

Women and Careers: New Zealand Women's Engagement in Career and Family Planning

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Abstract

How career commitment, career salience, subjective career success, and proactive personality impact on career planning for women is the focus of this paper. Additionally, women have further complications in career planning as they consider family as well as career decisions, which suggests that women's career paths are generally regarded as complex. This study investigated 178 New Zealand women without children, regarding the extent that non-mothers engage in career planning, including the extent that future family planning considerations influence their career plans. We also examined the role of career planning with proactive personality, subjective career success, commitment and salience of women's careers and role as a parent. Results suggest women feel a need to choose between a career and a family. Furthermore, high parental role commitment and salience increased the likelihood of altered career plans to accommodate family whilst high career commitment and salience decreased the likelihood of altered career plans to accommodate family. Implications include the need for organisations to identify contingency plans for women's career planning, and consideration in career management programs.

Keywords: women, careers, career planning, family planning, commitment, salience, career satisfaction, proactive personality.

Introduction

Compared to 30 years ago there are more women present in the workforce, and women now have more opportunities and choices available to them regarding their ability to negotiate around the different life roles available to them (Novakovic & Fouad, 2013; Vinkenburg, Van Hattem, Ossenkop & Dikkers, 2013). Within a research context, two life roles are salient. Firstly, how having a family can affect career opportunities, and secondly, how career decisions can influence decisions around family priorities (Fetterolf & Eagly, 2011; Friedman & Weissbrod, 2005). While these are increasingly understood, what is less understood are the perspectives of women who are about to enter their careers, who are currently childless, and their current perceptions around decision making with regards to a career and a family. Ultimately, this research seeks to address this gap.

Family responsibilities do have constraints on women and men's careers (Covin & Brush, 1991), it is generally expected that conflict between life roles occur for men and women regarding career, marriage, and parenthood roles (Kerpelman & Schvaneveldt, 1999). Women's career building stage or establishment stage typically coincides with the peak of their fertility, thus, women may be faced with decisions or expect a trade-off between having a career and having children, that men may not necessarily face (Brown & Diekman, 2010; Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009; Fetterolf & Eagly, 2011; Friedman & Weissbrod, 2005). The approach

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women take to integrate a career and family is an important topic to explore as it has an impact on women's lives in two major areas – their career life and their family life (O'Brein, Friedman, Tipton, & Linn, 2000). Women's career paths are generally regarded as being more complex than those of men as women have been found to make career decisions and plans to integrate and accommodate having a family (O'Brein et al., 2000) and childbearing has been found to be a limiting factor for a women's career (Larwood & Gutek, 1987). Hewlett, Buck-Luce, Shiller, and Southwell (2005) examined why women take time out of their careers and found the reasons typically had to do with family (childcare or aging parents) or that they are unable to fulfil their responsibilities at home and work. The most common reason for women leaving their careers was to increase time with their children, cited by nearly half (45 percent) of their participants. Not only is leaving the workforce difficult for women, but it is also difficult re-entering it given that women were often penalised in terms of their earning capacity (Hewlett et al., 2005). Nowak, Naudé, and Thomas (2012) found working female professionals acknowledged the presence of these complexities, which included the constraints of career progression and training, reduced opportunities for advancement, and thus overall restrictions on their future career due to making the decision to have a family. Miree and Frieze (1999) found 88 percent of their female participants chose to reduce their hours or exit the workforce or prioritise their children, after having children. Overall research suggests that, for women, having children can have a negative effect on a career.

Sheryl Sandberg, chief operating officer at Facebook, published a book titled 'Lean in: Women, work, and the will to lead' (Sandberg & Scovell, 2013). It reviews a wide range of issues regarding women in the workforce. She pointed out that women, at an early age, face a dilemma – the choice between having a good career or being a good mother. She and others note that women are opting out (leaning out) of their careers prematurely to accommodate for a family that does not currently exist; they pre-emptively plan to accommodate for having a family at the expense of current career planning and engagement (Ganginis Del Pino, O'Brien, Mereish, & Miller, 2013; Sandberg & Scovell, 2013).

Women's resistance towards developing career plans due to the perception that future child rearing is incompatible with a demanding career (including long hours, relocation, and weekends) focussed on the concept of women leaving careers psychologically before they depart, or at least before they invest in careers (Farmer, 1997). "Women leaving before they leave" (ibid: 93) was further developed by Sandberg and Scovell (2013). Overall, this involves a woman's hesitancy to accept career opportunities based on the expectation that she will have a family and, therefore, needs to prepare herself and her career to accommodate a family (Sandberg & Scovell, 2013). This concept suggests that women turn down career advancement due to anticipating children in the future, and the concern of over-commitment at work (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013; Sandberg & Scovell, 2013). While Sandberg and Scovell (2013) popularised this notion, research more widely supports the idea that a woman's career planning is influenced by her plans to have children in the future (Ganginis Del Pino et al., 2013; Marks & Houston, 2002; O'Brein et al., 2000).

Not only is it suggested that women's career plans are developed with consideration to accommodate family plans, but consideration of family plans also influences women's educational aspirations. Marks and Houston (2002) found the plans of young female students to attain higher educational qualifications were influenced by their attitudes about working. This is what Sandberg referred to as leaning out of one's career (Sandberg & Scovell, 2013). The phenomenon being that women's plans to have a family negatively influence their career plans, that is choosing not to progress in their career due to expecting children in the near or far future, this relates to the leaning out stage – once women are in a career. Shann (1983) reported that women became less specific about future career plans around the time they started

considering factors such as marriage, family and childcare. Shann also reported that women preferred to combine both work and childcare, and were inclined to express consideration of plans to accommodate family responsibilities in combination with part-time employment. This suggests importantly that women do factor childrearing into their career plans.

The aim of this research was to examine women's salience and commitment to a career and the parental role. Additionally, we examine women's proactive personality and subjective career success, as well as how these variables relate to career and planning a family below.

Career management, age and education

Career self-management is defined as the extent to which an individual gathers information regularly, engages in career maintenance, and plans for career problem solving and decision making (Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, & Demarr, 1998). It involves actively engaging in one's own career development and career planning, which guides career decision-making, as well as anticipating and adapting to changes, opportunities, and obstacles in a proactive manner (Brown & Lent, 2013; Kossek et al., 1998). King (2004) argued that individuals who were highly self-motivated and highly skilled at adapting to change in the work environment would find career self-management highly beneficial. In contrast, less motivated and skilled individuals, who struggle to utilise personal resources, may struggle to engage in career self-management. Career self-management has positive consequences, such as increased career and life satisfaction, self-efficacy and well-being. However, these outcomes are only evident if the desired career outcomes or goals are achieved (ibid).

This research examines whether there is a relationship between planning to have a family and career planning; this research also looks at age and education as well as whether they have relationships with career planning. Gould (1979) hypothesised that the stabilisation (establishment) career stage (31-44 years old) would be where individuals would have the greatest incentive to engage in career planning. This suggests that age may not be specifically related to career planning as job transitions, such as voluntary job change, career transitions, or job loss, may cause individuals to recycle through the career stages of exploration and establishment (Hartung, 2013). However, Carson and Bedeian (1994) found career planning to have a negative relationship with age ($r=-0.09$). Although the relationship was small, it suggests that, as individuals age, the extent that they engage in career planning will decrease.

Regarding education, Carson and Bedeian (1994) found evidence that career planning had a positive relationship with education ($r=0.16$). Additionally, career planning was positively related to the intention to pursue graduate education ($r=0.14$), as well as being significantly related to applications to graduate education programs ($r=0.19$) (Seibert, Kraimer, Holtom, & Pierotti, 2013). This suggests that, as an individual's education level increases, engagement in career planning increases. Based on the evidence this research provides, we hypothesised that career planning would be negatively related to age and that career planning would be positively related to education.

Hypothesis 1: Career planning will be negatively related to age. Therefore, as an individual's age increases their engagement in career planning will decrease.

Hypothesis 2: Career planning will be positively related to education. That is, individuals with higher levels of education will be more likely to engage in career planning.

Proactive personality and subjective career success

Proactive personality describes a person who has a relatively stable disposition towards exhibiting proactive behaviours and is typically unconstrained by changes in the environment and by situational forces (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Proactive individuals typically show initiative, recognise opportunities and take advantage of these opportunities, take action and persevere in situations to make changes that are meaningful (Crant, 1995). Less proactive individuals tend to react to changes in their environment rather than initiating it (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Seibert et al., 1999). Pazy (1988) found proactive personality positively related to career planning. Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, and Tag (1997) found that individuals with high initiative were more inclined to engage in career planning ($r=0.37$) and more inclined to execute that career plan ($r=0.26$) than individuals low on initiative. Proactive behaviours, for instance engaging in career planning and seeking career feedback, are reported to enhance the likelihood that an individual will experience extrinsic rewards and an intrinsically satisfying career (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Based on this evidence, we hypothesised that proactive personality would be positively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 3: Proactive personality will be positively related to career planning.

Subjective career success (SCS), also regarded as career satisfaction, is defined as an individual's feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment with their careers (Seibert et al., 1999). Career satisfaction has been found to have a significant positive relationship with career planning ($r=0.14$) (Aryee & Debrah, 1993). Career planning was found to be a significant predictor of SCS ($r=0.33$), which was a stronger predictor than that of salary (a component of objective career success) (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Based on this evidence, we hypothesised that SCS would be positively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 4a: Subjective career success (career satisfaction) will be positively related to career planning.

King (2004) argued that career self-management could be beneficial for highly skilled workers who were self-motivated and would find ways to adapt to a work environment that is ever changing. Additionally, engaging in career self-management may result in positive outcomes for the individual, including career satisfaction; increased level of self-efficacy, increased level of well-being, and positive outcomes for life satisfaction, on the condition that the career outcomes are achieved (King, 2004). Proactive personality has been reported to have a significant relationship with career satisfaction ($r=0.31$) (Seibert et al., 1999), ($r=0.27$) (Seibert et al., 2001), ($r=0.20$) (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005), and the relationship was found to be partially mediated by career initiative, innovation, and political knowledge (Seibert et al., 2001). Ng et al. (2005) found proactive personality to be a significant predictor of SCS ($r=0.38$). Based on this evidence we hypothesised that proactive personality would be positively related to SCS.

Hypothesis 4b: Proactive personality will be positively related to subjective career success (career satisfaction).

Career commitment

Career commitment is defined as an individual's dedication to their career and to work towards their professional advancement, characterised by the development of career goals, which the individual develops, identifies with, and persists in their efforts to achieve their career goals

(Carson & Bedeian, 1994; Colarelli & Bishop, 1990). Career commitment is considered to extend over a long period of time, and it takes dedication and persistence to achieve the career that the individual aspires to, despite any challenges that occur (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990). This persistence and commitment to the goal is more likely to be exhibited when individuals have established plans to achieve their goals (King, 2004). Friedman and Weissbrod (2005) found that individuals thinking about a career and thinking about their career plans indicated career commitment. Additionally, they found that career decision-making regarding career plans was positively related to work/career commitment. Aryee and Debrah (1993) illustrated that career planning had a significant relationship with career commitment, ($r=0.5$). Driver (2004) found that career management practices (including career planning, goal setting, preparation for the future, leadership, and many other practices) were positively related to, and were significant predictors of, career commitment ($r=0.50$). Based on the evidence this research provides, we hypothesised that career commitment would be positively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 5a: Career commitment will be positively related to career planning.

Blau (1989) argued that career resilience was a component of career commitment, as it demonstrated how much an individual valued their career and their persistence against career disruptions. Career resilience is also regarded as having the ability to adapt to changing environments, and resisting discouraging and disruptive circumstances (King, 2004; London & Noe, 1997). This notion that career resilience is a component of career commitment is similar to the concept of proactive personality, that it is an ability to be unconstrained by changes in the environment and situational forces (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Vandenberghe and Ok (2013) found that career commitment had a strong positive relationship with proactive personality ($r=0.29$). Furthermore, Morgan, Walker, Wang, and Aven (2012) found that career commitment and proactive personality had a positive relationship ($r=0.26$), although this sample was predominantly male. Based on this evidence, we hypothesised that career commitment and proactive personality, as defined in the literature reviewed, would be positively related.

Hypothesis 5b: Career commitment will be positively related to proactive personality.

Career salience and career planning

Career salience relates to the importance of a career to an individual (Greenhaus, 1973). Career salience is defined as the relative priority, centrality, and personal significance a career has within an individual's life in relation to other life roles (Allen & Ortlepp, 2002; Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; White, Cox, & Cooper, 1992). Crozier (1999) suggested that career planning was not just planning for a work role, but was also planning for significant life roles. It is important to point out that career salience, as well as the salience of other life roles, can vary during different periods of an individual's lifetime, indicating what an individual finds salient at one point in their life may be different at another point in their life (ibid, 1999). Research has found that individuals who scored highly for career salience had a higher value for intrinsic rewards (Greenhaus & Simon, 1977). Farmer (1997) suggested that career planning should be regarded as taking place within life plans and that career plans need to take into account other life roles, including parenthood roles and personal roles. Farmer regarded women as being prone to experiencing work-life conflict and, thus, need to think about what roles are important to them. These authors found that career salience in women had a negative relationship to home role salience ($r=-0.27$). Nevill and Super (1988) found that, among university students, women were more highly committed to their work and home roles than the men. Chao and Malik (1988) argued that the salience of a woman's career could influence her

career involvement and future planning. Bachiochi (2013) found that career salience was predictive of career planning ($R^2 = 0.18$) as well as career exploration ($R^2 = 0.21$). Peters' (1991) research illustrated that highly work salient women do make plans regarding making family and career commitments to accommodate each other. Based on the evidence, this body of research provides, we hypothesised that career salience would be positively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 6: Career salience will be positively related to career planning.

Family planning, parental commitment and salience

Some women delay starting a family due to their careers (Kerpelman & Schvaneveldt, 1999), and where work is more salient, women have fewer children, postpone starting a family, and make career choices over family choices. While this varies over by age and life stage, generally career orientations are negatively correlated with planning to have a family. Work salient women were found to plan fewer children and start childbearing older (Peters, 1991). Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) found career-orientation to be negatively related to considering children within the career plans scale (planning to have a family). Ganginis Del Pino et al. argued that women who considered a future family when making career choices were expected to have low scores towards being career-oriented, as they would prioritise children over a career. This may result in young women creating pseudo-career plans; that is, not making any concrete plans or commitments to vocational choices or allowances to include family plans (Crozier, 1999). Based on this evidence we hypothesised that planning to have a family would be negatively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 7: Planning to have a family will be negatively related to career planning.

The age at which women are having their first child has increased, with the suggestion that this may be due to prioritising careers, and education. The 'Median and average age of first time mothers, nuptial and total live confinements from 1962–2009' statistics from Statistics New Zealand, illustrates that, over 47 years, the average age of women having their first child increased from 23 years to 30 years old (Statistics New Zealand, 2009). One reason why women postpone starting their families may be due to career planning and education. Gufstasson (2001) suggested that women, with pre-parental human capital, tend to delay births. A suggested reason was that more highly educated women delay births so that they were at less risk of job skill decay, they could increase their lifetime earnings, and that they did not see themselves as able to afford much time out of the workforce to have children (Gufstasson, 2001; Happel, Hill, & Low, 1984). Based on this evidence, we hypothesised that education would have a negative relationship to planning to have a family.

Hypothesis 8: Education will be negatively related to planning to have a family.

Parental role commitment is defined as the individual's willingness to dedicate their personal resources, time, and energy, to ensure that the role as a parent is successfully performed (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986). Parental role reward value, referred to as parental role salience, is defined as the extent that the individual regards the parental role as being significant, and from which they gain personal satisfaction (ibid, 1986). Parental role salience refers to a women's willingness to dedicate her time, energy and resources to being a successful parent. The parental role is valued and, as such, is a source of significant personal satisfaction.

High parental role commitment and high parental role salience (family-centred) suggest that, when making decisions, the parental/family role will have the highest priority, whilst decisions

around career are given less priority. Whitmarsh, Brown, Cooper, Hawkins-Rodgers, and Diane (2007) found that women negotiated their career decisions based on how salient their work and family responsibilities were in their lives. They found that, for women, the trajectory of their career reflected what they felt was most important within their lives, whether that is to combine having a family and a career, to not have children, or to compromise their career to accommodate having a family. They found that a majority of women chose to combine their career with their motherhood roles within their life plan (Whitmarsh et al., 2007). Hakim (2007) suggested women with high career commitment and high career salience are career-centred. Their decisions give career the highest priority. Women with high parental role commitment and high parental role salience are family centred. Their highest priority is parental/family life. Those women who have high commitment and salience to both career and parental roles are termed adaptive. They value both career and family equally in their decision making (Hakim 2007). Based on this, our research examined the variables of career commitment and salience, and parental role commitment and salience.

Hypothesis 9a: Parental role commitment will be negatively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 9b: Parental role commitment will be positively related to planning to have a family.

Hypothesis 10a: Parental role salience will be negatively related to career planning.

Hypothesis 10b: Parental role salience will be positively related to planning to have a family.

Method

Participants, demographics, and procedure

One hundred and seventy-eight New Zealand females, over the age of 18 and without children, were surveyed. It must be pointed out that women with children were not examined in this study. The justification for this was to avoid retrospective bias; this study examined the current attitudes that women with no children had regarding the ability and expectation to manage a career and having a family. Whereas women who already manage to have a career and a family, or have chosen one over the other, already have an idea of what is involved in managing both.

The distributions of ages in our sample were 90.4 percent were aged between 18-35 years old, and 9.6 percent was aged 36 and older. The mean age was 25.32 years ($SD=7.82$), average annual income was between \$0-50,000 ($M=1.26$, $SD=0.49$), and the level of education distribution across participants was secondary school (14 percent), tertiary (32.6 percent), Bachelor's degree (24.7 percent), Honours' degree (7.3 percent), Master's degree (13.5 percent), and Doctorate degree (7.9 percent). A range of participants were recruited, including university students, local consultancy agencies, alumni and educational group associations, university residential halls, research company, local advocacy association, and financial support organisation. Participants completed an online survey that asked them to rate their agreement with a series of statements on a seven-point scale, from strongly disagree (1), to strongly agree (7).

Measures

Career planning

Gould's (1979) 6-item Career Planning Questionnaire (CPQ) was used to assess the extent participants engaged in career planning. (e.g. "I know what I need to do to reach my career goals.", "I have a plan for my career.", $\alpha = 0.86$).

Proactive personality

Cleaes, Beheydt, and Lemmens' (2005) 6-item Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) was used to assess the broad construct of proactive personality. (e.g. "If I see something I don't like, I fix it.", "I am always looking for better ways to do things.", $\alpha = 0.79$).

Subjective Career Success (Career Satisfaction)

Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley's (1990) 5-item Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) was used to assess subjective career success (career satisfaction). (e.g. "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.", "I am satisfied with progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goal", $\alpha = 0.87$).

Family Planning – Considering Children

Ganginis Del Pino et al.'s (2013) 12-item PLAN: Considering Children Scale was used to measure the extent women considered children in their career plans. (e.g. "I will have a career with flexible hours so that I can be home for the children I plan to have.", "I will not plan my career around future parenting responsibilities.", $\alpha = 0.96$).

Career Commitment

Ellemers, De Gilder, and Van Den Heuvel's (1998) 5-item career-oriented commitment scale was used to measure the extent that an individual feels committed to their personal goals to advance their career. (e.g. "My career is one of the most important things in my life.", "The ambitions in my life mainly have to do with my career.", $\alpha = 0.85$).

Parental Role Commitment

Amatea et al.'s (1986) 5-item Parental Role Commitment subscale of the Life Role Salience Scale was used to measure the extent that a person is willing to commit personal resources to assure success in the parental role or to develop the role. (e.g. "I expect to devote a significant amount of my time and energy to the rearing of children of my own.", "I expect to be very involved in the day-to-day matters of rearing children of my own.", $\alpha = 0.86$).

Career Salience

Allen and Ortlepp's (2002) 11-item Career Salience Questionnaire (CSQ) was used to measure the relative importance and significance an individual's career maintained within the individual's life. (e.g. "The most important things I do involve my career.", "I am willing to make sacrifices in my family life to succeed in my career."). In our exploratory analysis, career salience was found to consist of three constructs; these three constructs were called 'Importance of career in life' dimension (CS:CIL, $\alpha = 0.83$), 'Importance of career over family' dimension (CS:COF, $\alpha = 0.79$), and 'Importance of work over career' dimension (CS:WOC, $\alpha = 0.70$). Therefore, our statistical analysis examined career salience using these three dimensions.

Parental Role Salience

Amatea et al.'s (1986) 5-item Parental Role Value subscale of the Life Role Salience Scale was used to measure the participant's view that the role as a parent is important and a means of self-definition and/or personal satisfaction. (i.e. "The whole idea of having children and raising

them is not attractive to me.”, “It is important to me to feel I am (will be) an effective parent.”, $\alpha = 0.92$).

Demographics

The demographics included in this study were age, education and income level.

Data analysis

Reliability Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS21. Cronbach’s alphas were used to assess reliability of the measures used and are reported in the measures section. All measures met the required values (Kline, 2011).

Correlational Analysis

A Pearson’s product-moment correlation was used to test for support for this study’s hypotheses.

Results

Examining Table 1, the hypothesised relationships between engagement in career planning and age (H1); education (H2); planning to have a family by considering children in career plans (H7); parental role commitment (H9a); parental role salience (H10a) were not supported. The hypothesised relationships between engagement in career planning and proactive personality (H3; $r = .34, p < 0.001$); SCS (H4a; $r = .47, p < 0.001$); career commitment (H5a; $r = .37, p < 0.001$), were supported. This implies that women who engaged in career planning (as hypothesised) were more likely to have a proactive personality, experience SCS, and be career committed.

The hypothesised relationships between proactive personality and SCS (H4b; $r = .27, p < 0.001$) and career commitment (H5b; $r = .37, p < 0.001$) were supported. This implies that women with a proactive personality (as hypothesised) were more likely to experience SCS and were more likely to be committed to their career.

The hypothesised relationship between career planning and career salience (H6), was moderately supported, as the career salience variable was made up of three dimensions, the relationships between engagement in career planning and importance of career in life ($r = 0.41, p < 0.001$) and importance of work over career ($r = .37, p < 0.001$), were supported, but the relationship with importance of career over family was not supported. This implies that women who consider their career important in their life and in work (as hypothesised) are more likely to engage career planning.

The hypothesised relationship between planning to have a family by considering children in career plans and education (H8, $r = -0.20, p < 0.01$) was supported. This implies that as a woman’s education level increases (as hypothesised) the less likely she will engage in considering plans to have children in their career plans.

The hypothesised relationships between planning to have a family by considering children in career plans and parental role commitment (H9b; $r = .74, p < 0.001$); parental role salience (H10b; $r = .73, p < 0.001$) were supported. This implies that women who plan to have a family by considering children in career plans tend to be (as hypothesised) more committed to the parental roles and regard the parental role as salient in their lives.

Table 1
Pearson product-moment correlations for all variables and Cronbach's alphas.

Variables	Education	Income	Age	CP	PP	SCS	PF	CC	PC	PS	CS1	CS2	CS3
Education	-												
Income	.49 ^{***}	-											
Age	.60 ^{***}	.64 ^{***}	-										
CP	.11	.04	-.03	0.86									
PP	.09	.14	-.02	.34 ^{***}	0.79								
SCS	.03	.13	.01	.47 ^{***}	.27 ^{***}	0.87							
PF	-.20 ^{**}	-.29 ^{***}	-.35 ^{***}	.03	-.17 [*]	.06	0.96						
CC	.11	-.01	-.14	.37 ^{***}	.33 ^{***}	.14	-.16 [*]	0.85					
PC	-.23 ^{**}	-.35 ^{***}	-.42 ^{***}	.09	-.09	.13	.74 ^{***}	-.15	0.86				
PS	-.21 ^{**}	-.33 ^{***}	-.41 ^{***}	.12	-.06	.15 [*]	.73 ^{***}	-.08	.85 ^{***}	0.92			
CS:CIL	.04	-.06	-.14	.41 ^{***}	.32 ^{***}	.20 ^{**}	-.21 ^{**}	.80 ^{***}	-.19 [*]	-.10	0.83		
CS:COF	.05	.12	.046	.08	.21 ^{**}	-.02	-.41 ^{***}	.49 ^{***}	-.43 ^{***}	-.42 ^{***}	.54 ^{***}	0.79	
CS:WOC	-.03	-.00	-.12	.37 ^{***}	.43 ^{***}	.24 ^{***}	-.32 ^{***}	.61 ^{***}	-.16 [*]	-.17 [*]	.55 ^{***}	.41 ^{***}	0.70

Sample size = 178. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001; Reliability for each measure in bold on diagonal.

CP= Career planning, PP = Proactive personality, SCS= Subjective career success, PF= Planning to have a family, CC= Career commitment, PC= Parental role commitment, PS= parental role salience, CS: CIL= Importance of career in life, CS: COF= Importance of career over family, CS: WOC= Importance of work over career.

Discussion

Research into career management is important as it can help provide information for practitioners to assist clients on what career path to consider and select, as well as what type of educational, training, and development opportunities to take. This will help practitioners address clients' concerns in other life roles, find ways to facilitate life roles within their career, and encourage individuals to pursue their desired career without feeling as though their career or family options are limited (Lent & Brown, 2013).

Our research primarily examined the relationships between two important life domains for women, their career life and their family life. Women's engagement in career planning was examined in relation to their plans for considering children in their career plans, their commitment and value (salience) of their career and family, personality, and SCS (career satisfaction). The results supported many of our hypotheses, that engagement in career planning was positively related to proactive personality (H3), SCS (H4a), career commitment (H5a), and career salience (H6). These results indicated that women who scored highly on proactive personality, reported high levels of SCS, were highly committed to their career, and had a high level of career salience. They were more likely to engage in career planning than women who reported low levels of proactivity, SCS, career commitment and salience. Family planning was related to parental role commitment and salience, as well as being negatively related to education. This means that the more educated a woman is, the less she will engage in planning to have a family. Whereas for women with a high level of parental role commitment and salience, the more likely she is to engage in planning to have a family.

However, a number of hypotheses were not supported, career planning and (H1) age, (H2) education, (H7) planning to have a family, (H9a) parental role commitment, (H10a) parental role salience, and (H6) career salience: Importance of career over family. The unsupported hypotheses 1 and 2 indicate that, regardless of age and education, engaging in career planning is more likely related to career transitions, in that career planning spans across an individual's life, rather than a specific age range (Gould, 1979). The concept of mini and maxi career cycles could account for this, where individuals return to previous career development stages due to changes, such as promotions, career changes or retirement, rather than going through career developmental stages only once in their lifetime (Hartung, 2013).

Although career planning was not found to be correlated with planning to have a family (H7), parental role commitment (H9a), parental role salience (H10a), and career salience: Importance of career over family (H6), they are coherent findings. One possible explanation for these results may be due to sampling, and the inclusion of young undergraduate childless females. Thus, these participants, in their current stage of life, may not have been concerned with accommodating children in their career, but may be more concerned with whether they want a career, what type of career, and attaining higher qualifications. Additionally, Crozier (1999) suggested that young women create pseudo-career plans without making any concrete commitments or plans so that they can make accommodations for family responsibilities, suggesting that the concept of having a family may be a vague inclination without in-depth consideration of managing a family and a career until a time requires them to do so. These points may have influenced the results. Future research could examine career and family planning among women with and without children, and those who are working and those who are not.

The results suggest an individual's parental role commitment (H9a) and salience (H10a) will not influence the extent the person undertakes career planning. Again, these results may be specific to our sample, in that our sample was not yet in the stage of life concerned about the

immediate impact of children on career decisions, i.e. having no children, therefore, little or no concern about issues as they are not impending or immediate. Future research could replicate this study but it could also include women with children who are also working, in addition to women without children. Notwithstanding, the current findings are consistent with Hakim's (2007) research in that both career commitment and salience were significantly related to career planning, and both parental role commitment and salience were significantly related to planning to have a family, possibly indicating women's preferences (commitment and salience) are what may influence the level of engagement in career planning and planning to have a family.

Implications

The choice between career and family remains salient for New Zealand women. This research highlighted the importance of examining women's career management in relation to their possible future role as a parent, understanding contributing factors for career and family planning, as well as women's family planning intentions. Certain lifestyle preferences may indicate women who may have an increased likelihood of altering their career choices and responsibilities, due to the concern of managing career and childcare responsibilities. Counsellors could work with female clients to develop a career plan, and a contingency plan for when they become a mother so that they can have a career and be a mother. By doing this, counsellors would be supporting the development and application of female clients' career plans, encouraging clients to take up career advancing opportunities, and reducing their concerns over possible conflict between childcare and career responsibilities if this is right for them. Career management programmes could be designed to help encourage women to be proactive with their career plans and goals, maintaining their knowledge, skills, and abilities, and to help design a career that would reduce career and family life conflict. These programs could discuss women's concerns about how their career and work could change due to having children, and to discuss effective ways to balance their career and childcare responsibilities. The purpose would be to reduce women's tendencies to limit their future career prospects to accommodate parenting responsibilities on top of their career responsibilities provided this is right for them.

This research shows that New Zealand women feel they need to choose between a career and a family. Organisations could play a part in employees' career planning by addressing this issue of hesitance to take up career opportunities. By assisting in the development of career plans and contingency plans for when children arrive, encouraging female employees to apply for career advancing opportunities, should they want this, may lead to lower early female employee turnover.

Reducing early female employee turnover may save the organisation extra resources and money required when replacing female employees that have exited, and possibly increasing employees' work-life balance and organisational commitment. Furthermore, addressing female employees' concerns about their career and motherhood may encourage more female employees to apply for or accept career-advancing opportunities. This may benefit the organisation and may lead to an increase career satisfied female employees, however, this could lead to increases in stress and mother-guilt. To manage this, organisations may also want to develop and adopt flexible work policies for employees who have family responsibilities, to allow for work-life balance to help decrease or manage stress for working mothers and mother-guilt, and increase career satisfaction. The benefit of this is that organisations would have a better range of applicants to select from for promotion, increasing the likelihood of hiring the best person for the role. Furthermore, investing time in employees' careers may increase employees' career commitment and salience, and commitment levels to their organisations.

Limitations and Further Research Required

One of the limitations of our study is that it is based on USA and UK attitudes and models around family and careers, and the sample of participants is predominantly middle class. However, we argue that the relevancy of research from the USA and UK to a New Zealand sample is appropriate. Previous research by Masuda, Poelmans, Allen, Spector, Lapierre, Cooper, Moreno-Velazquez (2012) examined the cultures of various countries and assigned them into cultural clusters. New Zealand was categorised into the Anglo cluster, which included Australia, Canada, USA, and the UK. The clusters were based on common history, geography, and shared cultural values, and ratings of the level of individualism and collectivism existing within the countries from multiple data collections. Spector, Allen, Poelmans, Lapierre, Cooper, O'Driscoll, Widerszal-Bazyl's (2007) found that the Anglo cluster (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, USA and UK) was the highest individualistic rating compared to other cultural clusters (Asian and Latin clusters). Although this justifies the use of research from USA and UK in this study, it does limit the generalisability of the results given that the results from other countries and cultures may vary.

Another limitation of our study is that it does not specifically examine the Maori (i.e. indigenous) cultural models. Harr and Brougham (2013) point out that the Maori culture has more of a collectivist orientation while existing within an individualistic society. Our study also excludes other cultural models to the issue of family versus career planning, for example, the Scandinavian approach that adopts a family and father friendly approach and uses public policies to assist with family responsibilities. For example, Sweden and Norway, both have public policies and social supports demonstrating a commitment to gender equality based on women and men sharing paid employment and family responsibilities equally (Knudsen, 2009; Oláh, & Bernhardt, 2008). Parental leave policies, to which fathers can access, to help increase the father's active involvement in parenting. The social supports also include publically funded high-quality childcare to enable men and women to combine employment and parenthood; tax and cash benefits for families; no wage penalties for part-time employment; and part-time and flexible working hours are almost accessible everywhere in these countries (Knudsen, 2009; Oláh, & Bernhardt, 2008). Thus, a cross-sectional study of different cultures and societies, as well as a longitudinal study examining the changes across women's career and life stages, would benefit this field of research. These would help identify other factors that may contribute to the development of certain attitudes around having children and a career.

An additional drawback of this study is the limited ability to measure the priority or real value of having children and a career, especially among participants who do not have children and/or a career, and have not experienced the struggle with managing the responsibilities of both. As the level of value or realisation of how valuable both are, and in comparison to each other, are subject to change once women and men actually have children, as well as the value of one's career over various periods in a person's life span. Ganginis Del Pino et al. (2013) also suggests that planning for a career and a family is expected to vary across time and across developmental stages. Future research could examine whether women feel the need to change their career plans to accommodate a family and whether women will or will not accept career advancing opportunities in anticipation of future child rearing responsibilities. This proposed research could explore the concept of "leaning out of careers" and whether a trade-off between career and family is a reason for their decision. Future research could also investigate what specific concerns (for example family and/or career responsibilities, promotion, salary, travel, and social activities) women are faced with related to postponing childbearing, and how would they rank these concerns in terms of importance in life, and examine how these concerns and rankings vary and change across different ages, possibly in a longitudinal study. Furthermore,

research on the reasons why New Zealand women postpone having children may provide insights around the important aspects influencing women's decisions around having children.

Moreover, career salience and parental role salience may not be considered as stable constructs, rather dynamic ones that may transform due to changes within the individual as well as their circumstances. The measure used for career salience was the 11-item CSQ from Allen and Ortlepp (2002), which is a valid measure to assess career salience, as previous measures did not differentiate between career salience, work salience, and career commitment. This measure was developed, therefore, in order to have a more accurate assessment of career salience, and is highly correlated with the original Career Salience Scale by Greenhaus (1971) (Allen & Ortlepp, 2002). For parental role salience, we used the Parental Role Value Subscale from the Life-Role Saliences scale by Amatea, et al. (1986). This measure has been used in multiple studies (Bosch, de Bruin, Kgaladi, & de Bruin, 2012; Cinamon, 2010; Friedman & Weissbrod 2005; Vinkenburt et al., 2013). While acknowledging that attitudes/salience's change over a lifetime, the measures used represent a fair assessment of current attitudes of predominantly young New Zealand women, are validated measures and used in multiple studies.

Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between women's career plans and consideration of children in their plans, as well as providing insight into young childless New Zealand women's attitudes regarding children and careers. Regardless of the unsupported hypotheses, the majority of our hypotheses were supported. The findings support the notion that women feel the need to choose between a career and a family. Our research found that women with high parental role commitment and salience were more likely to change their career plans to accommodate having children. Whereas, women with high career commitment and salience were less likely to change their career plans to accommodate children. Interestingly, considering children in career plans and parental role commitment and salience were not related to engagement in career planning. Therefore, women's career plans, commitment and salience of their career, in addition, family planning, parental role commitment and salience, personality, and SCS all were central in developing career plans for young women in New Zealand. This research could assist career counsellors with female clients by prompting them to consider other aspects of the client's life and life plan as well as how the client can manage life events and aspects into their career plan without having to leave one's career entirely.

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Appendix 1

**Median and Average Age of First Time Mothers:
Nuptial and total live confinements from 1962 to 2009**

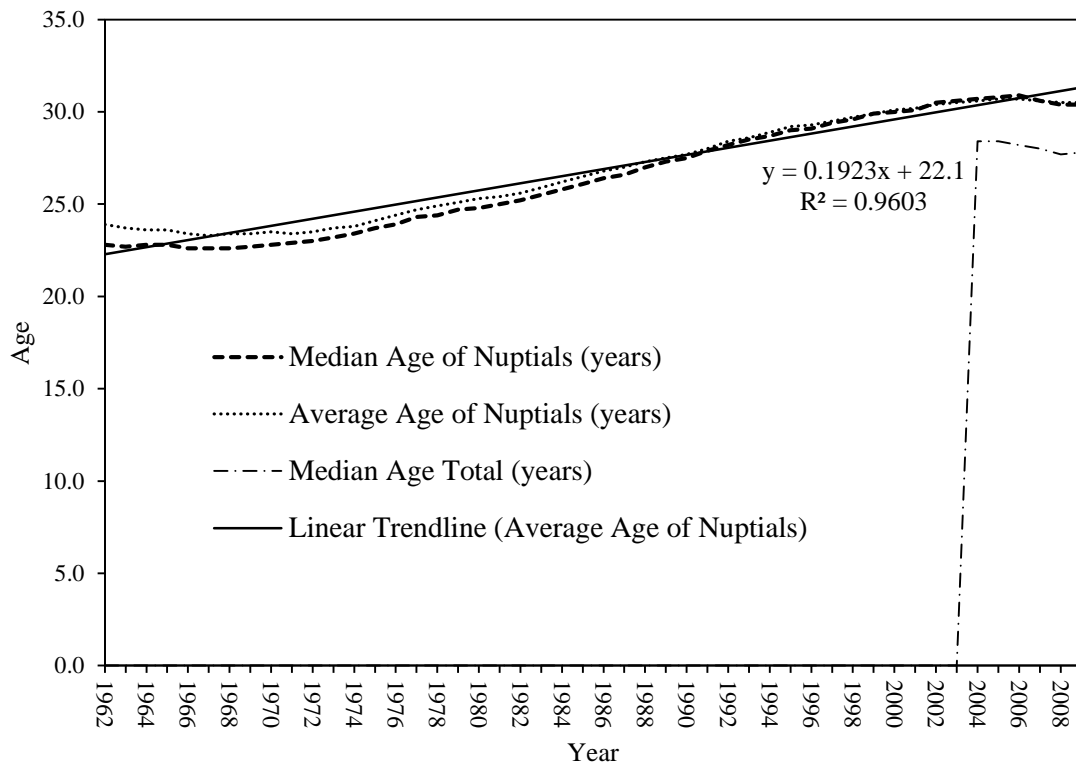


Figure 1. New Zealand 1962-2009 statistics of average and median ages of first time mothers.