results add to the evidence (Weise et al., 2002) that mobilizing SOC processes provides advantages for educational and career success, and
19 that the setting of goals, placing importance on personal projects in the career domain, and vocational planning in adolescence and emerging adulthood
21 are associated with greater objective success later in life (Nurmi et al., 2002; Savickas, 1999). Still, it is unclear from this study what underlies these
23 individual differences in agentic processes. One possibility is that dispositional traits initiate different environmental experiences, such as positive
25 responses from others and opportunities to exhibit competency (Weise et al., 2002). Together, individual dispositions and environmental experiences may
27 combine to produce individual differences in goal setting and pursuit. This continues to be a question for future research.

29 Unexpectedly, there were *not* as many differences between the overselection, one-change, and underselection groups when comparing survey indicators
of educational attainment and career establishment at age 25. It may be that greater group differences will emerge as participants move into
31 middle adulthood. At this age, the interviews may be most revealing of these future differences. The interview narratives collected when participants were
33 age 27 revealed more career advantages in the overselection and one-change groups when compared to the other groups, including somewhat more
35 commitment to work and more focus on optimizing vocational pathways.

37 Taken together, there was some orderliness to many career trajectories of
39 the overselection and one-change groups that occurred as a result of processes of selection and optimization. At times, a common theme emerged

1 during interviews, perhaps reflecting a higher level goal, which linked seem-
2 ingly disparate career interests (e.g., design or working with people). Yet,
3 other interviewees, especially those who were not yet settled on career as-
4 pirations by their mid-20s (the underselection group) or who could not
5 identify career aspirations at some time during this period of life (the miss-
6 ing group), did not report as much orderliness in the vocational domain.
7 They described more indecision and “floundering” in the vocational arena,
8 and did not appear as active in constructing their careers. From the avail-
9 able interview data, it seems that individuals in the overselection and one-
10 change groups had a more coordinated and effective use of SOC strategies
11 than those in the underselection and missing groups. Although consistent
12 with theoretical propositions of “selective optimization with compensation”
13 (Freund & Baltes, 2000, p. 53; Marsiske, Lang, Baltes, & Baltes, 1995),
14 individuals in the overselection and one-change groups also seem to have
15 better positioned themselves for future career development. It is likely that
16 they will have adaptational advantages in the future because they will be the
17 most likely to successfully coordinate SOC in the face of new opportunities,
18 challenges, and obstacles. Future research should assess this hypothesis.

19 We conclude tentatively that underselection (multiple changes in career
20 aspirations, especially when this is still occurring in the mid-20s) is asso-
21 ciated with slower progress in educational attainment and also appears to be
22 associated with more distress in response to vocational issues. Still, under-
23 selection of career aspirations did not seem to indicate a period of prolonged
24 adolescence generally, as some of these individuals had established them-
25 selves in their family lives or had become committed to other pursuits (e.g.,
26 religion, a hobby).

27 Compared to other groups, the missing group had not made as much
28 educational and career progress. These individuals were consistently lower
29 in educational attainment and career progress and were less satisfied with
30 work, than individuals in the other groups. The retrospective interviews also
31 revealed that this group had other difficulties, including the experience of
32 more stress and a lack of commitment and interest in their work lives. They
33 also seemed to have difficulty forming commitments in other areas, as they
34 were less likely to be married. Overall, findings from both prospective survey
35 and retrospective interviews suggest some lack of commitment to education,
36 and less progress in other early adulthood tasks, such as relationship for-
37 mation (Erikson, 1968; Furman, Brown, & Feiring, 1999; Havighurst, 1953;
38 Kroger, 2003; Zimmer-Gembeck & Collins, 2003). This group is apparently
39 in a period of prolonged transition to adulthood, having made little com-
40 mitment to either the work or relational domains.

1 Our mixed method findings also suggest some caution when drawing
conclusions about continuity and discontinuity in career aspirations from
3 one method. While the career choice categories on the prospective survey
imply inconsistency or consistency in subjects' career intentions, these were
5 sometimes contradicted by participants' retrospective reflections. Retro-
spective narrative data sometimes overemphasized continuity over time, but
7 also illustrated greater indecision for some individuals than revealed by the
prospective data. The use of both methods considered in tandem allow a
9 more complete understanding of the various ways that young people meet
the challenges of establishing themselves in the world of work, often in the
11 absence of structured school-to-work bridges.

This study showed that prospective and retrospective reports can provide
13 complementary information, but that there are certain limitations in using
either a survey or narrative approach, or a prospective or retrospective
15 approach, each in isolation. For example, the interviews revealed that the
single survey question about career aspirations might not have allowed
17 enough flexibility in answers. While still in high school, many classified in
the missing group, as well as in other groups, were clearly more focused on
19 college and had not yet begun making career decisions. Perhaps survey
questions about plans for courses of study in college or other further train-
21 ing would have provided important additional information about early se-
lection processes that would be useful in future prospective studies of
23 vocational development.

This study illustrates the dynamics and complexity of vocational devel-
25 opment, illustrating how SOC processes are important developmental re-
sources associated with better educational and vocational attainment in
27 adolescence and young adulthood. One important question to emerge from
this theory regards the optimal number of goals to promote development
29 (Freund & Baltes, 2000). This study has taken us forward by showing that
particular patterns of goal setting during transitional times of life, and the
31 use of compensatory strategies to maintain and to adjust goals when losses
or challenges occur, are promotive of adaptation within the career domain.
33 As has been hypothesized by others (Weise et al., 2002), the findings pre-
sented here also suggest that selection is a very important component of the
35 SOC process between the ages of 18 and 27. This may be an age- and
context-related phenomenon. In a longitudinal, survey study of individuals
37 age 25–36 living in Germany, selection was found to be of less importance to
success in the career domain when contrasted with optimization (Weise et
39 al., 2002).

1 It also illustrates that the selection of vocational goals may *not* be salient
in the narratives of a fairly large proportion of young people even during a
3 period of heightened normative focus on this domain. Nevertheless, some
youth are engaging in SOC processes in other spheres of adult adaptation
5 that parallel, and may co-occur with, these activities in the domain of work.
At least for a time, some youth may “specialize” in focusing on one or
7 another domain, actively relying on SOC processes in the family domain, for
example, while giving less attention to career. Others may be predominantly
9 occupied with travel, hobbies, community involvements, or other pursuits.
Given limited time, energy, and other resources, such differential involve-
11 ments may facilitate effective adaptation, in the long run, across domains.
Just as patterns of comfort and challenge across contexts are promotive of
13 well-being in adolescence (Call & Mortimer, 2001), so too it may be ben-
eficial for young adults to be able to set aside the developmental tasks or
15 goal seeking called for in certain domains to free up the capacity to resolve
others. Further research is necessary to identify such patterns across con-
17 texts, and to discover the factors that may lead to distinct processes of SOC
within each during this formative period of the life course.

19

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Mikki Holmes and Michael Shanahan for their quality interviews
29 of study participants. This research was supported by a grant, “Work Ex-
perience and Mental Health: A Panel Study of Youth,” from the National
31 Institute of Child Health and Human Development (HD44138) and the
National Institute of Mental Health (MH42843). It was also supported by
33 supplementary assistance from the College of Liberal Arts and the Hubert
H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs at the University of Minnesota.

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APPENDIX: PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

19

1. Can you tell me something about your interests in high school? When would you say you became interested in this? [If no mention of work interests, Probe: Did you ever think about work you might do once you left high school?]
2. Thinking back before high school, do you recall your interests? When would you say you became interested in this?
3. Can you tell me something about your interests after you left high school?
- 21 4. Could you tell me about your experiences between this job and your current job?
- 23
- 25 5. Thinking about your current work, could you tell me how it fits or doesn't fit into the other aspects of your life? How committed are you to your current work?
- 27
- 29 6. Thinking about your life since you left high school, has it worked out as you expected it would? How so? How hasn't it? [Probe: Have there been negative things/positive things affecting how your life has unfolded?]
- 31
- 33 7. Thinking about your life since you left high school and your work interests, how many possibilities have you actually considered? Do you feel like these options have changed? How so? When? Why? How do you feel about this?
- 35
- 37

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