To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Mixon Ware-Hargis entitled "Women, Work, and Retirement: Issues and Questions for Policy and Practice." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Human Ecology.

Priscilla White Blanton, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

WOMEN, WORK, AND RETIREMENT:

ISSUES AND QUESTIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

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Mixon Ware-Hargis

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DEDICATION

To Aleen Steinberg who believed in me; to my husband, Keith Hargis, who supported me and kept me going; to my mother, Mercia Oliver Ware, who instilled in me a love of lifelong learning; to my father, Christopher Govan Ware, who gave me his sense of humor so that I could survive the hard times, and to all the friends and family who have endured me with patience and humor throughout this journey.

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ABSTRACT

Advances in both the quantity and quality of life, unparalleled over the past 45 centuries, shaped a longevity revolution in the 20th century. At the same time, a similar revolution in gender occurred in the workforce as women entered the paid labor market in unprecedented numbers. With women now representing almost half of the United States labor force, women's work-family challenges across the developmental stages of adulthood have far-reaching social and economic implications. The extent to which working women stay in or leave the labor force as they age, changes in their work-family needs and concerns, and aging-related issues facing working women will have an impact on macro- and micro-level social changes in the coming decades. Based on a Work and Retirement Survey of Business and Professional Women, sociodemographic characteristics, work attitudes and perceptions, and developmental issues of women across three stages of adulthood were examined. Questions addressed included the importance of time for selected activities, role identity, motivations to work, importance of selected employee benefits, career-related issues, conceptions of retirement, and financial preparedness for retirement. Family and work issues, combined with individual developmental differences associated with gender and aging, were found to present both challenges and opportunities. The findings of this study indicate that, although women in different stages of adulthood differ in some of their motivations, attitudes, and perceptions of work and retirement, there are more commonalities across age cohorts than differences. This finding has

implications for lifespan career development, work-life extension, and advocacy for policies and practices that provide flexibility for workers throughout the life course. It is imperative that financial and family life educators, social science researchers, family scholars and practitioners, and human resource professionals understand and collaboratively address the developmental issues of working women throughout adulthood. The challenges of the longevity and gender revolutions provide opportunities to expand traditional notions of work and retirement in ways that are conducive to optimal human development and productivity across the lifespan and the social and contextual structures within which that development occurs.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Advances in both the quantity and quality of life, unparalleled over the past 45 centuries, shaped a longevity revolution in the 20th century. At the same time, a similar revolution in gender occurred in the workforce as women entered the paid labor market in unprecedented numbers. Through the perspectives of the longevity and gender revolutions, this study examined sociodemographic characteristics, work attitudes and perceptions, and developmental issues of women in three age-based stages of adulthood.

Longevity Revolution

According to Phyllis Moen, a preeminent work and family researcher, "Two revolutions are transforming American society: the revolution in longevity . . . and the revolution in gender, resulting in the increasing labor force participation of women of all ages" (1994, p. 151). These combined revolutions impact work and retirement opportunities and decisions for women across the developmental stages of adulthood.

Viewed in the context of history, the longevity revolution is monumental. In the 4,500 years spanning the Bronze Age to the start of the twentieth century, life expectancy increased only 27 years (Rowe & Kahn, 1998, p. 3). As a result of advances in medical care and technology (e.g., reduction of infant mortality rates, immunology, early diagnosis and control of chronic disorders) and improved measures of public health and sanitation (Rowe & Kahn, 1998), the life expectancy increase of 27 years that took 45 centuries to achieve was exceeded in just one century.

The expected longevity of a person in 1900 was about 48 years of age (Crandall, 1991), compared to an average life expectancy of 76.5 years of age at the end of the twentieth century (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Rather than being at the end of her life, a 48-year-old Caucasian woman today might expect to live another 33.8 years, to the age of 81.8 years, while an African-American woman has a remaining average life expectancy of 30.5 years, or to the age of 78.5 years (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Based on these expanded life expectancies, if a woman retires from the labor force at the traditional age of 65, she will spend approximately one-fifth of her life in retirement.

With the advances in enhanced quality of life and productivity that are accompanying increased longevity (Rowe & Kahn, 1998), retirement becomes an increasingly less attractive option. Asserting that old age was a time when many relinquished jobs, activities, and even relationships, disengagement theory (Cumming & Henry, 1961) has been critically examined (Hochschild, 1975) and supplanted by activity theory (Havighurst, Neugarten, & Tobin, 1963; Rosow, 1967). Activity theory and other models for more successful aging maintain that unless constrained by poor health or disability, "the more active people are, the more likely they are to be satisfied with life" (Moody, 2000, p. 318). New models for successful aging promote maintaining close relationships with others, remaining involved in activities that are meaningful and purposeful, and continuing productive activity (Rowe & Kahn, 1998).

Riley (1992) argued for changes in social structures to aid an aging population in "expressing their marvelous potentials" (p. 29). Related to work, examples of attempts to optimize role structures for older persons include increasing provisions for part-time work, job sharing, and flexible hours (Riley, 1992). Such structural intervention "will

have implications for people of all ages: young and middle-aged—not just the old" (Riley, 1992, p. 31). According to Riley, any structural intervention in response to the longevity revolution "will have ramifications affecting how everyone grows older, [with] 'age-segregated' social structures giving way to more 'age-integrated' structures . . ." (1992, p. 31).

Such an age-integrated structure already is present among working women. For example, of the total number of women in the civilian labor force, the percentage of women ages 20-24 (10.2%) is balanced by the percentage of women ages 55-64 (9.6%) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). With people of all ages working together, the longevity revolution and the gender revolution meet in the workplace.

Gender Revolution

Presenting a historical perspective and profile of the female labor force, Blau (1978) stated,

> Women have consistently played a major role in the American economy. While their husbands tilled the fields, colonial women were engaged in household manufacturing. . . . While industrialization meant that many of the goods and services women traditionally produced in the home were increasingly provided by the market economy, it also brought ever-increasing numbers of women into the paid labor force. . . . Between 1940 and 1945 the female labor force expanded to 5.5 million, and 38 percent of all women sixteen and over were working. But . . . considerable ground was lost in the immediate postwar period . . . [and women's rates of work] participation did not regain their 1945 levels until 1961.

> The long-term growth in the female labor force since 1940 was accomplished primarily by the entry of new groups of women into the labor market. (p. 35-37)

The entry of these new groups of women resulted in the female labor force closely resembling the total female population, meaning that working women span a sociodemographic spectrum of age, marital and family status, racial composition, educational attainment, and other characteristics such as financial need (Blau, 1978). Whereas in 1940, only three of every ten women were in the paid labor force, constituting less than one-fourth (24%) of the total labor force, they now represent almost half (46.5%) of the total civilian labor force (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995). In 1999, the majority of American women worked outside the home–60% of the female population compared to 43.3% in 1970 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000; Baber & Allen, 1992).

Certainly, the notion of women working is not a new phenomenon. Historically, women have engaged in producing goods and services for their family's consumption, producing goods and services at home for sale or exchange on the market, and working for pay outside the home (Blau, 1978). And in this country, long before the Industrial Revolution, African-American women labored outside the home, whether under the chains of slavery or the demands of pressing family economic need (Jones, 1985). Work-family issues are far from a new topic to them. Nonetheless, the reality of women's labor force involvement and society's response to that reality increasingly command our attention (Moen, 1994). According to Moen,

> What we see are more discontinuities than continuities in families, across the generations, and in personal experience and development. Men and women are

> not only living longer but they are also moving in and out of roles–in families, in the workplace, and in educational institutions–at an unprecedented rate. . . . We need new policies and practices more in keeping with these new realities of the American experience, borne of a new frame of reference that incorporates greater flexibilities in work and other roles throughout the life course. . . . Questions involving the human condition are both more perplexing and more critical to the nation's future than ever before (1994, p. 167).

Purpose of the Study

Articulating the mission of social scientists of the twenty-first century, much as Riley (1992) advocated changes in social structures to aid an aging population, Moen (1994) argued eloquently for the need to alter traditional institutional arrangements to accommodate new realities of work-family issues and their impact on both individual and family well-being. If family scientists advocate for policies and practices that provide flexibility for workers throughout the life course, it is imperative that we understand the developmental issues of working women throughout their adult years. What are the concerns and issues in women's work-family lives across the stages of adulthood? Do women in different stages of adult development differ in their motivations, attitudes, and perceptions of work and retirement? These broad questions provided the overarching purpose of this study.

Women's work and retirement opportunities and decisions are being shaped by the combined revolutions of longevity and gender. The trends toward an aging workforce and large numbers of women in the workforce show no signs of abating as we move forward into the new millennium. In fact, the aging of the baby boom cohort has been

predicted to slow, and perhaps reverse, previous trends toward early retirement and retirement at age 65 (Levine & Mitchell, in Rappaport & Schieber, 1993). Whether by personal choice or due to financial necessity, older workers report a preference for postponing retirement altogether or continuing to work with reduced hours (Coplon, 1997). This is perhaps even truer for women because they have historically been at greater risk of income insecurity (Coplon, 1997; Crystal, 1996; George, 1992; Shaw, 1983).

In addition to the impact of longevity and gender on financial security and retirement, the broader range of life-course patterns represented by women of diverse ages in the workforce presents new challenges and opportunities relating to role identity, work motivation, and employee benefits. Research is needed to aid in better understanding the combined influences of gender and aging on work in order to effect any meaningful social and economic agenda benefiting women themselves, their families, their employers, their communities, and society at large. A new perspective is needed, advocating what Marquie, Cau-Bareille, and Volkoff (1998) have referred to as the achievement of "'goodness of fit' between the jobs and aging population" (p. 347). Such a perspective must also consider gender if a true 'goodness of fit' is to be achieved. A perspective combining the longevity and gender revolutions has implications not only for companies rethinking their policies, work organization, and workplaces, but also for labor policy recommendations in employment benefits; for social security and retirement planning; for social science researchers in the areas of work-family issues and work-life extension (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990); for practitioners in retirement planning; and for family life education practitioners in family resource management education.

Rationale for the Study

Concerning the lens of gender, a large body of research has addressed issues relating to women, work, and family. Researchers in this area have segmented issues concerning women in varying stages of adulthood and the family life cycle. For example, the work-family research of Hochschild (1991), Barnett and Rivers (1996), and Coontz (1991) addressed issues of women in young- to middle-adulthood, typically in the child-raising stages of the family life cycle (Duvall, 1977; Carter & McGoldrick, 1989). Using data from the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience of Mature Women begun in 1967, Shaw (1986) and a team of researchers examined midlife women at work, including projections toward retirement for these women. Older working women are under-represented in gender-work research, although a recent study by Coplon (1997) examines single older women in the workforce, focusing on women ranging in age from 55 to over 70.

As to the research on aging and work, when longevity and the aging worker have been addressed in the past, the phrase aging at work has been "misused to refer to a stationary situation where nothing changes, where 'ageing' turns into an obstacle to be overcome" (Marquié, Cau-Bareille, & Volkoff, 1998, p. 347). Viewed from this deficit model, "thinking has been used in sociology and economics with ideas such as 'creating younger production structures,' 'early retirement,' and 'replacement' of older employees by younger ones" (Marquié, Cau-Bareille, & Volkoff, 1998, p. 347). However, "with the coming of the 'Age Wave,' several social forces are converging that will allow many people to continue working . . . throughout the later years of their lives" (Dychwald, 1989, p. 175). These social forces command a change in how we address aging at work.

Of these forces, population demographics are particularly salient. In the United States, the 76 million children born between 1945 and 1964 in the period known as the World War II baby boom have created an upward shift in the average age of the U.S. population and an aging workforce (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990). Germany, France, Sweden, and The Netherlands project that "from about the year 2010 onwards, close to 40 per cent of the population will be aged between 45 and 65" (Paoli, 1994, p. 5). Whether by choice or financial necessity, older adulthood is not always considered a period of disengagement from work. "Approximately 16% of males and 8% of females continue to work beyond the traditional retirement age of 65 years" (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990, p. 163). According to Paoli (1994), these trends are "leading an increasing number of companies to rethink their human resources policies, their training policies, their work organization and the design of workplaces" (1994, p. 5).

Still, the prevailing approaches have been to focus on either gender or age in the work-family literature, rarely considering the two together. A recent study by Dailey (1998) does address gender- and age-related work patterns, financial needs, and preparation for retirement. However, women in the baby boom cohort are Dailey's primary focus, with middle adulthood dominating the study. The purpose of the present study is to compare women in three age-based stages of adulthood. Specifically, is there a statistical difference in the responses of women in young, middle, and late-middle adulthood to questions related to work and retirement?

The present study examined the developmental issues of women across these three stages of adulthood, focusing on the sociodemographic characteristics, work attitudes, needs, concerns, and special issues confronting working women across

adulthood. For many of these women, family and work issues, combined with individual developmental differences associated with aging, present challenges. These challenges impact the individual and her family, employers and the workplace, social and economic issues, and policy decisions at the micro- and macro-levels of society. Yet current workforce policies and practices often fail to recognize or respond to the new realities of the gender and longevity revolutions (Moen, 1994). The present study will provide companies and institutions seeking to meet the challenges of the longevity and gender revolutions with a lifespan developmental "snapshot" of working women.

Theoretical Foundations

The theoretical assumptions of this research derive from developmental theory and symbolic interactionism. In addition, the feminist perspective, which is advocacy for social change, undergirds the purpose of the study.

Developmental Theory

A "repertoire of behavior represents the 'developmental process,' [and] we can think of 'development' as a progressive series of changes that occur in a predictable pattern as a result of an interaction between biological and environmental factors" (Salkind, 1981, pp. 1-2). Such an interaction was an assumption of Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory of development.

According to Erikson, "psychological development results from the interaction between maturational processes or biological needs and the societal demands and social forces encountered in everyday life" (Erikson, 1950, in Salkind, 1981, p. 108). He believed that, throughout the eight stages of psychological development he delineated, societal demands act as mediating and shaping forces (Salkind, 1981, p. 108). Along with

Margaret Mead, Ruth Benedict, Clyde Kluckhohn, & Eric Fromm, Erikson was a leader in the emerging anthropological subdiscipline of culture and personality (Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz, 1993, p. 508). "They worked to connect symbolic aspects of culture to intrapsychic processes through the study of family life and child rearing" (Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz, 1993, p. 508).

Such interactions of women's psychological development, maturational processes, biological changes and needs associated with the individual and family life cycle processes, societal demands, and social forces in the workplace are integral to understanding work-family dynamics. Also, as the first true life span developmental theory (Salkind, 1981), Erikson's psychosocial theory of development provides a theoretical framework for this study of working women representing three age cohorts. In keeping with Erikson's concept of examining the social pressures and forces experienced in life to derive a "psychohistory" to relate past experiences to present behavior (Salkind, 1981), this study seeks to understand motivational factors, behavioral outcomes, and future needs of working women. Though used in a gendered perspective in the present study, Erikson's theory focused more on men's development than on women's. Gilligan posed the feminist critique:

> But about whom is Erikson talking? Once again it turns out to be the male child. [The female adolescent] holds her identity in abeyance as she prepares to attract the man by whose name she will be defined, the man who will rescue her from emptiness and loneliness by filling the "inner space." . . . While for men, identity precedes intimacy and generativity in the optimal cycle of human separation and attachment, for women these tasks seem instead to be fused. Intimacy goes along

with the identity, as the female comes to know herself as she is known, through her relationships with others (1982, p. 12).

Thus, although he did not consider gender difference, in this study Erikson's theory is considered from the perspective of women's adult development. Also fundamental to this research is the work of later theorists whose life course perspectives built on Erikson's psychosocial theory of development. A life span orientation is applied to issues involved in the areas of work and retirement.

Symbolic Interactionism

With its focus on socialization (how humans acquire the values, norms, and attitudes of their social unit) and the organization of behavior patterns (Stryker, 1959), the symbolic interaction theoretical framework is particularly useful in understanding adults as individuals and in the work-family interactional contexts that make up their relationships. The theory's assumption of identities referring to self-meanings in a role (Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz, 1993, p.144), and "the connection between symbols (i.e., shared meanings) and interactions" (Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz, 1993, p. 135), provide a context for this study of women and work.

The concept of role is one of the most basic concepts in symbolic interactionism (Klein & White, 1996). Salient dimensions of roles include the expectations of the actor and others about the performance of the role, as well as the clarity of the role expectations (Klein & White, 1996). In considering role expectations, symbolic interactionists look at the potential for role strain, role conflict, and role overload. This study asks women to identify roles that are salient to their identity. And while role strain,

conflict, and overload are not focal points of this research, they are inherent in women's work-family issues. However, the extent to which women combining work and family is viewed as a normative expectation by working women, and the social structures of their work impact on their self-reported career motivations and demands.

For example, dual-career families, working mothers, and women's identification with multiple roles have become normative expectations (Barnett & Rivers, 1996; Coontz, 1997) in today's economy. Thus, "the more [women] perceive consensus in the expectations about [the roles] they occupy, the less their role strain" (Burr, Leigh, Day, & Constantine, 1979, p. 79). For this reason, the role accumulation hypothesis of Sieber (1974) and the role expansion hypothesis of Marks (1977) may be more relevant to the professional women in this study than role strain, conflict, or overload. With this assumption, and using the lens of symbolic interactionism, the present study examined the multiple role identifications of working women, their occupational commitment, motivations to work, and needs for role-generated employee benefits.

Feminist Theoretical Perspective

"Ideology predisposes scholars to see certain things in certain ways" (Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz, 1993, p. 642), making it incumbent on researchers to acknowledge the ideological perspective underlying their work. As a contribution to social science with a purpose of advocating changes in social structures and traditional institutional arrangements to accommodate new realities of work-family issues from a life course perspective, the present study is rooted in the feminist theoretical perspective and ideology.

The feminist perspective is concerned with social and political action; the agenda includes not only knowing about the world, but also changing it (Boss et al., 1993). "Given the way in which theory and practice are interwoven by feminists, it should be no surprise that feminist theorizing has contributed to political action aimed at making major changes in social policies affecting families" (Goldner, 1993, p. 623). Nonetheless, although feminism "has made central a cultural and political analysis and critique of gender, . . . [it] has been rightly wary of universalizing claims about gender and of accounts that seem to reduce gender to a single defining or characterizing feature" (Chodorow, 1999, p. 70). In the present study, the same may be said for age.

Although age and gender provide the organizing constructs for structural changes in work and labor policy, the advocacy response includes addressing oppressive and outmoded constraints on all workers—young, old, male, female. "Feminism recognizes differences, but it defines them politically rather than individually, in terms of political-social identities like race, class, and sexual orientation" (Chodorow, 1999, p. 70). Though driven by changes in women's roles and economic opportunities, family-friendly workplace initiatives provide needed balance between work and family for individuals and business organizations alike (Friedman, 1991; Galinsky & Stein, 1990; Levine & Pittinsky, 1997). Exploring developmental differences in adulthood helps in defining them politically and translating them into social change that empowers both work-family and work-life extension (extended time in the workforce and delayed retirement by choice) agendas.

Research Objectives

To address the research question, "Do women in different stages of adult development differ in their motivations, attitudes, and perceptions of work and retirement?", the following research objectives guided this research.

Research objective 1a: To examine whether the value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities related to their work, family, community, and self vary according to their age group.

Research objective 1b: To examine whether the roles by which women conceptualize themselves vary among women in different stages of adulthood.

Research objective 2: To identify working women's attitudes toward their work (e.g., their motivations to work, what they value in work) and to test whether these attitudes are dependent on their age group.

Research objective 3: To examine whether the importance placed on selected employee benefits depends on a working woman's age group. Selected employee benefits included health insurance, retirement plan or pension, flexible and part-time work hours, family caregiving and elder care, and disability coverage.

Research objective 4: To examine whether the responses of working women to questions regarding potential "job-lock," entrepreneurial inclinations, early retirement, or job security are dependent on their age group.

Research objective 5: To examine whether the perceptions and responses of working women to the concept of retirement, financial planning for retirement, and their financial preparedness for retirement are dependent on their age group.

Nominal Definitions

Work-family refers to a broad area of research stemming from the classic 1969, Rapoport and Rapoport study of dual-career families. Prior to this study, the focus had been primarily on "maternal employment." The Rapoports' study shifted the emphasis of looking at mothers that work to looking at the impact of balancing work-family demands of adults in the family (P. W. Blanton, personal communication, May 21, 2001).

Work-life extension is a term referring to "increasing the labor force participation rate of older adults through delayed retirement or labor force reentry by retirees" (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990, p. 164). It stems from the new field of industrial gerontology, which is the study of aging and work (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990). Aging at work refers to the trend of an aging population "affecting the work-force and leading companies to rethink their human resources policies, their training policies, their work organization and the design of workplaces" (Paoli, 1994, p. 6).

In this study, age groups are defined based on Neugarten's (1974) definition of individuals aged 55 to 74 as the *young-old*. The young-old, she asserts, are like late middle-aged persons who generally have good health and remain active if they choose (Neugarten, 1974). Moody (2000) further refines this idea, stating that "people of the same chronological age may differ dramatically in their functional age" (p. 327), which can be measured by biomarkers. Biomarkers are physiological or functional processes that can identify features of the process of aging (Anstey, Lord, & Smith, 1996; Moody, 2000; Shock, 1962; Shock, Greulich, Cosa, Andres, Lakata, Arenberg, & Tobin, 1984). Applying the concepts of Neugarten's *young-old*, functional age, and biomarkers, this

study includes working women ages 55 through 74 in a category designated "late middle-age."

Sociodemographic characteristics include both population demographic measures (sex, age, marital and family status) and indicators of socioeconomic status, which include composite measures of rank such as education, income, number of hours worked per week, and occupational prestige (Vogt, 1993, p. 214; Heath, 1982).

Occupational commitment is defined as "the degree to which a person considers paid employment outside the home as a central life interest" (Heath, 1982). Motivation to work encompasses the extent to which a woman derives identity and self-esteem from work, work as a source of social support, and work as a source of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Financial planning and retirement planning are used interchangeably here to refer to comprehensive planning through a prudent and coordinated set of recommendations that are consistent with an individual's needs, goals, attitudes, and resources. In its professional sense, this is defined as a relationship between a client and counselor based upon trust and a mutually defined understanding of a scope of services to be offered (College for Financial Planning, 1998). In this study, questions about being "committed to a financial plan" and seeking "professional advice" were open to the interpretation of each participant in answering the questionnaire.

In its simplest sense, retirement refers to cessation of labor force participation and has typically been assumed to occur in later adulthood (Vitt & Siegenthaler, Eds., 1996, p. 432). An early retirement package may refer to any Early Retirement Incentive Program (ERIP), a plan that extends incentives to workers through pensions and other

employee benefits to offer workers "an opportunity of limited duration to leave the company with higher benefits than would normally be available" (Hewitt Associates, 1986, as referenced in Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 145).

A role is defined as "the normative expectations attached to a specific position in a social structure. . . . The more clearly defined these are to any person, . . . the easier it is for that person to perform the role in a socially acceptable way" (Klein & White, 1996, p. 99). Role identification is used here to refer to the roles women identify as important in their lives, and the time commitment they allocate to different roles.

A role accumulation perspective assumes that the benefits derived from multiple roles provide a counterbalance to the stressful aspects. These benefits include status enhancement, status security, role privileges, and sources of ego gratification (Sieber, 1974). Role enhancement is similar in its assumption that expanded roles do not result in role strain; however, the extent to which the individual feels committed to each role determines the level of energy, time, and commitment they bring to the role (Marks, 1977). Role strain is "the felt difficulty in fulfilling role obligations" (Goode, 1960, p. 483). Goode (1960) asserted that role strain is normal when one is faced with "role sets," or several role relationships with different individuals; however, "in general, the individual's total role obligations are overwhelming" (Goode, 1960, p. 485) when a person has insufficient resources to manage a role or multiple roles (Klein & White, 1996, p. 97).

In a similar fashion, role conflict occurs when the conflicting demands of multiple roles contradict the expectations on one another (Klein & White, 1996, p. 97). Role overload occurs when the demands of one's roles are greater than the individual can

adequately, or comfortably, manage. Examples of these concepts of roles may be found in the multiple roles required of individuals in the sandwich generation.

The sandwich generation is defined as "those persons in the middle age category who are caught with competing responsibilities for dependent parents and dependent children" (Riekse & Holstege, 1996, p. 507). Caregiving is defined as "providing financial, instrumental, emotional, and other types of long-term support for elder parents, spouses, or friends who become chronically ill or disabled" (Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 65).

Employee benefits are defined as non-monetary compensation provided by an employer to an employee. These benefits may be mandated or discretionary, with eligibility defined according to each employer's schedule of benefits. Employee benefits may include, but are not limited to: health, disability, long-term care, and life insurance; paid leave; flexible work schedules (flex-time) or adjusted hours (less than full time, with benefits); a range of employer-sponsored pension and retirement plans; stock options; deferred compensation; and any company-sponsored or supported perquisites such as child day care, elder care, or other family-friendly policies.

Job-lock refers to an employee's need to remain with a current employer because they fear losing health coverage (Cooper & Monheit, 1993). Specifically, job-lock refers to "the reduction in job mobility due to the non-portability of employer-provided health insurance (Kapur, 1998).

The word downsizing was originally coined by the automobile industry in the early 1970s to refer to the shrinking of car size (The New York Times, 1996). This same decade ushered in a trend of organizational transitions in American business, giving rise

to "euphemistic layoff-speak . . . to cauterize the emotional damage of [employee] dismissals" (The New York Times, 1996, p. 11). In 1982, the term downsizing was adopted from the automobile industry and applied to humans, appearing in the college edition of the American Heritage Dictionary (The New York Times, 1996, p. 11) to refer to a reduction in force or numbers, as in lay-offs. Whereas lay-offs had traditionally referred to a temporary interruption in one's job, followed by resumption of work when business rebounded, the new terms for lay-offs referred to permanent termination from one's job. As the organizational transition trend continued into the 1990s, other terms proliferated. Companies were said to undergo consolidation, leaning-up, workforce imbalance correction, reductions-in-force (RIFs), re-engineering, re-organization, right sizing, or streamlining. Their employees were involuntarily separated, transitioned, de-hired, de-recruited, de-selected, displaced, severed, unassigned, rightsized, and downsized (Cameron, 1994; Collins, 2000; Gniatczyk, 2000; The New York Times, 1996). Cappelli (1995) further defined downsizing as "reductions in employment that are not accompanied by a reduction in output" (p. 577). In this study, the term is used to refer to any termination of employment without cause, irrespective of whether the job loss was due to internal corporate processes or the sale, merger, or demise of the business.

The term financial preparedness is most typically associated with governmental public policy reporting on the status of banking, financial services, and technology readiness to meet projected demand (United States Congress, Senate, Committee on Banking Services, 2000). Here, financial preparedness has been adapted to refer to a woman's self-projected financial well-being for meeting retirement goals and financial needs.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The predominant view of the life course has been limited to emphases on childhood, adolescence, and old age. "Historically, the great psychologists in this field, such as Freud and Piaget, conceived of development as the process by which we become adult—which means that it stops with the cessation of adolescence" (Levinson, 1996, p. 14). From the 1930s to the 1950s, gerontology emerged; however, until recently, gerontological researchers have focused primarily on late adulthood and senescence. More recently, there has been greater emphasis on heterogeneity in aging (Maddox, 1987), including heightened awareness of middle-age and the young-old (Neugarten, 1974), and asynchronization over the life course (Ferraro, 1990).

Life Stage Development

The twentieth century saw an expansion of scholarly work on the life course to include aspects of adulthood. For example, psychologist Carl Jung addressed personality development beyond childhood and adolescence, describing the changes and emergence of symbols and archetypes from childhood into adulthood, and the need for an "inner transcendence of old values" (Jung, 1964, p.151) in old age. Calling age 40 the "noon of life," Jung differentiated the first and second halves of life (Levinson, 1978). "The idea of a Mid-life Transition was given its first modern formulation by C. G. Jung. . . . [He] was the first to recognize that individuation occurs, and is sorely needed, at mid-life and beyond" (Levinson, 1978, p. 32-33).

Anthropologist Arnold Van Gennep (1960) described age-related transitions and rites-of-passage over the life course. According to Van Gennep, "the life of an individual in any society is a series of passages from one age to another and from one occupation to another" (Van Gennep, 1960, as referenced in Harris, 1990, p. 63). Ortega y Gasset's (1958) description of five generations—childhood (birth to age 15), youth (age 15 to 30), initiation (age 30 to 45), dominant (age 45 to 60), and old age (age 60 and older)—also illustrates the passages through the life course typified by stage development theories. Robert Havighurst's (1953) concept of developmental tasks in early, middle, and later adulthood further contributed to our understanding of stage development, influencing the work of Levinson and other life-span developmental theorists. But the work of Erik Erikson may be credited as the foundational work for developmental theories of adulthood throughout the twentieth and into the twenty-first century.

The New York Times obituary of Erik Erikson credited him as being "a thinker whose ideas had effects far beyond psychoanalysis, shaping the emerging fields of child development and life-span studies and reaching into the humanities" (The New York Times, May 13, 1994). His revolutionary psychosocial theory of human development gave us a useful framework for examining the human life cycle. He was truly a pioneer in addressing adult development. However, in his "eight ages of man" (Erikson, 1950), adulthood is represented in only three critical periods—less than half of the given stages—even though it represented some two-thirds or more of the lifespan for most people.

Another limitation of Erikson's work stems from his failure to address the effects of gender. Even though he worked to refine his theory well into his eighties (Erikson,

Erikson, & Kivnick, 1986), Erikson never expanded his developmental theory to account for gender differences in development across the life course. As late as 1997, Joan M. Erikson worked to expand her late husband's work in an extended version of his 1982 work, The Life Cycle Completed (Erikson, 1997) by proposing a ninth stage of development, "gerotranscendence," but there was still no inclusion of gender-based changes. A description of the gender bias in Erikson's theory is offered by Carol Gilligan (1982).

In spite of these limitations of Erikson's psychosocial theory, his scholarship continues to contribute to our understanding of human development. It has provided a foundation for the work of subsequent theorists in exploring adult development and, increasingly, gender differences across the lifespan. Since Erikson first promulgated his theory of psychosocial development, researchers have expanded his work to include gender differences in the processes of human maturation (Gilligan, 1982; Helson, 1992; Friedan, 1993; Sheehy, 1995; Levinson, 1996). Further, with increasing longevity and expanded quality of life in later years, issues of development in adulthood have become an increasingly significant area of inquiry.

Women and Adult Development

In Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind, Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) describe the power of the woman's voice in expanding our conceptions of human development:

> When the woman's voice is included in the study of human development, women's lives and qualities are revealed and we can observe the unfolding of these qualities in the lives of men as well. . . . When scientific findings, scientific

theory, and even the basic assumptions of academic disciplines are reexamined through the lens of women's perspectives and values, new conclusions can be drawn and new directions forged that have implications for the lives of both men and women. (pp. 8-9)

This lens of women's perspectives and values is critical to the purpose of this study—to accommodate new realities of work-family issues and to advocate for policies and practices that provide flexibility for workers throughout the life course. By including the power of the woman's voice in conceptions of adult development, work and family policy recommendations can be crafted to "balance the new work-family equation" (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997) that includes men and women.

Women's Development

In response to requests to describe themselves, women tend to describe a relationship, depicting their identity in terms of relationships and connections to others (Belenky et. al., 1986; Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1976). While women define their identity through relationships of intimacy and care, men's descriptions of self are tied to individual achievements (Gilligan, 1982). "Thus the male 'I' is defined in separation" (Gilligan, 1982, p. 161) while a woman's is defined in attachment.

A number of scholars have included this notion of a relational context in women's adult development. For example, although Miller (1991) studied infants and young children, she contributed to research in women's relational interactions that extended to women's adult development issues. Gilligan (1982), in her critique of psychological theory and women's development, provided a view of the female personality incorporating women's motives, moral commitments, the course of their psychological

growth, and their special view of what is important in life. The longitudinal studies of women's personality development conducted by Helson (1992) over four decades are also seminal works in women's adult development. Helson's focus was on women's self-concept and identity. Another work relating to women's identity is Marcia's (1966; 1980) identity status work, relating timing of critical periods in adolescence to diffused or foreclosed identity. Whereas Erikson viewed the presence or absence of crisis and commitment as crucial to identity formation, Marcia defined crisis as a period of conscious decision-making (occupational commitment), and commitment to a personal ideology (ideological commitment) (Marcia, 1966).

Perhaps most influential in gender-specific adult development research is the work of Daniel Levinson. Levinson's findings support the concept of the life cycle as an overlapping sequence of eras (childhood, early adulthood, middle adulthood, late adulthood, and late-late adulthood). In setting forth his views of the life course and the life cycle, he examined "the nature of a person's life at a particular time and the course of that life over the years" (Levinson, 1996, p. 22), using the analogy of seasons.

Levinson was originally criticized for his exclusion of women in his sample for Seasons of a Man's Life (1978). However, in The Seasons of a Woman's Life (1996), he addressed women's developmental transitions across the life cycle, attuned to the significance of gender in women's lives. In this work, Levinson studied the life course and development of women from the late teens to the mid-forties. He utilized a gendered perspective as a framework for understanding how women and men differ in life circumstances, life course, and passages through developmental periods. His findings supported the view that "women are similar to men in certain basic respects and different

in others" (Levinson, 1996, p. 4). He found the same age-graded basis for understanding transitions in adulthood for women as he had found earlier in his study of men and adult development.

Levinson's central concept of gender splitting—a rigid division between female and male, feminine and masculine—describes a sharp division between femininity and masculinity that permeates every aspect of human life. Included in gender splitting are the concepts of: distinction between masculine and feminine in the culture and the individual psyche; the division between the domestic world and the public occupational world; the traditional marital and family enterprise; and the linkage between men and authority that has traditionally granted men positions of leadership and dominance. Based on interviews with forty-five women (full-time homemakers, academics, and corporate managers), Levinson described how the concepts of development, gender, and gender-splitting are reflected in the lives of individual women.

The primary focus of Levinson's study of women was on the era of early-to-middle adulthood, beginning with the Early Adult Transition (occurring between the ages of 17 and 22) and extending through the Entry Life Structure (ages 22-28); the Age 30 Transition (ages 28-33); the Culminating Life Structure (ages 33-40); and the Mid-life Transition (ages 40-45). Women studied by Levinson were in their thirties and forties. This sampling frame excluded the increasing numbers of women whose development, creativity, and work lives extend beyond 45—not only into their fifties, but into the sixties and beyond. Work by Sheehy (1995) did include, however, women in their fifties. In her 1974 work, Passages, Sheehy identified what she termed "predictable crises of adult life" (Sheehy, 1974). Describing the passages of separation from parents, life

commitments in the thirties, and losses and changes in the forties, Sheehy looked at men's and women's patterns through three decades of adulthood. Still, her work stopped short of addressing the development that continues in the fifth decade of life and beyond. In 1995, she expanded this earlier work, expanding the study of adulthood beyond the forties into "second adulthood," which includes the fifties, and sixties. She explores the creativity, wisdom, integrity, and vitality increasingly available into "second middle age" (Manheimer, 1995) and beyond.

Like Sheehy, feminist theorist Betty Friedan expands our understanding of development beyond middle age. In her catalytic work for the women's movement, The Feminine Mystique, Friedan (1963) altered the way many of today's middle-aged women viewed their roles. She gave women new words, new gestures, and new symbols that served to redefine their interactions with one another, and changed how we define the nature of families. Thirty years later, an equally transcendent work, The Fountain of Age (Friedan, 1993), sought to change the way both women and men think about themselves as they grow older, and the way society views aging. Friedan argued for the extension of Erikson's stage of "generativity" beyond middle adulthood into later adulthood. Citing the capacity for a new wholeness, Friedan said, "It's as if we need to break out of the very rubrics of our previous thinking about both love and work. ... It's as if, both personally and politically, we have to move beyond concepts of love hinged to the childhood fantasies, traumas, and sexual obsessions of which we have seemed to be helpless victims, beyond the endless wrestling with that passive sexual victimhood for women, beyond that brutal machismo so bruising to men, beyond concepts of work based

on the industrial technology of society's youth, to a new wholeness of approach" (1993, p. 613).

When interviewed at the age of 92, Joan Erikson echoed the sentiments of Friedan regarding changing the way age is conceptualized (Davidson & Davidson, 1995). From the vantage point of her nineties, she describes both opportunities and problems associated with old age. She reflects on new perspectives she and her husband and colleague, Erik Erikson, might have included in their theoretical perspectives on human development had they possessed the wisdom gained from living through the entire life span. She notes that a collaborative work, Vital Involvement in Old Age: The Experience of Old Age in our Time (Erikson, Erikson, & Kivnik, 1986), included some of this reevaluation. This final work of Erik Erikson's life, written while he was in his nineties, expanded the psychosocial view of adult development to consider vital involvement during old age. Moving beyond the earlier characterization of late adulthood as a psychosocial issue of "integrity versus despair," the life history is revisited. The role of elders in society is expanded to include continued productivity and redefining retirement; freedom, autonomy, and responsibility; lifelong learning and creativity; grandparenting and vital involvement.

Much as Erik Erikson ushered in a view of the life course in the twentieth century that extended beyond childhood and adolescence, his concluding work of that century challenged scholars to expand their understanding of the vital years of all aspects of adulthood. With increasing longevity, we must consider not only adult developmental needs, but also how those needs are impacted by extended time in the workforce. Since

women represent a majority of the workforce, the needs of women, work, and family must be further examined.

Women, Work and Family

Women's lives are embedded in both a family context (Lopata, 1987) and, increasingly, a work context (Blau & Ehrenberg, 1997). The expansion of work-family research over the past forty years reflects the importance of examining issues within these two contexts. Until the sixties, the focus of work-family research had been on "maternal employment." In 1969, Rapoport and Rapoport introduced the concept of "dual-career marriages." The Rapoports' study shifted the emphasis of looking at mothers' who work to looking at the impact of balancing work-family demands of adults in the family (P. W. Blanton, personal communication, May 21, 2001). This classic study ushered in the current era of work-family research.

First appearing in the Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) study of couples from the Tavistock Institute in London, England, the term dual-career families passed into general usage by 1975 (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976). The term was "coined to designate a type of family structure in which both heads of household—the husband and wife—pursue active careers and family lives. 'Career' is sometimes used to indicate any sequence of jobs, but in its more precise meaning it designates those types of job sequences that require a high degree of commitment and that have a continuous developmental character" (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976, p. 9).

The focus of inquiry in the 1970s turned to gender differences in well-being among the married. In 1972, Jessie Bernard published a book in which she examined the relationship between sex (female or male), marital status (never married, married,

widowed, or divorced), and a number of measures of well-being" (Steil, 1997). Measuring subjective well-being and symptoms of psychological distress, she coined the notion of "his and her marriages," stating that there were two marriages in every marital union (Bernard, 1982, p. 14). Comparing married men with married women, never-married men with never-married women, and the married with the never-married, she concluded that his marriage was better than her marriage (Bernard, 1972). Although she found marriage to be better for men, she found evidence that marriage had beneficial effects for both men and women.

"Bernard explained the well-being differences among the married in terms of the structural strains that the institution of marriage imposes on wives, particularly housewives. She offered a social roles explanation that focused particularly on the psychological costs of housewifery and the lack of outside sources of gratification when women are unemployed" (Steil, 1997, p. 3). Updating the work of Bernard for the 1990s, Steil noted,

> In the years since the publication of Bernard's book, American families have undergone a quiet revolution. The most significant change has been the rapid influx of wives and mothers into the paid labor force. As a result, wives' roles have expanded dramatically. Yet husbands' roles have not. Women continue to perform a disproportionate amount of the emotion work of relationships, child care, and the work of the home, while simultaneously assuming the responsibilities of paid employment. Yet so long as women feel their labors are appreciated, the majority do not seem to feel aggrieved. Thus, change has been difficult to achieve, and inequality persists. (1997, p. 111)

Twenty years after Bernard found married women's well-being to be less than married men's due to a lack of outside sources of gratification when unemployed, Steil (1997) presented a scenario of role overload without accompanying attitudinal or behavioral changes to alleviate inequality. While entrance into the world of paid labor and increased opportunities for professional and community activities have broadened women's options beyond daughter, wife, and mother to include expanded role identities, the multiple roles associated with marriage, family, and work can lead to role strain (Goode, 1960) and role conflict (Klein & White, 1996).

Certainly, women's roles have never been monolithic. However, in the years since Rapoport and Rapoport introduced the concept of dual-career marriages, and Bernard described his and her marriages, women's roles and commitments have burgeoned. While this provided greater opportunities, it also ushered in new challenges and concerns. Friedan (1997) cited the need to address the multiple issues relating to women, work, and family.

In The Second Stage (1981), Friedan provided an update on the "sex role revolution," challenging women as to how to fulfill new roles while continuing to be themselves. "The new frontier where the issues of the second stage will be joined is, I believe, the family," she says (Friedan, 1981, p. 83). Then in 1997, this voice for women in the twentieth century issued a call to action in Beyond Gender (Friedan, 1997), seeking a new paradigm embracing work, family, and community. But in the midst of the evolution, or revolution, what demands and conflict do women face as they attempt to juggle expanded identities?

As women have tried to manage the multiple roles associated with work and family, research has been generated to consider the costs and benefits of trying to "have it all" (Crosby, 1987; Stevenson, 1994; Lemme, 1999). Voydanoff (1987) has contributed to research focused on the multiple role characteristics of the worker-earner role, the work-role and family life, and individual work-family coordination. Voydanoff's edited work, Work and Family (1984) provides examples of work by such renowned scholars as Jessie Bernard and Rosabeth Moss Kanter examining the phenomenon of work-family roles, social interaction in family and work institutions, and the interplay between our roles and ourselves. Women's increased participation in the labor force has not been accompanied by a concurrent decrease in their participation in the family. Indeed, Hochschild has exposed not only a "second shift" of work at home following the first shift at work (Hochschild, 1990), but a "third shift" of repairing the damage created by the first two (Hochschild, 1997). To a far greater extent than their male counterparts, women have struggled with changing roles related to the work-family life cycle demands and transitions and their own adult development.

Retirement also creates new demands and transitions for women. Szinovacz has examined issues relating to work-family concerns pertaining to women's retirement and financial preparedness (1977, 1980, 1987). In a recent study, Szinovacz examined the marital dyad and retirement, exploring changes in housework after retirement. She concluded that the impact of changes in paid labor on housework allocation is contingent on the other non-retired spouse's employment status, gender role attitudes, and marital dependence (2000). An earlier study examined the effect of couples' employment and retirement patterns on marital quality. Couples with traditional gender-role attitudes

experienced lower marital quality in a husband retired/wife employed pattern, whereas employed husbands with retired wives reported greater marital quality than did husbands in dual-earner couples. However, dual-retired spouses obtained lower scores on marital happiness than did spouses in dual-earner couples (Szinovacz, 1996).

Szinovacz also incorporated variables of gender and race in her work. One such study explored differences in "retiree identity" based on gender and race (1999). She concluded that labor force participation is the primary basis for retiree identity; however, men's retirement identity is more closely tied to work career criteria, while a variety of life circumstances impinge on women's retirement identities. Her findings also indicate a need for future research to include the meaning context of retirement among divergent population groups.

Szinovacz, DeViney, and Adam (2001) examined variations in the influence of gender, race, and marital status on family obligations and retirement. They found that family financial obligations (support to children outside the household, resident children or kin) and kin salience delayed retirement among both White and African-American women, as did a lack of family ties (non-married, childfree men). They concluded that family obligations and relationships played an important role in retirement decision-making; further, that models of retirement processes should include the interdependence of work and family spheres, with consideration of the diversity of retirement processes among various population groups.

The history of work-family research has shown us many facets of women's roles, dual-earner marriages and redefined family styles, women's roles, and concerns that overlap both work and family contexts. Much of this research has presented a negative

image of the stresses and demands on women trying to "have it all." For example, in a study of the mediating effects of job and family role conditions on gender differences in psychological distress, Hughes and Galinsky (1994) found that women in dual-earner families reported less job enrichment, less extended time at work, more household and childcare inequity, and more childcare difficulties than did men.

Amidst a plethora of negative images and findings in the past relating to working women, more recent research supports the positive impacts of women's work on individual development and the well-being of the family. For example, Barnett and Rivers (1996) and Coontz (1997) both found lower rates of depression and enhanced well-being among working women. Barnett and Rivers' (1996) study of dual-earner couples debunked myths of the sad state of affairs for working women, attributing them to "the new nostalgia" (1996, pp. 9-23) for the idealized family of the 1950s, a nostalgia that creates guilt for working parents and obstacles to family-friendly corporate and government policies. According to Barnett and Rivers,

> Because of the shake-up in gender roles, many good things are happening. Women are no longer kept at the margins of society's economic life; as a result, their health and well-being are improving. ...We may not see the high incidence of tension between mothers and daughters, as daughters no longer feel they have to reject their mothers' lives to take their own work seriously. Daughters' lives will be more like their mothers. ...Relations between the sexes will become more harmonious as men's and women's lives become more alike, [and as] collaborative couples manage to juggle their busy lives, often with good humor and mutual respect. (p. 241)

Along with this emerging focus on the laudable aspects of a gender role shake-up, a common theme in the literature on women, work, and family is that women working outside the home, managing multiple roles and priorities, is a trend that will not abate. Whether motivated by economic necessity, personal fulfillment, or both, the numbers of women in the labor force will continue to impact—and be impacted by—an outdated status quo. "Today's corporate culture still assumes that there is a full-time homemaker in the picture. We have to jettison that assumption. ...We have to examine a whole range of new ideas. ..." (Barnett & Rivers, 1996, p. 239). We have to reconsider workforce issues through multiple lenses—gender, aging, and, although not the focus of the present study, race and diversity.

Workforce Issues, Gender and Aging

Economic distress tied to the worker-earner role has been associated with decreased family life satisfaction (Voydanoff, Donnelly, & Fine, 1988). Conversely, organizational policy changes (e.g., flexible scheduling, greater job security, pension reform, improved fringe benefits) have been shown to have a positive impact on workers' job enrichment, job satisfaction, and economic well-being (Schultz, 1995). It must be acknowledged, however, that without structural and organizational change (supportive workplaces, supportive supervisors, supportive workplace cultures, and opportunities for autonomy and advancement), fringe benefits intended to be family-friendly were not associated with lower levels of work-family conflict (Galinsky, Bond, & Friedman, 1996).

In the paradigm of work-family scholars, financial gerontologists and researchers in aging have also explored structural changes in employment that have had an impact on

workers, especially women (Genovese, 1997; Cutler, Gregg, & Lawton, 1992). A broad spectrum of workforce issues related to aging has implications for women. In the present study, these issues have been grouped into four areas: role identity; occupational commitment and work motivation; employee benefits; and retirement and financial preparedness. They are presented in terms of implications for women related to the life course and aging.

Role Identity

In general, identity is a person's image of who they are and where they are going. A role consists of "the normative expectations attached to a specific position in a social structure" (Klein & White, 1996). As used in the present study, role identity consists of the roles women choose by which to identify themselves, and the extent to which each role is viewed as important or salient. A number of studies have examined the influence of role salience in work and family.

Aryee (1999) studied the relationship between role salience among breadwinners and pay-life satisfaction (economic satisfaction related to life satisfaction). His inquiry was based on "the recognition of work and family as the backbone of human existence . . . [and] a definition of subjective well-being or life satisfaction as the degree to which individuals judge the overall quality of their lives favorably" (Aryee, 1999, p. 1279). According to Aryee, "in the work domain, research interest has recently focused on the economic instrumentality of work" (1999, p. 1279). However, the spillover perspective that models interactions between work and non-work domains (i.e., family) as providing a framework for demonstrating the economic meaning of work is also important. He found a moderating influence of the individual difference of breadwinner

role salience on pay-life satisfaction. Pay satisfaction was positively related to life satisfaction, reflecting the fact that in Aryee's primarily Chinese society, economic gain is pursued not so much at the individual level but at the familial level (Aryee, 1999). Aryee's findings included no gender differences, a fact that he attributed to the growing economic role assumed by women in the different family forms in Hong Kong.

In another career salience study, Luchetta (1995) examined parental and work role salience to test a model of psychological distress and physical complaints among working mothers experiencing chronic stressors. Matching stress variables to role salience variables, she found that parental role commitment and occupational role value significantly interacted with corresponding role-related stressors in predicting health outcomes.

In a groundbreaking study at a large, "family-friendly" corporation in the United States, Hochschild (1997) identified a startling emergence in the role identities of working women: work had become home, and home had become work. "One reason some workers may feel more 'at home' at work is that they feel more appreciated and more competent there. . . . Surprisingly, women were not more likely than men to say they felt more appreciated at home" (Hochschild, 1997, p. 200). Work provided a refuge from the many demands they faced in the multi-faceted roles these workers assumed at home. Based on previous research, it was known that men found a haven at work. Hochschild found that women were doing the same. "Women fear losing their places at work, and having such a place has become a source of security, pride, and a powerful sense of being valued" (Hochschild, 1997, p. 247).

Combining life stage theories and work-family interfaces, Yuen (1995) explored the effects of career salience and life-cycle variables on role salience. Gender differences were observed in the findings of this study, and career salience interacted with life-cycle variables differently in the career orientation perceptions of women and men. Based on these findings, she cited a need to consider the interactive effects between career salience and life cycle variables in understanding patterns of work-family interface among women and men.

Contradictory findings emerged in a study of dual-career couples in India. Rajadhyaksha and Bhatnagar (2000) found only partial support for the propositions of adult development theories. "The expected reversal of salience attached to work and family roles at mid-life, between men and women, was not evident" (Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000, p. 489). They suggested that this might be attributed to continuing parental obligations of Indian women well into late adulthood, with the responsibility and care of the elderly falling almost exclusively on women. Their recommendations for future research included "further refinements of our understanding of the career development of women through greater empirical research spread across a wider set of cultural contexts.

While these studies featured in-depth exploration of role salience and work-family interface (Aryee, 1999), role identity is only one variable of the present study, considered primarily from a descriptive perspective. Specifically, what roles do women choose when describing themselves, and how important are these roles to their identities?

Occupational Commitment and Work Motivation

A second variable explored in the present study was the occupational commitment and work motivation of working women. In particular, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were explored.

Occupational commitment does not stem solely from the level of earnings; work motivation includes both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Bewley & Taylor, 1999). The work of Katz and Kahn (1978) and Etzioni (1975) pointed to three sources of motivation: intrinsic process motivation, motivation based on goal internalization, and extrinsic (or instrumental) motivation. Intrinsic process motivation includes motivation that comes from the enjoyment of tasks and work itself, whereas extrinsic motivation would include outcomes such as pay or promotions. Motivation based on goal internalization is based on attitudes and behaviors derived from internalized values, such as a strong work ethic (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Frey's (1997) theory of personal motivation states that human motivation is broader than the extrinsic rewards of money and external incentives postulated in conventional economic theory. Motivational agendas in the workplace also involve the feelings and moods of workers (George & Brief, 1996; Bewley & Taylor, 1999), a factor that has definite implications in combining work and family demands. Job attitudes affect performance, employee turnover, mental health, interpersonal relations (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman (1956; 1993).

Individuals are motivated by intrinsic processes of motivation "when they perform a behavior just because it is 'fun.' In other words, the motivation comes from the work itself" (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999). With women increasingly finding enhanced self-concepts and satisfaction through their work (Barnett & Rivers, 1996;

Hochschild, 1997), these intrinsic processes of motivation warrant further scholarly inquiry.

Self-concept based sources of motivation and social identities are particularly energizing (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999). Work is an important source of social relations and self-actualization. For example, one of the negative impacts of job layoffs most frequently cited by workers is the loss of the pleasure of working and of social contacts on the job (Bewley & Taylor, 1999). Studies have also shown that unemployment is a major risk factor for depression in women (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

In the work motivation literature, Stryker's social identity theory (1980, 1986), and Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1982, 1986) provide examples of assumptions that "human beings have a fundamental need to maintain or enhance the phenomenal self" (Snyder & Williams, 1982, as referenced in Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999) through their work. We have always assumed that a good job relates positively to a man's concept of self and mental health; should we assume any less for a woman (Barnett & Rivers, 1996, p. 34)?

"Women experience work more positively than men do—they get more rewards from their work and report fewer concerns" (Barnett & Rivers, 1996, p. 150). This is true even though they earn 73.5 cents for every dollar (based on 1997 figures for the United States) earned by men (Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2000), have fewer opportunities for advancement, and juggle multiple demands in the work-family context. They are committed to their jobs, and to the role of a career woman. According to Barnett and Rivers:

> When women and men have comparable jobs, women put in more effort than men do, and women with preschool children work as hard as do men with no children. The idea that women are just "playing" at work ought to be banished with yesterday's "I Love Lucy" reruns . . . (1996, p. 151).

Although more emphasis was placed on intrinsic motivators, the present study was concerned with both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to work. We know that intrinsic motivators are important to women, but do women's perceptions of their role as a career woman, the intrinsic value they identify in work, or their reasons for commitment to career differ according to age group? Similarly, does the importance of selected employee benefits as extrinsic motivators differ among women in different stages of adulthood?

Employee benefits

The issue of "workplace constraints" affects women of all ages. Used here, the term "workplace constraints" serves as a singular phrase covering multiple issues relating to employee benefits and job security. For example, the expansion of part-time and temporary work (outsourcing) disproportionately affects women workers (Friedan, 1997). These types of employment arrangements rarely provide a full benefits package, if they provide benefits at all, meaning women experience a lack of benefits (or reduced benefits) at a higher rate than men. Also, women tend to have gaps in employment for child rearing and family care, resulting in concomitant gaps in long-term career advancement and benefits accrual (e.g., longevity-related job security; pension funding; Social Security credits). Thus, over the life course, workplace constraints impose a heavier burden on women than on men. Employer policies that facilitate individual and

family development are needed, and they must take gender and age-related needs into account if they are to be effective. The availability and adequacy of such employee benefits issues as health and disability insurance; retirement and pension funding; flexible work arrangements; and dependent care have an impact on women's life choices and well-being.

Health and Disability Insurance

The rising cost of health care, conversion of companies to managed care insurance programs, and the loss of health care coverage that accompanies the loss (or changing) of a job are salient issues to working women and their families. Unmarried women have the responsibility of securing health insurance for themselves, and single-mothers often have the sole burden of providing health insurance for their families. Because many are insured through a spouse, women are at greater risk of losing their insurance if they divorce or are widowed. Women must also be concerned about their own and their family's financial well-being in the event of a disabling accident or condition.

Issues of health and disability can prove especially problematic for women as they age. Although women have a longer life expectancy, they have a higher prevalence of chronic disability and more acute illnesses than do men. The socioeconomic status of older women is influenced by their health status, as the financial burden of health care can create serious economic hardship (Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 161). This is heightened by the fact that time out of the paid labor force for disability or chronic illness—whether temporary or permanent—results in lost wages and lowers a worker's

pension threshold. Women with disabilities are also more likely to be tracked in low-wage jobs (Gerrschick, 2000).

> Among people of working age, women with disabilities are less likely to participate in the labor force than both nondisabled women and men with disabilities. . . . Although women and men with disabilities share similar experiences of devaluation, isolation, marginalization, and discrimination, their fortunes diverge in important ways. Two stigmatized statuses converge in the lives of women with disabilities, further diminishing their already devalued gender status. As M. Fine and A. Arch (1988, 1) note, they experience "sexism without the pedestal. (Gerrschick, 2000, p. 1265-66)

According to the National Academy on an Aging Society (August 2000), the majority of people with chronic conditions are working, but workforce participation is lower for those who have chronic conditions than for those who do not. Moreover, the labor force participation of disabled women lags that of men. People with chronic conditions generally earn less, miss more work, and retire earlier. These are all factors that impact the long-term security of women as they age. "If more employers offered flexible schedules, some people with chronic conditions might work more and some might remain in the work force longer. Productivity would also improve if fewer people had to leave their jobs to care for the chronically ill" (National Academy on an Aging Society, August 2000). Provision of disability insurance is increasingly being perceived as a valuable employee benefit.

Rather than simply a valuable employee benefit, company-sponsored health insurance is perceived as a necessity by most workers. With premiums for private health

care coverage prohibitively expensive for many Americans, and absent universal coverage, company-sponsored health insurance remains their only viable option. In 1999, uninsured Americans numbered approximately 43 million—15.5 percent of the population, or 17.5 percent of the population under age 65 (Tobler, 2001). These numbers represented a slight improvement based on the robust economy of the past decade. Recruiting in a tight labor market, employers were more likely to offer health insurance to employees traditionally left out of their plans (part-time and temporary workers). However, this is temporary relief, not encouragement. Citing Richard Gottfried, a 31-year veteran of the New York legislature, Tobler (2001) dismissed the reduction as "nothing more than a wiggle in the grass. . . .There is no indication that this is a downward trend, [. . .and] there are still far too many uninsured people in the U.S." (2001, p. 17).

McManus (1999) noted a trend emerging among the "Gen Y" cohort, men and women between the ages of 18 and 24. This is "a group that will swell to 30 million strong by the year 2015: they are opting to do without health insurance. As a result, almost 40% of young adults lack coverage" (McManus, 1999, p. 4). McManus cited cost as a major factor, with wages of young workers not keeping pace with the cost of healthcare premiums. "Gone is the era of safe, benefits-filled, long-term employment. In its place is the world of the free-agent, contract-based work arrangement" (McManus, 1999, p. 4). This may be an especially disturbing trend, considering the long-term effects of failure to access preventive care in one's younger years.

For those employees who are provided healthcare coverage through their employers, job-lock may apply. Job-lock refers to an employee's need to remain with a

current employer because they fear losing health coverage (Cooper & Monheit, 1993). Specifically, job-lock results in "the reduction in job mobility due to the non-portability of employer-provided health insurance (Kapur, 1998). What are the potential ramifications of job-lock to workers in different stages of their career, and is it a more salient concern for workers in different age groups? As a relatively new phenomenon, questions about job-lock need to be asked.

Retirement and Pension Funding

The growing disparity in wages and shrinking of jobs that pay a living wage are problematic for all workers in family life (Voydanoff, 1987), but they are devastating to single employed mothers and women already marginalized by their gender. In addition to trying to provide for the needs of their families, they are faced with the burden of providing for their own future economic security on funds already stretched thin. For women, that future economic security is at risk in their later years.

Pension benefit levels are calculated on hypothetical replacement rates for long-service employees. This has more of an adverse affect on women than on men. First, jobs traditionally held by women (e.g., human services, education, service providers) typically pay less than those held by men (e.g., engineering, technical, manufacturing). A woman with two or more children, working full-time in an entry-level clerical position in a southeastern state, may earn wages that place her below the poverty level. Women make up a disproportionate share of the working poor. This may improve with the implementation of initiatives aimed at recruiting young women, particularly "Families First" and labor re-entry women, for higher paying, non-traditional jobs such as electricians and plumbers (Women's Economic Council of Tennessee, Job Training Task

Force, personal communication, May 25, 2001). However, the effects of new initiatives for women will take years to impact women's earnings. In the meantime, women earn more than 25% less than men for comparable work. Second, women are more likely to leave the workforce at different periods in their lives for child bearing and family care. With fewer years of paid labor, combined with lower life-long earnings, both their private pension and Social Security benefits are potentially less.

In a study of single women, age 55 and older, in the workforce, Coplon (1997) found a strong statistical significance between the availability of employer provided pension plans and the age of the employee. As age increased, the percent of those with a pension plan decreased: 51 percent of 55-61 year olds, 43 percent of 62-64 year olds, 27 percent of 65-69 year olds, and 8 percent of those 70 years old and older (Coplon, 1997, p. 73). Her findings suggested that older single women who remain in the workforce do so because they cannot rely on adequate, if any, pension income. They have to work for financial reasons. "Unlike men and married women, the single women over age 54 generally cannot look forward to retirement free of economic worry. For these women, Social Security income does not necessarily serve as a safety net against poverty, because of their aggregate record of unemployment, erratic work histories, low paying jobs, and low or no pension savings for retirement" (Coplon, 1997, p. xv).

Flexible Work Arrangements

The U.S. Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA), enacted in 1993, required all firms of fifty or more employees to provide up to twelve weeks of unpaid leave following the birth or adoption of a child. This gave some employees the first federal guarantee of job protection following leaves to care for newborn or newly adopted children. The

legislation was opposed by business lobbyists, even though the U.S. lags woefully behind other Western industrialized countries in its family policies. In a country whose corporate culture rewards long hours at the office and total commitment to the bottom line, workers have been reluctant to avail themselves of family leave, even in companies with family-friendly policies.

In a case study of one such company, Fried (1998) found that although generous parental leave was available, it was dependent on supervisor discretion and not guaranteed. This reality worked to limit employees' willingness to take advantage of parental leave. Similar findings were noted by Levine and Pittinsky (1997) and Hochschild (1997). Levine and Pittinsky (1997) described women as being more willing to take maternity leave versus fathers' reluctancy to take paternity leave out of fear of negative career implications. Since women are the ones to give birth, they have little choice but to take some time from work for a newborn. However, the same underlying constraints as to the career-efficacy of taking more than a minimal amount of parental leave apply to a woman working in a male-dominated organizational culture. Hochschild commented and asked the question, "The idea of more time for family life seems to have died, gone to heaven and become an angel of an idea. But why? Why don't working parents, and others too, take the opportunity available to them to reduce their hours at work?" (1997, p. 27).

One reason may be that "the wages of many Americans are so low, or their conditions of employment so precarious, that they cannot afford to give up any income" (Schor, 1997 p. 150). Coontz (1997) advocates for paid family leave. In the interest of generational equity, such leave should be advocated for all workers, not just new parents.

However, if new parents are reluctant to take family leave mandated, how much more reluctant will an aging worker, subject to ageism and narrower employment prospects, be to take family leave to render caregiver services?

In the absence of flexible work arrangements, or because of constraints in availing themselves of them, women may consider the option of self-employment. In 1999, there were 3.4 million self-employed women working in nonagricultural industries (U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, March 2000). Using cross-sectional data from the Contingent Work Survey, Boden (1999) found that rigid, 40-hour-per-week employment schedules were a motivator for workers to leave a job based on parental status. "There are substantial gender differences in the reasons why individuals become self-employed. In particular, women—especially women with young children—are more likely than men to cite flexibility of schedule and family-related reasons for becoming self-employed" (Boden, 1999, p. 71).

As a flexible work arrangement, however, self-employment typically does not offer employment benefits unless a business grows beyond the "incubator" stage (at which time, flexible hours may again prove problematic). Thus, scholarly inquiry as to access to basic needs such as health insurance, disability insurance, old age insurance (now known as Social Security), and family care are critical in the area of work-family scholarship.

Dependent and Family Care

Dependent and family care can encompass the needs of any dependent family member. At various times in life that might include an infant or young child (including grandchildren); flexible scheduling demands to respond to the needs of an older child or

adolescent; a mentally or physically disabled child, spouse, or other family member; or an aging parent, spouse or other family member. These caregiving responsibilities occur in the context of managing the on-going demands of wife and mother. Since extensive research in the area of child care and company-sponsored childcare exists, and eldercare falls more into the rubric of aging-related work issues, the focus of the present study was on the demand for eldercare. Specifically, is company-sponsored eldercare perceived as a desirable employee benefit?

Issues relating to the overall aging of the population have gender-related implications for working women. Rising demand for family-provided eldercare is one example: "the combination of baby boom cohorts entering old age and the recent decline in fertility rates will mean a major rise in the [dependency] ratio after 2010, . . . [peaking at] approximately 1:1 in 2030" (Rabin & Stockton, 1987). Women—wives, daughters, and daughters-in-law—provide the majority of informal support for older persons in the family (Mancini & Blieszner, 1991), so the rising dependency ratio will impact them significantly. In addition to caring for aging parents, women are often called upon to provide dependent care for older husbands. A far higher percentage of men than women are married at advanced ages, and the fact that a spouse is available to assist them and to carry out home management activities may result in underreporting of "needs for assistance" and functional disability among the male population (Rabin & Stockton, 1987). Because one of the implications of underreporting is a lack of response from policy makers due to an inability to justify a need, women may fail to be granted home care assistance subsidies or special consideration in losses of benefits resulting from family leave time taken at work.

Caregiving may include the provision of financial, instrumental, emotional, and other types of long-term support for elder parents, spouses, or friends who become chronically ill or disabled. "A long-term, perhaps permanent, unbalanced flow of assistance distinguishes caregiving from other close relationships. As more adults survive to old age, caregiving needs and the corresponding financial costs of caregiving will accelerate for large numbers of people" (Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 65). In the present study, "family caregiving" left the term open for women to interpret as providing care for any family member—child, husband, or elder relative. Also, the term "elder care" was included to allow women to respond to questions relating to caregiving if the care they provided was to an elder friend, not limited solely to relatives.

Informal care, as opposed to home care, is associated with the family care provided by relatives. Informal care is provided primarily by women—wives, daughters, daughters-in-law, siblings. Many are members of the "sandwich generation." They are women "in the middle age category who are caught with competing responsibilities for dependent parents and dependent children" (Riekse & Holstege, 1996, p. 507). Increasingly, with women making up a large part of the workforce, the club sandwich is perceived as a more apt description (Greenberg, 1994, p. 29). "Club sandwich" women are sandwiched between work and several generations of family members in need of care. According to Carol Abaya (2001, ¶ 2), the New York Times columnist purported to have coined and copyrighted the term club sandwich, women in their 50s and 60s are sandwiched between aging parents, adult children, and grandchildren, while those in their 30s and 40s have responsibilities for young children, aging parents, and grandparents. From the perspective of women's perceptions and timing of retirement, this definition is

expanded to include women whose children may be grown, yet they find themselves caught between parents who need care and husbands who wish to enjoy retirement—or also require care (Tobin & Power, 1995, p. 111). As with other demands on women requiring time away from the paid labor force, caregiving has long-term ramifications for their financial security and retirement.

Retirement and Financial Preparedness

With increased years of health and productivity, many individuals hope to continue working as they age. Industrial gerontology, the study of aging and work, employs the term "work-life extension" to refer to "increasing the labor force participation rate of older adults through delayed retirement or labor force reentry by retirees" (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990, p. 164), whether voluntary or need-based.

As a life event decision and transition, retirement has personal consequences (health, social adjustment, social participation); situational consequences (income, changes of residence, reactions of family and friends); consequences for society; and differential consequences according to gender and social class (Atchley, 1976). Preparation for retirement, however, is an oft-neglected area for all workers. Women are often assumed to follow their husbands into retirement and to be provided for through their spouse's retirement income; however, large numbers of women "slip through the cracks" as a result of premature death or disability of a husband, mid-life divorce, lower paying jobs, and inconsistent work histories (hence, lack of pension funding). This has consequences to them as individuals, to their children as they grow into maturity (financial burdens for care), and to their surviving parents (e.g., cohabiting).

Patterns of working women, particularly those who are members of the baby boom cohort, will not resemble men's traditional retirement patterns (Dailey, 1998). Traditional sources of retirement income are projected to be insufficient for these women, and many will enter retirement as caregivers of the country's elderly (Dailey, 1998). In spite of the potential problems facing women as they near retirement age, "there has been little study of baby boom retirement issues and virtually no study of baby boom women's retirement" (Dailey, 1998, p. 13). Further, in studies that have been done, the concept of retirement is defined inconsistently for men and women (Slevin & Wingrove, 1995; Talaga & Beehr, 1995; Weaver, 1994). Women's retirement issues are also confounded by the tremendous variability of their work histories (Belgrave, 1989). The study of retirement has also been conducted through the lens of a white male ideology (Slevin & Wingrove, 1995).

Women's financial preparedness and their potential to afford retirement must be addressed. As seen in Coplon's (1997) study, many women remain in the workforce past the age of 65 out of financial necessity. Others choose to continue working for the social contacts and enjoyment of their work. Still others will be forced into retirement due to disability, chronic illness, or caregiving demands, while many will choose to retire to pursue other interests and have the financial means to support that choice. Whatever their choices or perception of retirement, the concept is changing for many Americans.

Historically, withdrawal from the labor force is a relatively new phenomenon. Retirement was a more gradual process, with older workers gradually switching to less physically intense occupations. "Many historians argue that the prevailing attitudes of a century ago discouraged retirement. They suggest that the work ethic of the period

marginalized those who sought to retire" (Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 434). Able-bodied men were expected to work, and retirement for leisure's sake was frowned upon (Dahlin, 1982). This may have been related more to economics than to social sanctions, however. According to Costa (1993), the elderly in the early 1900s were as likely, if not more likely, to retire if the financial means were available.

The advent of the Social Security Act in 1935, with its welfare component, Old Age Assistance (OOA), instituted the first state-sponsored old age pension system in the U.S. "As the decades have progressed, the fraction of the elderly population receiving Social Security benefits and the generosity of these benefits have increased" (Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 434). At the same time that Social Security was conceived, private pension funds grew rapidly. The American Express Company began the nation's first company pension fund in 1875 (Craig & Trawick, 1993). Social Security and private pension funds have been informally termed "the two legs of a three-legged stool" by retirement planners. Private savings are said to make up the third leg of this stool. However, recent decades have seen low savings rates among Americans at a time when the private pension system became less certain. Greater employee mobility and higher job turnover rates have weakened the second leg of the stool, pension funding. The future of Social Security is also in question, with many younger workers doubtful as to what type of benefits they may receive from this government-sponsored system. Thus, the issue of financial preparedness for retirement looms large for all workers. With their already high poverty rates, women are especially vulnerable.

Financial Preparedness

In a study of women in low-wage jobs, Kim (2000) found that nearly 2 out of 5 women work in jobs that pay low wages. She found that low-paying jobs offered fewer, if any, benefits such as pension funding or health insurance. Further, "among all adult women who were paid low wages, 17 percent lived in poverty and 31 percent lived below 150 percent of the poverty level. . . . Women with children face a slightly higher risk of being in a low-paying job than do childless women" (Kim, 2000, p. 27).

Women over the age of 75 living alone, widowed, divorced, or part of a minority group are also at risk financially. In 1998, more than seven out of ten of the poor elderly were women, even though women made up only 58 percent of all people over the age of 65 (National Women's Law Center, 1999). The most vulnerable of these women were African-American and Hispanic; more than one in two of these women living alone had incomes below the poverty line. "The material well-being of elderly women is conditioned by the economic gender gap among the elderly and shortcomings in social policies" (Vitt & Siegenthaler, 1996, p. 434).

In a study of working women, Mitchell, Levine, and Phillips (1999) found that occupational segregation and pay differences accounted for a difference in the retirement income of women and men. Even controlling for factors such as the number of years worked and the level of education, there was an average eight-thousand dollar per year difference between the retirement incomes of women and men.

As to the future financial preparedness of women in the middle—the baby boomers—it is uncertain at this point. Some financial indicators point to transfer payments as the salvation for this low-saving group. Many have also made great strides

in the stock market boon of recent years. However, large segments of this group are likely to be unprepared for retirement. As with aging itself, the financial preparedness for retirement of this group will be characterized by heterogeneity and diversity.

Devaney (1995) examined the retirement preparation of older and younger cohorts of baby boom women with investment assets greater than 25% of their net worth. Racial status (Caucasian) and expectation of a large inheritance were related to meeting retirement incomes for younger "boomers," while the older cohort of "boomer" women had increased likelihood of meeting the guideline if the household head was a male, in good health, and had pension coverage. For both cohorts, age and education were predictors or meeting the guideline for retirement preparation (Devaney, 1995).

In a study by members of the Arkansas Household Research Panel, Hershey and Mowen (2000) described inadequate pre-retirement planning in the baby boom cohort based on increased personal longevity and a decrease in the average age of retirement. Their findings indicated that these problems will be compounded by delayed personal savings programs attributed to individuals' personality characteristics, financial knowledge, and financial preparedness.

This may be an overly simplistic assessment however, as it is easy to blame personal excess and other characteristics of the baby boom cohort for their lack of savings. Coontz (1997) outlines a more complex scenario of the erosion of the standard of living based on economic trends during the lifetime of this cohort. She explains that the real, spendable hourly earnings (after deductions for taxes and Social Security, and adjusting for inflation) fell by nearly 1 percent a year since the early 1970s. "Doing better than your parents used to be the very hallmark of American identity" (1997, p. 128), says

Coontz, but this generational mobility may not apply to the retirement expectations of today's middle-aged and younger workers.

Job Insecurity and Downsizing

"Another factor contributing to the American family's sense of being on shaky ground is job insecurity" (Coontz, 1997, p. 127). Coontz continues,

> Corporations have sought cheap labor overseas or nonunionized sectors of the country, or they have reorganized by laying off full-time workers and replacing them with temps. A 1996 poll by the New York Times found that nearly three-quarters of all households have had a close encounter with layoffs since 1980. (1997, p. 127)

Perceptions of job insecurity—imagined or real—are another area of inquiry pertaining to the financial preparedness outlook for today's working women. In the climate of corporate restructuring and downsizing that has pervaded the economy throughout the 1990s—in spite of economic prosperity—the issue of job security is ever-present in the minds of working women, many of whom are single parents. Whatever the "euphemistic lay-off speak" (The New York Times Special Report, 1996), downsizing and the other terms used to refer to permanent termination of an employee for causes other than individual performance, the resulting job insecurity impacts on the individual and the family. As described by a victim of the phenomenon, "One day you got a job; the next day you're out of work, just like that" (Rubin, 1998).

Once the domain primarily of factory workers, this type of job insecurity now extends to "white collar" and "pink collar" jobs—many of which are held by women. Downsizing has resulted in heightened levels of stress and economic insecurity among all

workers. Not only does the downsized worker feel the impact, but coworkers also suffer stress and job insecurity (Price, 1990). Such employment-related stress is significant to the well-being of the family, because work loss has been associated with marital distress (Forthofer, Markman, Cox, Stanley, Kessler, 1996). In addition, downsizing and loss or declines in income are especially problematic for mid-life workers facing impending retirement years and aging. Many baby boomers, lacking pensions and financially unprepared for prolonged retirement, will not enjoy the security in their later years that their parents managed (Newman, 1993).

Conclusion

Commanding almost half (46.5%) of the jobs in the total civilian labor force (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000; Bureau of Labor Statistics, Report 892, July, 1995), working women represent one of this country's most valuable capital resources. While there could conceivably be some measure of their contributions to corporate bottom lines and national productivity, no calculation would ever be able to capture the value of women's family contributions. Their dual work-family roles and the relational aspects of women's development across the life course place them in what might be termed an economic-relational-developmental context. Scholarly inquiry into women's work and family lives often focuses on one, or the other. We examine how work affects family—the relational context; we explore how family issues impact work—the economic context; and we focus on the individual's needs—the developmental context. The present study sought to integrate the three, synthesizing financial, organizational development, sociological, psychological, and family constructs to expand the way we think about women's work

and retirement needs. None of the three occurs in isolation, so all must be examined in the context of one another.

Evaluating company policies aimed at improving employees' ability to manage job and family responsibilities, Galinsky and Stein (1990) noted the dramatic increase in the number of dual-earner families and single parents in the labor force. They observed that a growing number of workers are also responsible for the care of young children and elderly parents, adding to stress in balancing work and home life (1990, p. 368).

> These changes have an impact on both family and work life. . . . It is clear that some of the leading corporations and universities are aware of the dramatic changes in the family, the work force, and the economy, and have developed supportive human resource policies. At this time, the measures of productivity, the structures of work, and the culture of the organizations are undergoing increasing scrutiny and change. But too many companies and too many managers are still not aware nor responsive to work/family problems. If human resource policies are not made more responsive, employees at all levels will continue to bear the major brunt of work/family strain and conflict. (Galinsky & Stein, 1990, p. 382)

Their assessment is accurate, but it is not comprehensive enough. Developmental differences of women throughout the course of their careers have implications for the success of any work-family policy initiatives. In examining women's work and retirement, we must consider the broader implications of the gender and longevity revolutions on individuals, families, workforce dynamics, employers, public and private policy, and economic trends. These have multi-directional implications and must be

examined in an economic-relational-developmental context. In this way, we can effect the much-needed structural changes advocated by Moen, Friedan, and others in ways that are responsive to age- and gender-based concerns.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Since more than 50% of this country's workforce is female, it is important to add to the scholarly literature regarding working women in general and to focus on the developmental issues affecting them. Studying the special needs of an aging workforce is crucial also for both macro-level policy decisions and human resource development practices with lifespan implications. Employer concerns, such as planning for employee benefit packages, and individual concerns, such as career and retirement planning, have potential ramifications for the needs of maturing women in the workforce. The purpose of this study is to further investigate these special needs and concerns and to gain insight into the sociodemographic characteristics, work attitudes, age-related concerns, and special issues confronting working women across stages of their adulthood.

Description of the Sample

Participants included members of the Business and Professional Women's (BPW) organization in a four-state area in the Southeastern United States. The geographic area for the present study included the five major urban areas in Tennessee and urban concentrations in three adjacent states of North Carolina, Virginia, and Kentucky. The primary criterion for inclusion consisted of there being an active BPW chapter located in the city. BPW chapters participating in the study included those located in Nashville, Chattanooga, Tri-Cities, Knoxville, and Memphis, Tennessee; Greensboro and Charlotte, North Carolina; Roanoke, Virginia; and Lexington, Kentucky. Outside the state of

Tennessee, cities were selected that were within approximately a 3-hour driving radius of Knoxville; this was done to facilitate interviews with BPW members in the event of a future study. Also, an offer was extended to the Business and Professional Women's organization for a speaker to attend meetings and present the research findings at chapters whose members participated in the study. It was understood that such a presentation would occur only by invitation from the respective chapters.

The sampling frame for the exploratory study consisted of a list of the BPW members in the defined geographic region. List usage clearance was obtained through the organization's list division, InFocus, prior to commencing the study (see Appendix A). Mailing labels provided by the BPW for local chapter membership lists included all major cities in Tennessee; Lexington, Kentucky; Greensboro and Charlotte, North Carolina; and Roanoke, Virginia. In total, 512 surveys were mailed to BPW members in the targeted cities. The questionnaire was designed to provide confidentiality for respondents. At her option, however, a respondent could include her name and address to receive a copy of the results. In addition, the researcher's name and contact information were included in the event survey respondents had questions or concerns.

Description of the Instrument

A mailed questionnaire was used to conduct the research (Appendix B). The survey, Work and Retirement: A Survey of Working Women, consisted of 50 questions in three sections. To minimize measurement error, special considerations in developing the survey included (a) avoiding emotional and biased wording and (b) using closed-ended, specific questions with ordered answer choices (Salant & Dillman, 1994). Responses were ordered to avoid category-order effect (Salant & Dillman, 1994, p. 85).

Five response categories—disagree, somewhat agree, undecided, somewhat agree, and agree—were included in all but two of the questions, which included four ordered response categories—not really important, somewhat important, important, and very important.

The questionnaire was developed and given to professionals and experts for review and feedback, including review throughout the developmental process in a research colloquium made up of doctoral students. The instrument was further tested by conducting a pilot study with a convenience sample of 25 women through the local Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) board of directors. The final questionnaire and a stamped, self-return mailer were accompanied by an explanatory cover letter (Appendix C) that included information about confidentiality and informed consent. A resource list (Appendix D) also was included in the event participants felt the need to pursue any of the avenues of inquiry or personal concerns with a professional in the areas of aging, retirement, and financial planning. Two weeks after the self-return survey, cover letter, and resource list were sent, a reminder postcard (Appendix E) was mailed to all participants.

Section 1 of the questionnaire sought information about work, education, and activities and included 12 questions designed to gather data about participants' occupational status, number of years in the workforce and education completed, preferred retirement age and estimated years until retirement, time preferences for allocation to various activities, and role identifications respondents used to describe themselves. Role identifications included such descriptors as working woman, professional, wife, mother, friend, and active community member. Section 2 focused on work and retirement and

contained 28 questions presented in the form of statements and with a Likert-type response scale. These statements and response scales were designed to gather information pertaining to respondents' attitudes toward their work and career, career and retirement dreams, retirement-related attitudes, and self-perceived retirement readiness. Section 3 featured six questions that elicited basic demographic information about participants. In addition, four questions were included to obtain some general information about participants' retirement residential preferences and their potential family caregiver status (i.e., whether or not they had living parents who might require care in the future).

Response to the Questionnaire

Of the 512 surveys mailed, 130 (25.4%) were returned by the post office as non-deliverable. A total of 382 surveys were delivered as addressed (or forwarded and received); 120 of those delivered were completed and returned. This represents a response rate of 31.4%, calculated on the ratio of responses to delivered mail. Of the 120 surveys returned, two were torn in the mail beyond use and 12 were received after the cutoff date for this analysis, leaving 106 for analysis. For purposes of data analysis, respondents aged 75 and older ($n = 16$) and respondents under age 75 who were retired ($n = 6$) were not included. Thus, 84 of the 120 responses received were used in the analyses.

In addition to the questionnaires returned by respondents, correspondence was received from several individuals who did not return the survey. Three letters were received from friends or family members of addressees stating that the intended recipient was deceased. Three women wrote personal letters in lieu of returning the survey. One woman wrote that she had been retired for 15 years, did not believe she was a candidate

for the survey, and that she had forwarded it to a colleague. Letters from two other women, ages 85 and 89, were informative even though they did not complete the questionnaire. The 85-year-old, who had been retired for 21 years, wrote that the questions no longer applied to her but that she was proud of her BPW membership of more than 50 years. She wrote, "I like to think my generation paved the way for some of the achievements you younger women have made." The 89-year-old respondent wrote, "I am sorry she gave you my name. I have not belonged to BPW in 3 years or more. I am 89 years old–not able to take care of myself." This was interesting because it seemed that, in spite of advancing age and physical impairment, this woman still felt some link to a professional women's organization that she had retained a membership in until the approximate age of 86.

Demographic Overview

The Business and Professional Women's organization–with 76,000 active members and local organizations in every single Congressional District in the United States–was selected because of its role as a leading advocate for working women. The mission of the Business and professional Women's organization (BPW) includes "working to achieve equity for all women in the workplace through advocacy, education and information" (Business and Professional Women, 1998). As to the profile of BPW members, their dedication to professionalism and work was aptly illustrated in the comment of one 79-year-old respondent who wrote, "I still work between 45 and 60 hours per week practicing law." Though their job titles and occupations varied as to levels of responsibilities and occupational categories, more than three-quarters of the

respondents described themselves "very much" as a professional, and 78.6% considered their work a career, not just a job (see Tables 1 and 2).

Job titles reported by BPW members responding to the survey ranged from office assistant and secretary, to president and executive director. Occupations most prevalent among the respondents were primarily in middle- to upper-management, professional fields, and business ownership. Professions and occupations listed included:

- accounting and legal services (public accountant, bookkeeper, attorney, paralegal, court transcriptionist, judge)
- education (teaching, administration)
- engineering
- financial services (banking, stock brokerage, financial planning, property management)
- health care (nursing, psychotherapy, physician, pharmacist, health educator)
- manufacturing, technology, telecommunications (assembly, support and service, analyst)
- business ownership
- program administration (human services, government)
- sales and marketing (insurance, real estate, business services)
- general business and office work (administrative assistant, administration, human resource management and training, customer service)

Table 1. Respondents Describing Themselves as a "Professional"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A little	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	A fair amount	14	16.7	17.3	18.5
	Very much	66	78.6	81.5	100.0
	Total	81	96.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.6		
Total		84	100.0		

Table 2. "I Consider My Work a Career, Not Just a Job."

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	Somewhat Disagree	1	1.2	1.2	3.7
	Undecided	2	2.4	2.4	6.1
	Somewhat Agree	11	13.1	13.4	19.5
	Agree	66	78.6	80.5	100.0
	Total	82	97.6	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.4		
Total		84	100.0		

Age Range and Groups

The respondents ranged from 26 to 94 years of age with a mean age for all respondents of 55.47 (N = 106; 15.56 SD). As previously noted, however, the late adulthood (age 75 and older) group was not considered in the analyses; thus the mean age for respondents included in the study was 49.63 (N = 84; 10.91 SD) (see Table 3). In total, the 106 women responding represented four cohorts of women: young adulthood (44 years of age or younger); middle adulthood (age 45 through age 58), later middle age through the youngest old (ages 59 through 74); and late adulthood, consisting of respondents age 75 and older (see Table 4).

Age Groups Included in the Study

Respondents under the age of 75 were divided into three groups based on age: those age 44 and under (n = 29; 34.5%); those age 45 through age 58 (n = 38; 45.2%); and those age 59 through age 74 (n = 17; 20.2%) (see Table 5).

Determination of the oldest age group was based on Neugarten's (1974) definition of individuals ages 55 to 74 as the young-old. The young-old, she asserted, are like late middle-aged persons who generally have good health and remain active if they choose (Neugarten, 1974). Since the age-eligibility for many pension and retirement benefits is age 59, it was determined that the bottom age for the young-old group in this study of work and retirement would be age 59. The definition of the middle age group as including individuals aged 45 through 58 was based on current adult development literature delaying "middle age" until the mid-forties and extending it through the fifties (Sheehy, 1995; Manheimer, 1995; Levinson, 1996).

Table 3. Mean Age of Respondents in the Study

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Participant Age (as of January 2000)	84	26.00	74.00	49.6310	10.9057
Valid N (listwise)	84				

Table 4. Age Breakdown of All Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Early Adulthood (up to 44 yrs of age)	27	25.5	25.5	25.5
	Middle Adulthood (ages 44 - 58)	41	38.7	38.7	64.2
	Late Middle Age through Youngest Old (ages 59 - 74)	22	20.8	20.8	84.9
	Late Adulthood (age 75 and older)	16	15.1	15.1	100.0
	Total	106	100.0	100.0	

Table 5. Age Groups of Participants Included in Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	44 and younger	29	34.5	34.5	34.5
	45-58	38	45.2	45.2	79.8
	59-74	17	20.2	20.2	100.0
	Total	84	100.0	100.0	

Marital Status by Age Group

The percentage of women who were married in each age group was consistent. Just over 55% (55.2%; n = 16) of the 29 women age 44 and under; 52.6% (n = 20) of those ages 45-58; and 52.9% (n = 9) of the women ages 59 through 74 reported being married (see Table 6). The age group reporting the highest incidence of divorce and separation was the middle group, ages 45 through 58, with 34.2% (n = 13) of these women divorced or separated. This compared with 24.1% (n = 7) of the younger women (age 44 and under), and 23.5% (n = 4) of the older group (age 59-74) reporting being divorced or separated.

None of the women in the two younger groups reported being widowed, whereas three women (17.6%) in the 59-74 age group reported widowhood as their marital status. Only one woman in this older group had never married, compared with five (13.2%) in the 45 through 58-year-old group and six (20.7%) of the women age 44 or younger (see Table 6). Interestingly, although they were not included in the data analysis of the three age groups, among the 16 women age 75 and older who responded to the survey, well over a third (37.5%; n = 6) were "never married." This might be attributed to the fact that in the early part of the twentieth century, married European-American women participated more rarely in the paid labor force. In 1900, only 5.6% of all married women worked in occupations other than homemaking, and by 1920 that number had risen to only 9% (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1929). Reaching working age in the 1920s and 1930s, the Business and Professional Women over the age of 75 may well represent a cohort of women whose choices included marriage or career, but not the two combined.

Table 6. Marital Status

			Marital Status					
			Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Never married	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	16	7			6	29
		% within Age Group	55.2%	24.1%			20.7%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	20	12	1		5	38
		% within Age Group	52.6%	31.6%	2.6%		13.2%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	9	4		3	1	17
		% within Age Group	52.9%	23.5%		17.6%	5.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	45	23	1	3	12	84
		% within Age Group	53.6%	27.4%	1.2%	3.6%	14.3%	100.0%

Education and Professional Licensure by Age Group

Overall, the women in the Business and Professional Women's association who participated in this research were a well-educated group. More than two-thirds (70.2%; n = 59) of the women in the three age groups reported having completed a college degree or higher. One-third (33.3%; n = 28) of the respondents completed graduate degrees, with 21.4% (n = 18) having completed master's degrees and 11.9% (n = 10) having completed a doctorate or professional degree (see Table 7).

The early adulthood group (age 44 and under) had the highest percentage of college-degreed individuals (86.2%; n = 25), followed by the middle group (65.8%; n = 25). Among the group of women ages 60-74, more than half (52.9%; n = 9) reported having completed a bachelor's degree or higher (Table 7). Although the older group had the lowest proportion of college graduates, their educational accomplishments are noteworthy. In the past, higher education was not encouraged for women; women in this cohort completed higher education in far fewer numbers than women in the younger cohorts (Bergmann, 1986).

Almost half (48.8%; n = 41) of the women in the study maintained some form of professional certification or licensure. Response categories for such certification or licensure included (a) teaching certificate; insurance, real estate, or banking; (b) licensed clinical social worker, RN/LPN, or other medical (excluding MD); (c) medical doctor (MD), lawyer (JD), certified public accountant (CPA), certified life underwriter (CLU), certified financial planner (CFP), or engineer; and (d) other licenses or certifications. This latter category included a variety of industry-specific credentials.

Table 7. Education Level

			Education					
			HS/GED	Some College	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate/ Professional	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	2	2	11	11	3	29
		% within Age Group	6.9%	6.9%	37.9%	37.9%	10.3%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	1	12	13	6	6	38
		% within Age Group	2.6%	31.6%	34.2%	15.8%	15.8%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	1	7	7	1	1	17
		% within Age Group	5.9%	41.2%	41.2%	5.9%	5.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	4	21	31	18	10	84
		% within Age Group	4.8%	25.0%	36.9%	21.4%	11.9%	100.0%

Of the 41 women reporting professional certification or licensure (a) 10 (24.4%) were in the social work or medical (but non-MD) category; (b) 8 (19.5%) were in the category of medical doctor (MD), lawyer (JD), certified public accountant (CPA), certified life underwriter (CLU), certified financial planner (CFP), or engineer; (c) another 8 (19.5%) held licenses or certificates in real estate, insurance, or banking; (d) 4 women (4.8%) held teaching certificates; and (e) the remaining 11 women (26.8%) held other industry-specific licenses or certifications such as computer and technical certifications, general financial, court reporting, and a professional chef (see Table 8).

Women in all age groups were represented in each of the professional licensure categories with the exception of teaching; none of the women age 44 or younger reported having a teaching certificate. Overall, the older group of women ranked highest in terms of professional licenses or certifications. More than 70% (70.6%) of these women (ages 60 through 74) reported such certification or licensure. One-third (33.0%; $\underline{n} = 4$) were in insurance, real estate, or banking, while one fourth (25.0%; $\underline{n} = 3$) of this group fell into the categories of RN/LPN, medical other than MD, or licensed clinical social worker. The relatively high numbers of participants reporting professional certification or licensure is consistent with the career-oriented profile of BPW members.

Work History by Age Group

The mean number of total years in the workforce represented by the Business and Professional Women in this study was 28.22 ($\underline{n} = 83$; $\underline{SD}$ 10.38), with a range of 5 years to 55 years. Only three women reported less than 10 years of work experience, all of them in the youngest age group. As might be expected, women in the oldest age group

Table 8. Professional Licensure and Certification

			Professional Licenses/Certification					
			Teaching certificate	Insurance, Real estate, Banking	RN/LPN, LCSW, other medical excluding MD	MD/JD/CPA/ CLU/CFP/ Engineer	Other licenses and certifications	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count		3	2	4	2	11
		% within Age Group		27.3%	18.2%	36.4%	18.2%	100%
	45-58	Count	3	1	5	3	6	18
		% within Age Group	16.7%	5.6%	27.8%	16.7%	33.3%	100%
	59-74	Count	1	4	3	1	3	12
		% within Age Group	8.3%	33.3%	25.0%	8.3%	25.0%	100%
Total		Count	4	8	10	8	11	41
		% within Age Group	9.8%	19.5%	24.4%	19.5%	26.8%	100%

had the greatest percentage of respondents with 30 or more years of work experience (88.2%; n = 15). Women in the middle group followed them, with 60.6% (n = 23) of these respondents having been in the workforce 30 or more years. Another 36.8% (n = 14) of these women had been in the workforce for 20 to 30 years, meaning that 97.4% (n = 37) of the women ages 45 through 58 had been in the workforce for 20 or more years. In the younger group, 82.2% (n = 23) reported having been in the workforce from 10 to 30 years, with two of them reporting 30 years of work experience (see Table 9). It is interesting to note that a number women—primarily in the young and middle-age groups—considered themselves as having entered the workforce as young as age 13 and 14, and age 16 in quite a few cases.

Among the women in the middle and oldest groups, more than one-third (35.3%; n = 6) of women ages 59 through 74, and nearly one-fourth (24.5%; n = 9) of women ages 45 through 58 had been in their current occupations for more than 25 years. Of the 54 participants in these two groups, 25.9% (n = 14) had been in their occupations for 16-25 years. Six (16.2%) women in the middle group had been in their current occupation for five years or less, which may indicate a potential midlife career change or a return to work as children matured. Among those age 44 or younger, 78.6% (n = 22) had been in their occupations for 15 years or less; 17.9% (n = 5) had been in their occupation for 16-25 years; and one woman reported having been in her occupation for 30 years (see Table 10). This respondent, a banker, started in the banking industry at the age of 18 and has remained in it throughout her career.

Table 9. Total Years in the Workforce

			Total Years in the Workforce					
			Less than 10	10 - 19	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 or more	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	3	11	12	2		28
		% within Age Group	10.7%	39.3%	42.9%	7.1%		100.0%
	45-58	Count		1	14	21	2	38
		% within Age Group		2.6%	36.8%	55.3%	5.3%	100.0%
	59-74	Count		1	1	4	11	17
		% within Age Group		5.9%	5.9%	23.5%	64.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	3	13	27	27	13	83
		% within Age Group	3.6%	15.7%	32.5%	32.5%	15.7%	100.0%

With regard to the number of years in their present job, a majority of the respondents (70.4%; n = 57) reported having been in their current job for 10 years or less. More than half (56.3%; n = 9) of women in the 59 through 74 age group have been in their current job less than ten years, while 62.2% (n = 23) of those age 45 through 58 fall into that category. Less than ten percent (9.9%; n = 8) of the total respondents—four in the middle-age group and four in the older age group—have been in their current jobs 20 or more years (see Table 11). This low rate of longevity in a current job is not surprising, considering the structural changes in job tenure in the latter half of the last century.

Whereas, at mid-century, the "organization man" (Riesman, 1950) who joined the corporation just out of college and remained there until retirement and the unionized production worker with protected employment were more the norm (Reich, 1992), the final quarter of the century ushered in an era of frequent job-changing career paths, downsizing, and outsourcing (Karpel, 1995). Lifetime job security has become a thing of the past (Aronowitz, 1998). "By the time an American female employee reaches age sixty-five, she's held an average of 12.2 jobs; a male employee has had an average of 10.7 jobs. Only 15.3 percent of women and 37.3 percent of men have been with one employer for twenty years or more" (Karpel, 1995, p. 36). What is disturbing about these trends and the low levels of current occupational longevity reported by women in this study is the potential negative impact on pension income and retirement security.

Table 10. Number of Years in Current Occupation

			Years in Current Occupation					
			5 yrs or less	6 - 15	16 - 25	26 - 35	More than 35 years	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	7	15	5	1		28
		% within Age Group	25.0%	53.6%	17.9%	3.6%		100.0%
	45-58	Count	6	12	10	8	1	37
		% within Age Group	16.2%	32.4%	27.0%	21.6%	2.7%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	3	4	4	2	4	17
		% within Age Group	17.6%	23.5%	23.5%	11.8%	23.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	16	31	19	11	5	82
		% within Age Group	19.5%	37.8%	23.2%	13.4%	6.1%	100.0%

Table 11. Number of Years in Current Job

			Years in this Job				
			Less than 10 yrs	10 to 20 yrs	20 - 30 yrs	30 or more years	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	25	3			28
		% within Age Group	89.3%	10.7%			100.0%
	45-58	Count	23	10	4		37
		% within Age Group	62.2%	27.0%	10.8%		100.0%
	59-74	Count	9	3	3	1	16
		% within Age Group	56.3%	18.8%	18.8%	6.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	57	16	7	1	81
		% within Age Group	70.4%	19.8%	8.6%	1.2%	100.0%

Research Objectives and Null Hypotheses for the Study

As described in chapter one, the study was guided by five research objectives. Analyses pertaining to these objectives were completed using one-way analyses of variance (research objective 1) and Chi-square analyses (research objectives 2 through 5). In the Chi-square analyses, small cell sizes proved problematic. After consulting with Mike Newman of the University of Tennessee statistical consulting program, the decision was made to convert what had been interval data into categorical data for the questions in research objectives 2 through 5 due to the small cell sizes. Response categories indicating "agree" and "somewhat agree" were collapsed and recoded as "agree," and response categories indicating "disagree" or "somewhat disagree" were collapsed and recoded as "disagree." Neutral response choices of "undecided" (fewer than 1.4% of all responses) were recoded as "disagree" because this indicated some doubt as to the respondent's affirmative support of a question. This approach was deemed to be the most conservative for coding the data so that there was greater confidence in not having false positives (i.e., including responses that were not affirmative in the positive category).

For research objective 1 (parts A and B), the questions that were used in the analyses of variance were interval data; responses for the remaining research objectives were converted to nominal data for Chi-square analyses as described in the previous paragraph. The research objectives, together with the hypotheses and analyses used to address them, are further detailed below.

Research Objective 1

Research objective 1a: To examine whether the value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities related to their work, family, community, and self vary according to their age group.

Research objective 1b: To examine whether the roles by which women conceptualize themselves vary among women in different stages of adulthood.

With age group as the independent variable, one-way ANOVAS were used to test the following null hypotheses:

H_o 1a: The value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities does not vary according to their age group.

H_o 1b: The roles by which women conceptualize themselves do not vary according to their age group.

Research Objective 2

Research objective 2: To identify working women's attitudes toward their work (e.g., their motivations to work, what they value in work) and to test whether these attitudes are dependent on their age group.

With age group as the independent variable, Chi-square analyses were applied to survey questions 13 through 19 (see Appendix F) to test the following null hypotheses:

H_o 2a: Money as a sole motivator to work is independent of age group.

H_o 2b: Money as the motivating factor for a respondent to remain in her current job is independent of her age group.

H_o 2c: Personal satisfaction as a motivating factor to work is independent of age group.

H_o 2d: An attitude of commitment to a career and not "just a job" is independent of age group.

H_o 2e: Personal identification with work and/or career as a motivating factor to work is independent of age group.

H_o 2f: Friendships as a motivating factor to work is independent of age group.

H_o 2g: Socialization through work as a motivating factor work is independent of age group.

Research Objective 3

Research objective 3: To examine whether the importance placed on selected employee benefits depends on a working woman's age group.

Selected employee benefits included (a) health insurance, (b) retirement plan or pension, (c) flextime and adjusted hours, (d) family caregiving and elder care, and (e) disability coverage. Responses to questions 20, 21a, 21b, 33, and 34 (see Appendix F) were analyzed to examine the employee benefits of health insurance, retirement plan or pension, and flexible and part-time work hours, respectively. With age group as the independent variable, Chi-square analyses were used to test the following null hypotheses:

H_o 3a: Health insurance as an employee benefit that is a reason for respondents to remain on a job is independent of their age group.

H_o 3b: Availability of an employer-provided retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit that is a reason for respondents to remain on a job is independent of their age group.

H_o 3c: If provided, the importance of a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit is independent of age group.

H_o 3d: The flexibility to work fewer hours yet retain benefits as a desirable employee benefit option is independent of age group.

H_o 3e: The availability of flexible work hours and benefits as a motivator to extend time in the workforce is independent of age group.

Responses to questions 31, 32, and 49 (see Appendix F) were analyzed to examine (a) the respondents' perceived need for family caregiving or elder care as a desirable employee benefit and (b) the potential demand on working women to provide family caregiving. Chi-square analyses were used to test the null hypotheses relating to these questions.

H_o 3f: The potential need to serve as a caregiver for a parent or other family member is independent of age group.

H_o 3g: Current or prior responsibility for elder care is independent of age group.

H_o 3h: The importance to working women of time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care is independent of age group.

To assess respondents' potential vulnerability to short- or long-term disability by age group, questions 48a and 48b (see Appendix F) were addressed using descriptive statistics and Chi-square analyses. Null hypotheses for these Chi-square analyses follow:

H_o 3i: Diagnosis of a serious illness or health problem is independent of age group.

H_o 3j: Presence of a chronic illness or disability is independent of age group.

Research Objective 4

Research objective 4: To examine whether the responses of working women to questions regarding potential job-lock, entrepreneurial inclinations, early retirement, or job security are dependent on their age group.

Responses to questions 20, 24, 25, 26, and 27 (see Appendix F) were analyzed to examine potential job-lock, entrepreneurial inclination, and early retirement, respectively. With age group as the independent variable, Chi-square analyses were used to test the following null hypotheses:

H_o 4a: The ability to get health insurance through an employer as a reason to stay in a job is independent of age group.

H_o 4b: Potential for job-lock due to concerns about being able to obtain health insurance elsewhere is independent of age group.

H_o 4c: Fantasizing about a new line of work or a new career is independent of age group.

H_o 4d: Interest in starting one's own business is independent of age group.

H_o 4e: Willingness to accept an acceptable early retirement package is independent of age group.

Women's personal experience with, or exposure to, the downsizing phenomenon that began in the workplace in the late 1980s was examined in questions 22 and 23 (see Appendix F). Descriptive statistics were applied to get a perspective on how many of the respondents had been affected by downsizing, and, testing the following null hypotheses, Chi-square analyses were used to determine whether or not experience with downsizing is dependent on age group.

H_o 4f: Having a family member who has experienced downsizing is independent of age group.

H_o 4g: Having personally experienced downsizing is independent of age group.

Research Objective 5

Research objective 5: To examine whether the perceptions and responses of working women to the concept of retirement, financial planning for retirement, and their financial preparedness for retirement are dependent on their age group.

Responses to questions 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 50a, and 50b (see Appendix F) were analyzed to examine the perceptions and responses of these working women to the concept of retirement. With age group as the independent variable, Chi-square analyses were used to test the following null hypotheses:

H_o 5a: Perceiving retirement as a time to stop working altogether is independent of age group.

H_o 5b: Perceiving retirement as a time to continue working, but at a slower pace, is independent of age group.

H_o 5c: Perceiving retirement as a time to quit a job and start a business or new work/career is independent of age group.

H_o 5d: Perceiving retirement as a time to do volunteer work is independent of age group.

H_o 5e: Perceiving retirement as a time to enjoy primarily a life of leisure is independent of age group.

H_o 5f: Perceiving retirement as a time to travel is independent of age group.

H_o 5g: Perceiving retirement as a time for continuing education is independent of age group.

H_o 5h: Preference for aging in place in retirement is independent of age group.

Women's financial planning for retirement and their financial preparedness for retirement were examined in questions 28, 29, 30, and 42 (see Appendix F). Testing the following null hypotheses, Chi-square analyses were used to determine whether or not responses to these questions were dependent on the respondents' age group.

H_o 5i: Engaging in retirement planning or preparation is independent of age group.

H_o 5j: Commitment and regular contributions to a financial plan for the future are independent of age group.

H_o 5k: Perceiving oneself as financially prepared for the future is independent of one's age group.

H_o 5l: Concerns about having sufficient funds for retirement goals is independent of age group.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) and Chi-square analyses were used to examine statistically the data in the present study. Data were analyzed using SPSS, version 10.0, statistical analysis software. As a criterion for rejecting null hypotheses, the most frequently utilized probability level of .05 was chosen for all analyses. Dependent variables were dichotomized to facilitate the Chi-square analyses as explained in the methods chapter. Five research objectives were examined by testing 38 null hypotheses. These null hypotheses involved testing dependent variables against the independent variable of age groupings.

Analysis

Time for Selected Activities and Role Identification

Research objective one consisted of two parts. First, does the value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities related to their work, family, community, and self vary according to their age group? Second, do the roles by which women conceptualize themselves vary among women in different stages of adulthood? With age group as the independent variable, one-way ANOVAs were used to test the following null hypotheses:

H_o 1a: The value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities does not vary according to their age group.

H_o 1b: The roles by which women conceptualize themselves do not vary according to their age group.

Time for Activities

Using a Likert-type scale ranging from "not really important" to "very important," respondents were asked to indicate the importance of time spent in six different activities. These activities included (a) time to devote to work, (b) time for professional development, (c) time for self, (d) time for recreation and/or hobbies, (e) time for physical fitness (exercise), (f) time for religious activities and/or volunteer work, and (g) time for friends and family. One-way analyses of variance procedures were utilized to examine these six dependent variables across age groups to determine whether group differences existed. There was no significant difference in the value ascribed to time spent in any of the six activities among the three age groups (Table 12).

Although there was no significant difference in the responses among the three age groups as to the value they ascribed to time spent in the six activities, the overall profile of the participants' responses proved interesting—particularly in the areas of work and professional development In all three age groups, time for work and professional development were rated as important. Among women ages 59 through 74, 100% of the respondents indicated that work was "very important" (47.1%; $\underline{n} = 8$) or "important" (52.9%; $\underline{n} = 9$). Professional development was rated as "very important" or "important" by 82.4% ($\underline{n} = 14$) of the women in this older age group, while the remaining 17.6% ($\underline{n} = 3$) rated it as "somewhat important." Overall, women across all three age groups rated work and professional development as having value to them (see Tables 13 and 14).

Table 12. ANOVA of Time Importance of Activities for Three Age Groups

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Time - Work	Between Groups	1.447	2	.724	1.517	.226
	Within Groups	37.675	79	.477		
	Total	39.122	81			
Time - Professional development	Between Groups	.312	2	.156	.333	.718
	Within Groups	37.974	81	.469		
	Total	38.286	83			
Time - Self	Between Groups	2.367	2	1.184	1.905	.155
	Within Groups	50.335	81	.621		
	Total	52.702	83			
Time - Recreation and/or hobbies	Between Groups	.141	2	7.045E-02	.120	.887
	Within Groups	47.088	80	.589		
	Total	47.229	82			
Time - Physical fitness	Between Groups	2.828	2	1.414	1.750	.180
	Within Groups	64.642	80	.808		
	Total	67.470	82			
Time - Religious activities and/or volunteer work	Between Groups	1.452	2	.726	.767	.468
	Within Groups	76.691	81	.947		
	Total	78.143	83			
Time - Friends	Between Groups	.565	2	.283	.437	.647
	Within Groups	51.700	80	.646		
	Total	52.265	82			
Time - Spouse (or significant other)	Between Groups	.406	2	.203	.350	.706
	Within Groups	28.421	49	.580		
	Total	28.827	51			
Time - Children	Between Groups	1.039	2	.519	.759	.473
	Within Groups	34.207	50	.684		
	Total	35.245	52			

Table 13. Time to Devote to my Work.

			Time - Work				
			Not Important	Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count		6	14	9	29
		% within Age Group		20.7%	48.3%	31.0%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	2		21	13	36
		% within Age Group	5.6%		58.3%	36.1%	100.0%
	59-74	Count			9	8	17
		% within Age Group			52.9%	47.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	2	6	44	30	82
		% within Age Group	2.4%	7.3%	53.7%	36.6%	100.0%

Table 14. Time for Professional Development.

			Time - Professional development			
			Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	6	15	8	29
		% within Age Group	20.7%	51.7%	27.6%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	5	22	11	38
		% within Age Group	13.2%	57.9%	28.9%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	3	7	7	17
		% within Age Group	17.6%	41.2%	41.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	14	44	26	84
		% within Age Group	16.7%	52.4%	31.0%	100.0%

Time for relationships also was rated highly by women in all three groups, with 92.3% (n = 48; N = 52) rating "time for spouse or significant other" as "very important" or "important" (Table 15), and 90.6% (n = 48; N = 53) rating "time for children" as "very important" or "important" (Table 16). Time for friends was valued by women in all groups, with 74.7% (n = 62; N = 83) rating it as "very important" or "important" (Table 17).

Role Identification

The second part of research objective one addressed role identification among women of different age groups. Using a Likert-type scale ranging from "not at all" to "very much," respondents were asked to indicate how much various roles described them. These roles included (a) working woman, (b) professional, (c) wife, (d) mother, (e) grandmother, (f) daughter, (g) friend, and (h) active community member/citizen. An additional category not considered in the analyses, "other," provided respondents an opportunity to list other important roles with which they identified. Roles listed included aunt, church member, significant other, and partner.

For the eight dependent variables, one-way analyses of variance procedures were utilized across the age groups to determine whether group differences existed. As might be expected, based on a woman's age, there was evidence from the sample to reject the null hypothesis that the mean role differences for mother (F = 4.767; p = .012) and grandmother (F = 23.417; p = .000) were the same (see Table 18).

Table 15. Time for Spouse or Significant Other.

			Time - Spouse (or significant other)				
			Not Important	Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	1	1	4	12	18
		% within Age Group	5.6%	5.6%	22.2%	66.7%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	1		8	14	23
		% within Age Group	4.3%		34.8%	60.9%	100.0%
	59-74	Count		1	1	9	11
		% within Age Group		9.1%	9.1%	81.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	2	2	13	35	52
		% within Age Group	3.8%	3.8%	25.0%	67.3%	100.0%

Table 16. Time for Children.

			Time - Children				
			Not Important	Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	1		1	11	13
		% within Age Group	7.7%		7.7%	84.6%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	1	1	7	15	24
		% within Age Group	4.2%	4.2%	29.2%	62.5%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	1	1	6	8	16
		% within Age Group	6.3%	6.3%	37.5%	50.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	3	2	14	34	53
		% within Age Group	5.7%	3.8%	26.4%	64.2%	100.0%

Table 17. Time for Friends.

			Time - Friends			
			Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	9	10	10	29
		% within Age Group	31.0%	34.5%	34.5%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	8	14	15	37
		% within Age Group	21.6%	37.8%	40.5%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	4	5	8	17
		% within Age Group	23.5%	29.4%	47.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	21	29	33	83
		% within Age Group	25.3%	34.9%	39.8%	100.0%

Table 18. ANOVA of Self-identified Roles for Three Age Groups

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Working woman	Between Groups	.798	2	.399	1.185	.311
	Within Groups	26.264	78	.337		
	Total	27.062	80			
Professional	Between Groups	.130	2	6.494E-02	.344	.710
	Within Groups	14.710	78	.189		
	Total	14.840	80			
Wife	Between Groups	4.172	2	2.086	1.209	.306
	Within Groups	101.828	59	1.726		
	Total	106.000	61			
Mother	Between Groups	14.755	2	7.377	4.767	.012
	Within Groups	99.036	64	1.547		
	Total	113.791	66			
Grandmother	Between Groups	54.823	2	27.412	23.417	.000
	Within Groups	63.212	54	1.171		
	Total	118.035	56			
Daughter	Between Groups	.481	2	.241	.202	.818
	Within Groups	72.628	61	1.191		
	Total	73.109	63			
Friend	Between Groups	.150	2	7.505E-02	.164	.849
	Within Groups	36.597	80	.457		
	Total	36.747	82			
Active community member/ citizen	Between Groups	.152	2	7.617E-02	.091	.913
	Within Groups	65.799	79	.833		
	Total	65.951	81			

To control for Type I error, the Bonferroni correction was used to control the overall error rate and adjust for the fact that multiple comparisons were made (Table 19). With the grandmother and mother error rates held to .05, differences were observed between the youngest age group (younger than 44 years of age) and the oldest age group (age 59 through 74) in identification with the role of mother (mean difference is significant at .02). Further, differences were observed among all three age groups with respect to the role of grandmother (mean difference is significant at .007 or less). However, upon further examination, Levene's test for homogeneity of variances indicated that the one-way ANOVA assumption that the variances of the groups are all equal was not met. The significance value was less than .05, suggesting that the variances for the three groups are not equal and the assumption is not justified. Therefore, the present study cannot conclusively assert variance between mother and grandmother by age groups, although a connection between age and the timeframe for childbearing probably would indicate significance with a larger sample, because offspring of younger women are less likely to have attained the age of childbearing, thus the absence of grandchildren among women age 44 and younger.

As with the value ascribed to time for activities, the overall profile of the participants' responses to role identification points out both the multifaceted roles of women and the extent to which they identify with their work and professions. Women in all age groups described themselves as identifying with multiple roles, and women in all three groups identified "very much" with the roles of working woman and professional. Among women under the age of 44, 78.6% ($\underline{n} = 22$) identified with the role of working woman, while 88.9% ($\underline{n} = 32$) of women in the middle group (ages 45-58) and 70.6%

Table 19. Multiple Comparisons

Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mother	44 and younger	45-58	-.8654	.3521	.050	-1.7311	3.320E-04
		59-74	-1.1029*	.3943	.020	-2.0724	-.1334
	45-58	44 and younger	.8654	.3521	.050	-3.3198E-04	1.7311
		59-74	-.2376	.3880	1.000	-1.1915	.7164
	59-74	44 and younger	1.1029*	.3943	.020	.1334	2.0724
		45-58	.2376	.3880	1.000	-.7164	1.1915
Grandmother	44 and younger	45-58	-1.3913*	.3354	.000	-2.2201	-.5625
		59-74	-2.5333*	.3737	.000	-3.4567	-1.6100
	45-58	44 and younger	1.3913*	.3354	.000	.5625	2.2201
		59-74	-1.1420*	.3591	.007	-2.0292	-.2548
	59-74	44 and younger	2.5333*	.3737	.000	1.6100	3.4567
		45-58	1.1420*	.3591	.007	.2548	2.0292

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

(n = 12) of the women ages 59 through 74 identified with this role (see Table 20). Identification with the role of professional was strong in all three groups as well, with 85.7% (n = 24) of women under age 44, 80.6% (n = 29) of women ages 45-58, and 76.5% (n = 13) of women age 59 through 74 identifying "very much" as professionals (see Table 21).

Women's Attitudes Toward Work

The second research objective asked, "What are working women's attitudes toward their work (e.g., their motivations to work, what they value in work) and are these attitudes dependent on their age group?" The independent variable of age group was examined against seven dependent variables. The dependent variables and null hypotheses were derived from the following survey questions:

(a) Survey question 13. If I didn't need the money, I probably would not work. Null hypotheses: Money as a sole motivator to work is independent of age.

(b) Survey question 14. If I didn't need the money, I would work, but not at this job. Null hypotheses: Money as the motivating factor to remain in current job is independent of age.

(c) Survey question 15. I derive satisfaction from my work. Null hypotheses: Personal satisfaction as a motivating factor to work is independent of age.

(d) Survey question 16. I consider my work a career, not just a job. Null hypotheses: Attitude of commitment to a career versus "just a job" is independent of age.

(e) Survey question 17. My work and/or career are part of who I am. Null hypotheses: Personal identification with work and/or career as a motivating factor to work is independent of age.

Table 20. Role Identification as a Working Woman

			Working woman				
			Not at all	A little	A fair amount	Very much	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	1	2	3	22	28
		% within Age Group	3.6%	7.1%	10.7%	78.6%	100.0%
	45-58	Count		1	3	32	36
		% within Age Group		2.8%	8.3%	88.9%	100.0%
	59-74	Count			5	12	17
		% within Age Group			29.4%	70.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	1	3	11	66	81
		% within Age Group	1.2%	3.7%	13.6%	81.5%	100.0%

Table 21. Role Identification as a Professional

			Professional			
			A little	A fair amount	Very much	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count		4	24	28
		% within Age Group		14.3%	85.7%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	1	6	29	36
		% within Age Group	2.8%	16.7%	80.6%	100.0%
	59-74	Count		4	13	17
		% within Age Group		23.5%	76.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	1	14	66	81
		% within Age Group	1.2%	17.3%	81.5%	100.0%

(f) Survey question 18. I meet/have met friends through my work. Null hypotheses: Friendships through work as a motivating factor to work is independent of age.

(g) Survey question 19. My work is a source of social events/activities. Null hypotheses: Socialization through work as a motivating factor to work is independent of age.

No statistical evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis that friendships through work as a motivating factor to work was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .178$, df 2, $p = .915$). There was consistency among women in all age groups, with 95.2% of the respondents agreeing that work or work-related activities and organizations was a source of friendships. There was, however, evidence to reject the null hypothesis that socializing resulting from workplace relationships as a motivating factor to work is independent of age. A Chi-square analysis revealed that significantly fewer women in the middle age group (ages 45-58) agreed that work (and/or work-related activities or organizations) was a source of social events or activities ($\chi^2 = 7.834$, $p = .02$). Among these women, 60.5% perceived social activities as evolving from the workplace as a motivating factor, compared to 89.7% in the younger group and 81.3% in the older group (see Table 22).

This finding is attributable to the fact that although her middle career years may be a time of maximum productivity and performance (Voydanoff, 1987), a woman's work/family demands may be increased at this stage of the family life cycle by increased demands for kin care. As members of the "sandwich generation," women traditionally have been assigned the role of maintaining family relationships and caretaking for husbands, children, parents, husband's parents, grandchildren, and other sick or

Table 22. Socialization Through Work as a Motivating Factor to Work

			My work (and/or work-related activities or organizations) is a source of social events or activities.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	26	3	29
		% within Age Group	89.7%	10.3%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	23	15	38
		% within Age Group	60.5%	39.5%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	13	3	16
		% within Age Group	81.3%	18.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	62	21	83
		% within Age Group	74.7%	25.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.834[a]	2	.020
N of Valid Cases	83		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.05.

dependent family members (McGoldrick, 1989). These responsibilities would tend to lessen time available for social activities or events. On the other hand, women in the older age group are more likely to be widowed, with work playing an increasing role in opportunities for social activities or events.

No statistical evidence was found to reject the remaining null hypotheses in research objective 2. The responses across all groups indicate consistency among women of all ages in the areas of intrinsic motivations to work and the importance of work or career as a personal value. In all age groups, 96.5% of the women responding derived personal satisfaction from their work ($\chi^2 = 3.870$, df 2, $p = .144$). More than two-thirds (69%) of the respondents would work even if they did not need the money ($\chi^2 = 1.171$, df 2, $p = .557$), while two-thirds (66.7%) would remain in their current job even if they did not need the money ($\chi^2 = .963$, df 2, $p = .618$). More than 9 out of 10 women in each group (96.6% of women age 44 and younger; 91.7% of women ages 45-58; and 94.1% of women age 59 and older) consider their work a career, not just a job ($\chi^2 = .671$, df 2, $p = .715$), and 95.2% of the women in all groups agreed that their work or career was part of their self-identity ($\chi^2 = 1.852$, df 2, $p = .396$). Of note, 100% (n = 17) of the women ages 59 through 74 agreed that work was part of "who I am."

Importance of Employee Benefits

With age group as the independent variable, ten dependent variables were examined to explore research objective 3, which was whether the importance placed on selected employee benefits depends on a working woman's age group. The dependent variables were divided into two areas of employee benefits: (a) health insurance, retirement plan/pension, and flextime; and, (b) disability and family caregiving.

Dependent variables and null hypotheses for each employee benefits area were derived as follows:

Employee Benefits Issues: Health Insurance; Retirement Plan/Pension; Flextime

(a) Survey question 20. Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job. Null hypotheses: Health insurance as an employee benefit as a reason to remain on a job is independent of age group.

(b) Survey question 21a. My current job provides me with a retirement plan or pension. Null hypotheses: A retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit is independent of age group.

(c) Survey question 21b. If provided, a retirement plan or pension is an important benefit of my job. Null hypotheses: Importance of a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit is independent of age group.

(d) Survey question 33. If my company allowed me to work less hours but keep my current benefits, I would like that option. Null hypotheses: The flexibility to work fewer hours yet retain benefits as a desirable employee option is independent of age group.

(e) Survey question 34. If flexible work hours and benefits were available to me, I would probably extend my time in the work force (that is, I would not retire as early). Null hypotheses: The availability of flexible work hours and benefits as a motivator to extend time in the workforce is independent of age group.

Employee Benefits Issues: Disability and Family Caregiving

(a) Survey question 48a. Have you ever been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem? Null hypotheses: Diagnosis of a serious illness or health problem is independent of age group.

(b) Survey question 48b. Do you currently have any chronic illnesses or disabilities? Null hypotheses: Presence of a chronic illness or disability is independent of age group.

(c) Survey question 31. If something happened to my parent(s) or another family member, I would have to help care for them. Null hypotheses: Potential need to serve as a caregiver for a parent(s) or other family member is independent of age group.

(d) Survey question 49. I am currently (or have been in the past) responsible for elder care for a parent(s) and/or other aging relative. Null hypotheses: Current or prior responsibility for elder care is independent of age group.

(e) Survey question 32. Time off for family caregiving and/or company sponsored elder care would be an important employee benefit to me. Null hypotheses: The importance to working women of time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care is independent of age group.

In the hypotheses related to the area of employee benefits of health insurance, retirement plan/pension; and flextime, there was evidence to reject the null hypothesis that employer-provided health insurance as an employee benefit as a reason to remain on a job was independent of age group. A Chi-square analysis revealed that a significantly greater number of women in the middle age group agreed that health insurance as an employee benefit was one of the reasons they stayed at their current job ($\chi^2 = 10.811$,

df 2, p = .004). In this group of women , 45 to 58 years of age, 67.6% agreed that being able to obtain health insurance through their employer was one of the reasons they remained at their current job. This compares with 48.1% of women under the age of 44 and 18.8% of women ages 59 through 74 (see Table 23).

There was statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis that a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 6.143$, df 2, p = .046). Among women in the older group (59 through 74), just over one-half (52.9%) indicated that their job provided a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit, compared to 84.2% of women ages 45 through 58, and 75.9% of women under the age of 44 (see Table 24).

A similar pattern was observed in the importance of a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit, with 70% of women in the older group agreeing that this benefit was important compared to 92% and 96.9%, respectively, of women in the younger and middle groups. Although the Chi-square statistic indicated a probability of less than .05 as to the importance of a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit being independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 6.794$, df 2, p = .033), this evidence is inconclusive because three of the cells had expected values less than 5. This number of cells with expected values of less than 5 exceeds the guideline of no more than 20% of the cells (SPSS, 1999, p. 75). The concern is that the cells with small expected values make large contributions to the size of the Chi-square statistic, which could lead to a Type I error. Therefore, the present study failed to reject the null hypothesis that the importance of a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit was independent of age. The fact that there was a slight trend toward fewer women in the older group, age 59 and older,

Table 23. Employer-sponsored Health Insurance as a Reason to Remain on a Job

			Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 years and less	Count	13	14	27
		% within Age Group	48.1%	51.9%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	25	12	37
		% within Age Group	67.6%	32.4%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	3	13	16
		% within Age Group	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	41	39	80
		% within Age Group	51.3%	48.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.811[a]	2	.004
N of Valid Cases	80		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.80.

Table 24. Provision of a Retirement Plan or Pension as an Employee Benefit

			My current job provides me with a retirement plan or pension.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	22	7	29
		% within Age Group	75.9%	24.1%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	32	6	38
		% within Age Group	84.2%	15.8%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	9	8	17
		% within Age Group	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	63	21	84
		% within Age Group	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.143[a]	2	.046
N of Valid Cases	84		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.25.

agreeing that this was an important benefit (see Table 25) might be attributed to the fact that the age of eligibility for many early retirement benefits begins at age 59.5. Whether they opt out of plan participation, are excluded from a plan based on the nature of their job (e.g., number of hours worked and eligibility for benefits), or some other factor cannot be determined from this research.

No statistical evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis that the desirability of the option of flexibility to work fewer hours yet retain benefits was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .794$, df 2, $p = .672$). Similarly, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the availability of flexible work hours and benefits as a motivator to extend time in the workforce was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .382$, df 2, $p = .826$). Of note, however, is the fact that 70.5% of the respondents agreed that the flexibility of an adjusted schedule while retaining benefits was a desirable option, and 62% agreed with the statement, "If flexible work hours and benefits were available to me, I would probably extend my time in the work force (that is, I would not retire as early)." While this response was not dependent on the age group of the respondent, it is worthy of consideration by human resource professionals in analyzing such issues as alternate work schedules and job sharing.

Chi-square analyses, using a three (age group) by two (yes/no) contingency table, revealed no relationship between age group and health status. No differences were found between groups for age and diagnosis of a serious illness or health problem ($\chi^2 = 2.491$, df 2, $p = .288$) or for age and the presence of a chronic illness or disability ($\chi^2 = .4.113$, df 2, $p = .128$). Though no statistical significance was found, it is worth noting that more

Table 25. Importance of a Retirement Plan or Pension as an Employee Benefit

			If provided, a retirement plan or pension is an important benefit of my job.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	23	2	25
		% within Age Group	92.0%	8.0%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	31	1	32
		% within Age Group	96.9%	3.1%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	7	3	10
		% within Age Group	70.0%	30.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	61	6	67
		% within Age Group	91.0%	9.0%	100.0%

a. N=67 reflects the fact that only those participants whose job provided a retirement plan or pension responded to this question.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.794[a]	2	.033
N of Valid Cases	67		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .90.

than a quarter (26.5%) of the women in the study indicated that they had been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem at some point in time, and more than one in ten (13.1%) reported currently having a chronic illness or disability. This finding is noteworthy from the perspective of financial education and planning for women regarding the need for short- and long-term disability preparedness.

Similarly, although no statistical evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis that the potential need to serve as a caregiver for a parent or other family member is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .537$, df 2, $p = .765$), three-quarters (74.7%) of the respondents agreed that they would have to provide care if something happened to a parent or other family member. In a related question, no significant difference was found between age group and current or past family caregiving responsibilities ($\chi^2 = 4.592$, df 2, $p = .101$). It is also worth noting, however, that more than one-third (39.3%) of the women indicated that they were currently or had been in the past responsible for family caregiving. Although there was no evidence to reject the hypotheses that either the potential for caregiving responsibilities or actual caregiving experience are independent of age group, the number of women overall who were, had been, or may be in the role of family caregiver in the future underscores the importance of examining caregiving demands placed on women.

Eighty percent of all women responding--25 (92.6%) age 44 or under, 30 (83.3%) age 45 through 58, and 9 (52.9%) age 59 through 74--agreed that time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care would be an important employee benefit to them. There was evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the importance to working women of time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care was

independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 10.705$, df 2, $p = .005$), with older women differing in their response from women in the young and middle adulthood groups (see Table 26).

Potential for Job-lock, Entrepreneurship, Early Retirement, and Job Security

For the fourth research objective, women's responses to selected questions were analyzed to ascertain the potential for job-lock, entrepreneurial inclination, and early retirement. The issue of perceived job security also was addressed. Seven dependent variables were analyzed based on the independent variable of age group. The dependent variables and null hypotheses were derived as follows:

Potential Job-lock, Entrepreneurial Inclination, and Early Retirement.

(a) Survey question 20. Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job. Null hypotheses: The ability to obtain health insurance through an employer as a reason to remain in a job is independent of age group.

(b) Survey question 26. I might leave my job and do something else (different job, own business, etc.) if I knew I could get quality, affordable health insurance. Null hypotheses: Potential for job-lock due to concerns about being able to obtain health insurance is independent of age group.

(c) Survey question 24. Sometimes I fantasize about a new line of work or a new career. Null hypotheses: Fantasizing about a new line of work or a new career is independent of age group.

(d) Survey question 25. If I had the money, I would open my own business. Null hypotheses: Interest in starting one's own business is independent of age group.

Table 26. Importance of Time Off for Family Caregiving and/or Company-sponsored Elder Care

			Time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care would be an important employee benefit to me.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	25	2	27
		% within Age Group	92.6%	7.4%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	30	6	36
		% within Age Group	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	9	8	17
		% within Age Group	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	64	16	80
		% within Age Group	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.705[a]	2	.005
N of Valid Cases	80		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.40.

(e) Survey question 27. If an acceptable early retirement package were offered to me, I would retire now. Null hypotheses: Willingness to accept an acceptable early retirement package is independent of age group.

Job Security (personal experience with and/or exposure to "downsizing")

(a) Survey question 22. Within the last 10 years, someone in my family has been through "downsizing." Null hypotheses: Having a family member who has experienced "downsizing" is independent of age group.

(b) Survey question 23. Within the last 10 years, I have personally been through a "downsizing." Null hypotheses: Having personally experienced "downsizing" is independent of age group.

Potential Job-lock and Entrepreneurial Inclination

There was statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the ability to obtain health insurance through an employer as a reason to remain in a job was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 10.811$, df 2, $p = .004$). More than two-thirds (67.6%) of the respondents in the middle age group, ages 45 through 58, agreed with the statement, "Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job." Less than half (48.1%) of women age 44 and under and only 18.8% of women ages 59 through 74 years of age agreed with the statement (see Table 27). In a related question, a similar though not statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 4.408$, df 2, $p = .11$) trend emerged with 43.2% of the women in the middle age group agreeing that they might leave a job and do something else (different

Table 27. Employer-sponsored Health Insurance as a Reason to Remain on a Job

			Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	13	14	27
		% within Age Group	48.1%	51.9%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	25	12	37
		% within Age Group	67.6%	32.4%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	3	13	16
		% within Age Group	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	41	39	80
		% within Age Group	51.3%	48.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.811[a]	2	.004
N of Valid Cases	80		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.80.

job, own business) if they knew they could get quality, affordable health insurance. This compares with 25.0% and 17.6% agreement with the statement among younger and older women, respectively.

These findings might be attributed to the proportion of women in the middle age group who were divorced or separated, hence without the availability of coverage through a spouse if they left their current job. More than one-third (34.2%, $\underline{n} = 13$) of participants ages 45 through 58 were divorced or separated, compared to 24.1% ($\underline{n} = 7$) of younger women and 23.5% ($\underline{n} = 4$) of older women. Although 17.6% ($\underline{n} = 3$) of the older women were widowed, 70.6% ($\underline{n} = 12$) of the women in this group were currently eligible for Medicare benefits or would become eligible within one year. Another factor might be increasing concern in midlife about being able to obtain affordable private health insurance. Cost figure estimates for company-sponsored health insurance indicate that older workers cost 15 percent more than average to insure, with a 55-year-old being more expensive to insure than a 30-year-old (male or female) with two dependents (Quinn & Burkhauser, 1993). The cost differential in private insurance is even greater, and individuals with pre-existing medical conditions may find that coverage for ongoing medical conditions is excluded or limited, or that adequate private insurance may be unattainable due to prohibitive cost.

There was evidence to reject the null hypothesis that fantasizing about a new line of work or a new career was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 7.791$, df 2, $\underline{p} = .019$). A Chi-square analysis revealed that significantly fewer women in the older age group (ages 59-74) agreed with the statement, "Sometimes I fantasize about a new line of work" (see Table 28). Among these women, 23.5% agreed with the statement, compared to 65.5% in

Table 28. Fantasizing About a New Line of Work or a New Career

			Sometimes I fantasize about a new line of work.		
			Agree	Disagree	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	19	10	29
		% within Age Group	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	21	16	37
		% within Age Group	56.8%	43.2%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	4	13	17
		% within Age Group	23.5%	76.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	44	39	83
		% within Age Group	53.0%	47.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.961[a]	2	.019
N of Valid Cases	83		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.99.

the younger group and 56.8% in the middle group. This finding is not surprising, since almost two-thirds (64.7% of the respondents age 59 through 74) were in post-retirement, second careers.

No statistical evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis that interest in starting one's own business is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 1.510$, df 2, $p = .47$). Of interest, however is the fact that 42.9% of women ages 45 through 58 agreed with the statement, "If I had the money, I would open my own business," indicating the potential for entrepreneurial inclination among women, particularly in midlife. This concurs with the fact that between 1987 and 1996, the number of women-owned firms grew by 78% (Center for Women's Business Research, 1997).

Early Retirement

There was no statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis that willingness to take an acceptable early retirement package is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .818$, df 2, $p = .664$). Overall, 63.8% of all respondents disagreed with the statement, "If an acceptable early retirement package were offered to me, I would retire now." This included 62.5% of women age 59 through 74, 59.5% of women age 45 through 58, and 70.4% of women age 44 and younger. While these responses were not dependent on the age group of the respondent, it is worthy of consideration from the perspective of work-life extension.

Job Security and Downsizing

There was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that having a family member who has experienced "downsizing" is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 2.968$, df 2, $p = .227$), although there was an interesting reversal in the responses of women in the young

and middle age groups compared to the older group. Of the 67 respondents in these two groups, 62.1% indicated that "Within the last 10 years, someone in my family has been through 'downsizing'." This compares to 37.5% of women age 59 and older who agreed with the statement. More than half (56.6%) of all respondents had a family member who experienced downsizing.

No evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis that having personally experienced downsizing is independent of age ($\chi^2 = 3.303$, df 2, $p = .192$). Again, there was an interesting reversal in the responses of women in the older group and those in the young and middle age groups. Twenty-three out of 67 (34.3%) women in the latter two groups have personally experienced downsizing, compared to 11.8% (2 out of 17) of women age 59 and over. A total of 29.8% of all respondents reported having personally experienced downsizing.

Perceptions of Retirement, Financial Planning, and Financial Preparedness for Retirement

For the fifth research objective, thirteen dependent variables were used to examine whether the perceptions and responses of working women to the concept of retirement, financial planning for retirement, and their financial preparedness for retirement are dependent on their age group. The dependent variables were divided into two areas: (a) perceptions of the concept of retirement, and (b) financial planning and perceived financial preparedness for retirement. The dependent variables and null hypotheses were derived as follows:

Perceptions of the Concept of Retirement

(a) Survey question 35. I think of "retirement" as a time to stop working altogether. Null hypotheses: Perceiving "retirement" as a time to stop working altogether is independent of age group.

(b) Survey question 36. I think of "retirement" as a time continue working, but at a slower pace. Null hypotheses: Perceiving "retirement" as a time to continue working, but at a slower pace, is independent of age group.

(c) Survey question 37. I think of "retirement" as a time to quit my job and start my own business or work at something I've always wanted to do (either part time or full time). Null hypotheses: Perceiving "retirement" as a time to quit a job and start a business or new work/career is independent of age group.

(d) Survey question 38. When (or if) I retire, I will do volunteer work. Null hypotheses: Perceiving retirement as a time to do volunteer work is independent of age group.

(e) Survey question 39. When (or if) I retire, I plan to enjoy primarily a life of leisure. Null hypotheses: Perceiving "retirement" as a time to enjoy primarily a life of leisure is independent of age group.

(f) Survey question 40. When (or if) I retire, I plan to travel. Null hypotheses: Perceiving "retirement" as a time to travel is independent of age group.

(g) Survey question 41. When (or if) I retire, I would like to go back to school, or to take classes in the community or at a local college. Null hypotheses: Perceiving "retirement" as a time for continuing education is independent of age group.

(h) Survey question 50a. When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present home?; and survey question 50b. When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present city or location? Null hypotheses: Preference for "aging in place" in retirement is independent of age group.

Financial Planning and Perceived Financial Preparedness for Retirement

(a) Survey question 28. I have done some preparation (or sought professional advice) related to "retirement" and/or "retirement planning." Null hypotheses: Engaging in retirement planning and preparation is independent of age group.

(b) Survey question 29. I am committed to a financial plan for my future, and contribute to it regularly. Null hypotheses: Commitment and regular contributions to a financial plan for the future are independent of age group.

(c) Survey question 30. Compared to others my age, I am comfortable with my financial preparedness for the future. Null hypotheses: Perceiving oneself as financially prepared for the future is independent of age group.

(d) Survey question 42. I have some concerns about having enough money to do the things I want to do in retirement. Null hypotheses: Concern about having sufficient funds for retirement goals is independent of age group.

Perceptions of Retirement

Chi-square analyses, using three (age group) by two (agree/disagree) contingency tables, revealed no relationship between age group and perceptions of retirement as a time to stop working altogether, or to continue working but at a slower pace. No differences were found between age groups and perceiving retirement as a time to stop working altogether ($\chi^2 = 1.140$, df 2, $p = .566$) or to continue working but at a slower

pace ($\chi^2 = 1.256$, df 2, $p = .534$, $p > .05$). Though no statistical significance was found, it is worth noting that 79.8% of all women in the study disagreed with the perception of retirement as a time to stop working altogether, and 66.3% agreed with the statement, "I think of 'retirement' as a time to continue working, but at a slower pace."

In a related question, no significant difference was found to reject the null hypothesis that perceiving retirement as time to quit a job and start a business or new work/career is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 1.259$, df 2, $p = .533$) Specifically, 53.1% of the respondents (60.7% of women age 44 and younger; 51.4% of women ages 45 through 58; and 43.8% of women ages 59 through 74) agreed with this perception of retirement. These responses are noteworthy from the perspective of work-life extension research, planning, and policy.

More than two-thirds (67.9%) of all women responding perceived retirement as a time to do volunteer work. There was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that this perception was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .979$, df 2, $p = .613$). There was also no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that perceiving retirement as a time to enjoy primarily a life of leisure is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 4.083$, df 2, $p = .130$).

No statistical evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis that perceiving retirement as a time to travel was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 3.352$, df 2, $p = .187$). Of interest, however, is the fact that a large majority (83.3%) of the respondents agreed with the perception of retirement as a time to travel, a fact that has implications for travel and leisure industries in the future.

There was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that perceiving retirement as a time for continuing education was independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .123$, df 2, $p = .940$).

Approximately four in ten women (40.5%) agreed with the statement, "When (or if) I retire, I would like to go back to school, or to take classes in the community or at a local college." While these women do not represent a majority, they may represent a niche market to be considered by planners of continuing education programs.

With reference to staying in one's present home, as expected, there was evidence from the sample to reject the null hypothesis that a preference for "aging in place" in retirement is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 6.914$, df 2, $p = .032$). Among women in the young and middle adulthood groups, 44.8% of women age 44 and younger and 48.6% of women ages 45 through 58 wanted to stay in their present home when they retired. Comparatively, 82.4% of women ages 59 through 74 indicated a preference for remaining in their present home (see Table 29).

However, when respondents were asked, "When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present city or location?" the response was not independent of age group. Sixty-nine percent and 62.2% of women in the young and middle age groups, respectively, answered "yes." This compares with 88.2% of those in the older group who indicated a preference for remaining in their present city or location. There was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that there is age-group difference with reference to staying in one's present city or location ($\chi^2 = 3.780$, df 2, $p = .151$).

The response to the question regarding a preference for remaining in one's present home can be attributed to the fact that younger persons might normally not expect to remain in their present home for 20 or more years, while older women may have moved to a "later life" home already. As to preferring to remain in one's present city or location in retirement, one explanation for the fact that there was no significant difference by age

Table 29. Preference for "Aging in Place" in Retirement: Staying in Present Home

			When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present home?		
			Yes	No	Total
Age Group	44 and younger	Count	13	16	29
		% within Age Group	44.8%	55.2%	100.0%
	45-58	Count	18	19	37
		% within Age Group	48.6%	51.4%	100.0%
	59-74	Count	14	3	17
		% within Age Group	82.4%	17.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	45	38	83
		% within Age Group	54.2%	45.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.914[a]	2	.032
N of Valid Cases	83		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.78.

group might be the geographic location of the sample. The relatively high affirmative responses among all groups may be indicative of the nature of the region in which the study was conducted. The sample distribution did not include any major metropolitan areas, and the region is located in a part of the country that includes many retirement destinations. It is noteworthy, however, that among women ages 59 through 74, 88.2% prefer to remain in their present city or location, and 82.4% prefer to stay in their present home. The response from women in the older group concurs with the literature on "aging in place" as the preferred style of living during retirement and later adulthood.

Financial Planning and Preparedness

There was no evidence to reject the null hypotheses that engaging in retirement planning or preparation is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = 1.834$, df 2, $p = .400$) or that commitment and regular contributions to a financial plan for the future are independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .268$, df 2, $p = .874$). A majority of all respondents (81.9%) agreed with the statement, "I have done some preparation (or sought professional advice) related to 'retirement' and/or 'retirement planning'." Surprisingly, women ages 44 and younger led the way in this area, with 89.3% of them indicating some financial planning or preparation, compared to 82.4% of women in the older group and 76.3% in the middle age group. This group also led the way in contributing regularly to a financial plan for the future, with 86.2% of women age 44 and younger indicating that they were committed to a financial plan and contribute to it regularly. Comparatively, 82.4% of women ages 59 through 74, and 81.6% of women ages 45 through 58 indicating such a commitment to their financial future.

Although there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that perceiving oneself as financially prepared for the future is independent of age group ($\chi^2 = .873$, df 2, $p = .646$), there was an interesting comparison from the responses to the statement, "Compared to others my age, I am comfortable with my financial preparedness for the future." Although approximately 8 out of 10 women had indicated some level of financial planning and contributions for the future, only 67.5% of all respondents agreed with this statement. As expected, women in the middle age group were the least confident (62.2%), compared to 72.4% in the younger group and 70.6% in the older group.

The proportion of women with some concerns about having sufficient funds for retirement goals followed a similar trend, with 65.8% of women ages 45 through 58 expressing concern, compared to 58.8% of women ages 59 through 74 and 50% of women age 44 and younger. There was no statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis that concerns about having sufficient funds for retirement goals is independent of age group. However, the percentage of women who have concerns for their financial futures does have implications for women's financial education.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based upon data collected in this study, a number of conclusions may be drawn. These conclusions are enumerated here and discussed. Implications for theory, research, policy and practice are presented, and strengths and limitations of the study are considered.

Conclusions from the Study

1. Examining the value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities related to their work, family, community and self revealed that, while they did not vary across age groups, women in all age groups rated time for multiple priorities as important. A majority of respondents in all age groups rated time for work, professional development, spouse or significant other, children, and friends as important. Notably, time for work and for professional development were rated as important by the women in all three age groups. Even more important, 100% of women ages 59 through 74 ranked work and professional development as having importance. Further, although the roles by which women define themselves did not vary according to their age group, women in all age groups noted role salience with multiple roles. In a similar pattern to ranking time for work and professional development as important, a large majority (82%) of all respondents identified "very much" with the roles of working woman and professional. This was true across age groups, including women ages 59 through 74.

2. Examining working women's motivations to work and whether these attitudes were dependent on age group revealed that women of all ages were relatively consistent in their responses. The only significant difference was in the importance of interpersonal relationships, which emerged as a motivating factor for work among women age 44 and younger and ages 59 through 74 but not among women ages 45 through 58. The majority of women in the present study (95%) agreed that work was a source of friendships. As to other motivating factors, among women in all age groups, 95% (all but 4 respondents) indicated that their work or career was "part of who I am," and 94% considered their work a career and not just a job. Further, 96% (all but 3 respondents) agreed that they derived personal satisfaction from work.

3. The importance placed on selected employee benefits dependent on a working woman's age group supported the concept of job-lock (Cooper & Monheit, 1993) related to the ability to obtain private health insurance among middle-aged women in the 45-year-old through 58-year-old group. The provision of a retirement plan or pension as an employee benefit dependent on age group also was supported, with more older women ages 59 through 74 working in jobs that did not provide this benefit. Overall, 91% of all respondents agreed that a retirement plan or pension was an important benefit. More than two-thirds (71%) of the respondents agreed that the flexibility to work fewer hours yet retain benefits was a desirable employee option. A surprising finding was that diagnosis of a serious illness or health problem was not dependent on age group and that more than a fourth of the participants (27%) in all age groups had been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem, with 13% reporting currently having a chronic illness or disability.

Caregiving as a constant across the lifespan for women emerged as an important finding, with 75% of all respondents indicating the current or potential need to serve as a caregiver for a parent or other family member and 39% indicating that they were currently, or had been in the past, responsible for caregiving in their family—with no significant difference across age groups for these two variables. In examining time off for caregiving or company-sponsored elder care as an employee benefit, the responses were dependent on age group. Women ages 59 through 74 differed in their responses, with 53% agreeing that this would be an important employee benefit compared to 93% of women ages 44 or under, and 83% ages 45 through 58. Overall, however, 80% of all women responding agreed that time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care would be an important employee benefit to them.

4. Examining whether the responses of working women to questions regarding potential job-lock, entrepreneurial inclinations, early retirement, or job security were dependent on age group revealed conflicting findings. While the data supported the ability to obtain health care coverage through an employer as one of the reasons to remain at a job as dependent on age group, leaving a job and doing something else if health insurance was available as dependent on age group was not supported. The findings also supported fantasizing about a new line of work or a new career as dependent on age group, but interest in starting one's own business as dependent on age group was not supported. Results revealed that, while they did not vary across age groups, 64% of the women respondents were not interested in early retirement if an acceptable package were offered. In the area of job security, neither a personal experience with downsizing nor having a family member who experienced downsizing

were dependent on age group. However, an important finding was that a relatively high percentage of respondents had experienced this phenomenon: 30% had personally experienced downsizing, and 57% had a family member who had experienced downsizing.

5. Examination of the perceptions and responses of working women to retirement, financial planning for retirement, and their financial preparedness for retirement revealed more similarities than differences across age groups. The only significant difference was in the preference for "aging in place" in retirement, which emerged as a stronger preference among women ages 59 through 74 than among women in the young and middle adulthood groups. The majority (80%) of all women respondents disagreed with the description of retirement as a time to stop working all together. Almost two-thirds (66%) perceived retirement as a time to continue working but at a slower pace, and more than half (53%) saw retirement as a time to start a business or begin a new career. Only 41% viewed retirement as a time primarily for leisure, while 83% saw it as a time for increased travel.

There were also no significant differences found in responses across age groups relating to financial planning and preparedness for retirement. Although the majority of women indicated that they had engaged in some financial planning or preparation (82%) and made regular contributions to a retirement plan (83%), fewer women (68%) were comfortable with their financial preparedness for the future compared to other women their age. More than half (59%) of all the women respondents had concerns about having sufficient funds for retirement goals, with 66% of women in the middle group (ages 45-58), the highest percentage of the three groups, having such concerns.

Discussion

While age influences attitudes and perceptions of work and retirement in some respects, the results supported the perspective that there is a great deal of consistency among women across all age groups in areas relating to the importance of time spent in selected activities and role identification; motivations to work; the importance of selected employee benefits; career-related issues; and descriptions of retirement, financial planning and financial preparedness. These findings are notable in work-extension research as supporting activity theory (Havighurst, Neugarten, & Tobin, 1963; Rosow, 1967) over disengagement theory (Cumming & Henry, 1961) and examining work as a continuing, lifespan engagement. The findings also may aid in combating ageism among employers because consistencies among workers of all ages make it more difficult to stereotype by age.

Time for Activities and Role Identification

Results of the present investigation were consistent with the conclusion formulated by previous investigators as to role identification with multiple roles by women in all age groups and the potential for role strain and role conflict concurrent with benefits accruing from women's expanded roles. In the course of trying to meet the demands of the multiple roles that they are called upon to combine in work and family arenas, women often experience role strain. In juggling the demands of each role, role strain or overload may lead to negative consequences for the women's physical and/or mental health. If nothing else, as women seek to optimize their human development during their generativity and wisdom life stages (Erikson, 1963), work-family demands and role conflicts may cost them much-needed time for personal growth.

The demands of multiple roles also may have a negative impact on a woman's spouse, children, extended family, marital satisfaction, and job satisfaction (Keith & Schafer, 1991). Work and family researchers have identified possible costs associated with multiple roles that may include reduced individual and family discretionary time; marital stress; increased workload, combining work and domestic responsibilities; workplace frustration (limited mobility and potential for advancement); and resentment for lack of societal support (Lemme, 1999).

On the positive side, however, Marks (1977), Sieber (1974), Thoits (1986), and Verbrugge (1983) independently found that there are benefits to women's expanded roles. Benefits include enhanced self-structure and coping abilities, increased resources and potential rewards, improved physical health and greater longevity, and opportunities for social integration and independence (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977; Verbrugge, 1983; Thoits, 1986). These findings and those of the present study support the notions of role accumulation (Sieber, 1974) and role expansion (Marks, 1977), with the responses of women in this study indicating enhanced self-structure and potential rewards derived from their work and careers rather than role strain, conflict, or overload.

The role of caregiver for dependents is a particularly salient example of a role in the lives of many women that provides demand and conflict as well as opportunities for family strength and self-development. For example, a woman in the "sandwich generation" may have simultaneous caregiving responsibilities for both dependent children and aging parents. While this may increase physical and emotional stress, it also provides women with a unique opportunity to participate fully in the lifespan stages of

family and individual development. However, it also may impact a working woman's career and her potential financial well-being in retirement in negative ways.

Motivations to Work

The only significant difference found in the present study was in the importance of interpersonal relationships, which emerged as a motivating factor for work among women ages 44 and younger and ages 59 through 74 but not among women ages 45 through 58. This finding supports family life cycle research indicating increases in both work and family demands on women in middle age (McGoldrick, 1989; Voydanoff, 1987). Women in this stage of adulthood may have less time to invest in relationships in the workplace. Although all age groups did not perceive interpersonal relationships as a motivator, the majority of all women in this study (95%) agreed that work was a source of friendships.

Work or career as a central part of a woman's identity was found for the great majority of respondents (95%), and 94% of the participants reported deriving personal satisfaction from work. These findings further strengthen the conclusion that the roles of "working woman" and "professional" were very salient across age groups for women in the sample of the present study. It supports Hochschild's (1997) finding that, like men in previous research, women felt valued, often derived more appreciation, and felt more competent at work than at home, implying that they had found a haven at work. While money undoubtedly is a motivator to work, more than two-thirds of the women in the present study indicated that they would probably work even if they did not need the money, and that they would continue to work at their current job.

The consistency of findings across age groups in the present study concurs with the results of a recent survey conducted by Roper Starch Worldwide for Randstad North American (Randstad North America, 2001). Based on a sample of more than 2,300 telephone interviews and 300 online interviews, the Roper study found that money was ranked lower in importance than motivating factors such as appreciation and job satisfaction among employees of all ages. Exploring generational mindsets about satisfaction, motivation, and success in the workforce, the report indicated consistency across workers of varying ages rather than generational diversity.

Importance of Selected Employee Benefits

The importance of health insurance as an employee benefit as a reason to remain on a job among middle-aged women supports research indicating reductions in job mobility, or job-lock, related to employment-related health insurance (Cooper & Monheit, 1993; Monheit & Cooper, 1994). More importantly, the findings of the present study add to the gender-related findings identified by Mitchell (1983), Madrian (1994), and Holtz-Eakin (1993) as to women's issues concerning the phenomenon of job-lock. These studies indicated that marital status and family size may be more of a factor than gender alone and that age-related findings are most likely linked to pre-existing medical conditions.

The finding that the perceived importance of the provision of a retirement plan or pension was dependent on age group, with older women ages 59 through 74 working in jobs that did not provide this benefit, was not surprising. One possible factor related to this would be that women in this age bracket have retired from one career and are pursuing other work options in retirement. Alternatively, since the age of eligibility for

most retirement plans is 59.5 years, they may have begun to access funds from accounts to supplement their earnings rather than currently participating in a retirement plan.

The perceptions of more than two-thirds of the respondents as to the importance of flexibility of work hours warrants additional study to examine its potential as a motivator for remaining in the workforce longer. This conclusion contributes to the work-life extension literature, supporting existing evidence that the ability to work part-time, flexible, or adjusted hours enhances longevity in the labor force (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990). It lends support to advocacy for family-friendly policies affording workers the opportunity for flexible schedules in order to manage effectively work-family demands.

The fact that 27% of the women who participated in this study, across the three age groups, reported having been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem and that 13% reported currently having a chronic illness or disability is especially salient to research and practice as to the efficacy of short- and long-term disability coverage for women of all ages. The finding was independent of age group, meaning this is an issue of universal concern.

With 80% of all women in this study reporting the potential need to serve as a caregiver, the description of caregiving as a lifespan role for women is supported. The prevalence of labor force participation of contemporary women, and their traditional roles as caregivers and kin-keepers may collide in juggling work and family demands. "Women may experience high stress levels from caregiving in addition to working full time, managing a household and perhaps raising children" (Genovese, 1997). In the formative years of their career in early adulthood, many women take time out (full or

part-time) of the workforce to rear children. In mid- and late-career, a woman may find herself at last handling fewer caregiver demands for children and ready to enter a period of maximum productivity and performance (Voydanoff, 1987). During these times, her work-family time allocation then may be impacted by the new demands for kin care of frail elders. "Traditionally, women have been held responsible for the maintenance of family relationships and for all caretaking: for their husbands, their children, their parents, their husband's parents, [grandchildren], and any other sick or dependent family members" (McGoldrick, 1989, p. 31).

According to Stone, Cafferata, and Sangl (1987), 30% to 40% of caregivers of older people are adult children, with 80% of these being women. Research has shown that daughters are more willing to take on dependent care for aging, widowed parents (Lewis, 1990), with approximately one-fifth of women aged 55-59 providing care to an elderly relative (McGoldrick, 1989). In addition to having career and financial ramifications, caregiver stress may impact a woman's mental and physical health. For example, depression rates among caregivers are between 30% and 50% (Lemme, 1999), with caregivers having been termed "hidden victims" (Crossman, London, & Barry, 1981; Zarit, Orr, & Zarit, 1985, in Lemme, 1999). In 1994, Bodnar and Kiecolt-Glaser noted anxiety disorders linked to chronic caregiver stress persisting three years after the patient's death (Lemme, 1999, p. 283).

Brody (1981) noted the family-workplace stress link, calling employed women in the caregiver role "women in the middle," pulled by marital, parental, filial, and work responsibilities. However, in the midst of the plethora of negative images and findings relating to working women, there are positive impacts on individual development and the

well-being of the family. Barnett and Rivers (1996) and Coontz (1997) both found lower rates of depression and enhanced physical as well as emotional well-being among working women. Greenberg (1994) acknowledged the demands of caring for an elder parent, but she also pointed out the opportunities kin care provides adult children and their aging parents. She spoke of these opportunities for both individual and family well-being.

Career-Related Issues

Closely related to the need for adjusted hours or flexible work schedules is the issue of self-employment, or entrepreneurship, as a career-related issue. Boden (1999) found substantial gender differences in the reasons for individuals becoming self-employed. In particular, women—especially women with young children—are more likely than men to cite flexibility of schedule and family-related benefits for becoming self-employed. These findings concur with advocacy for flexible scheduling by the Families and Work Institute, a nonprofit research center advocating for family-friendly policies and programs in response to the changing workplace, family, and community.

The potential for job-lock, particularly among women in the productive years of midlife, may have implications for job mobility. This, in turn, can serve as a deterrent to entrepreneurship among women. Though not statistically significant, 43% of women in the middle age group agreed that they might leave a job and do something else (different job, own their own business) if they knew they could get quality, affordable health insurance. This percentage compared with 25% and 18% agreement with the statement among younger and older women respectively. There were 3.4 million self-employed women working in nonagricultural industries in 1999 (U.S. Department of Labor

Women's Bureau, 2000). According to the Center for Women's Business Research (1997), between 1987 and 1996, the number of women-owned firms grew 78%, contributing to job creation in the private sector. Employment growth in women-owned businesses exceeded the national average in nearly every region of the country and in nearly every major industry (Center for Women's Business Research, 1997). So, while the potential for job-lock may be independent of age, additional research in the area of health insurance availability as it relates to career planning across the life span is recommended, particularly for women in midlife. Economic policy efforts to spur growth in the entrepreneurial sector should examine motivators and deterrents for women, in particular middle-aged women who may be facing age discrimination and increased risk during periods of layoffs or reductions in force, making self-employment an attractive option or a last resort.

The fact that 30% of all these women have personally experienced downsizing and 57% have a family member who has experienced it, has implications for work-family research.

> Companies are being "downsized" faster than you can say 'outplacement.' But is corporate America engaging in a risky experiment that will boost the bottom line in the short run, but will prove too expensive when all the costs are counted? New scientific evidence indicates that the answer to this question is yes. . . . Corporations may look at the bottom line and revel in their savings, but these short-term savings may turn into long-term costs. Chronic exposure of workers to increasing job demands may rack up huge costs in turnover, absenteeism, and

workers' compensation claims—far more than was saved in the original personnel reductions. (Barnett & Rivers, 1996, p. 141-142)

Many women are also contingent workers—workers who do not perceive themselves as having an explicit contract with their employers for ongoing employment. In February 1999, 2.9 million women were contingent workers (U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, 2000). Many of these workers have varying work arrangements, including being independent contractors, on-call workers, temporary help agency workers, and workers provided by contract firms. Since these arrangements typically lack employee benefits, the findings related to downsizing indicate a need for additional research examining the long-term impact of downsizing on financial preparedness for retirement as well as longitudinal research on individuals and families who experience this phenomenon.

Concepts of Retirement, Financial Planning, and Financial Preparedness

Results of the present investigation were consistent with the literature indicating that the longevity revolution that began in the last century is accompanied by a trend toward active and productive retirement as a preferred choice (Dychtwald, 1989; Friedan, 1993; Manheimer, 1995; Rowe & Kahn, 1998; Levine, 2000; Samuelson, 2000). From new definitions of a "second middle age" (Bronte, 1993; Manheimer, 1998) to visions of a "third age" (Fahey & Holstein, 1993), the middle and later adulthood stages of the lifespan are being redefined.

In his discussion of the "second middle age," Manheimer (1998) characterized life beyond the age of 50 as a time for continued labor force participation and active participation in lifelong learning, travel, volunteerism, and community involvement. He

described second careers and alternative work arrangements as means of attaining work continuity, and advocated for changes in employer attitudes and policies to accommodate older workers. In their philosophy for a "third age," Fahey and Holstein (1993) advocated for continued contributions to society, supported by effective policies and services, and re-examined values to support these efforts. They described the "third age" as the period of life from the 60s and beyond, marked by a period of continued change and development into late adulthood. It is "a time when the cumulative effects of gender, race, and socioeconomic variables, as played out in a strong market economy, are profoundly experienced" (Fahey & Holstein, 1993, p. 244).

Friedan (1993) also embraced the idea that the decades after 50 provide continued opportunities for personal development. She described men and women "clearly partaking of the fountain of age, . . . improvising new patterns for their lives" (Friedan, 1993, p. 247) that might lead them into a new career in their seventies or eighties. She described an array of new choices and new paradigms for aging conducive to age as adventure with purpose rather than age as a problem.

The perceptions of retirement indicated by the women respondents in the present study support the notions of aging and retirement as described by Manheimer (1995), Fahey and Holstein (1993), and Friedan (1993). The majority of respondents (80%) disagreed with the concept of retirement as a time to stop working altogether, with two-thirds perceiving retirement as a time to continue working but at a slower pace and more than half (53%) indicating that retirement was a time for a new business or second career. Forty-one percent indicated they would pursue continuing education in retirement, 68% perceived retirement as a time to do volunteer work, and 83% perceived it as a time to

travel—all activities described for the productive "second middle age" and beyond (Manheimer,1998; Friedan, 1993).

In the wake of such positive press promoting a glowing picture of active retirement, a question arises as to whether these portrayals are realistic. Although the present study supported continued participation in the labor force beyond retirement and travel emerged as a much sought-after activity, health status and financial realities may preclude these choices. With more than one-quarter (27%) of the women in the sample of the present study reporting having been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem and more than one in ten (13%) reporting having a chronic illness or disability, health status in later adulthood may preclude the active retirement choices of many. According to an analysis by the National Academy on an Aging Society based on the 1993 study of Assets and Health Dynamics Among the Oldest Old (AHEAD), 41% of people over the age of 70 currently need help with one or more daily activities (National Academy on an Aging Society, 2000). This is a reality that must be included in family life education and women's financial information programs, not to discourage visions of a "fountain of age" (Friedan, 1993) but rather to encourage prudent planning for a variety of potential outcomes.

Financial shortfalls may further curtail travel and other plans. Although many respondents in the present study said they were investing for retirement, 59% had concerns about having sufficient funds for retirement goals. In terms of total years in the workforce and amount of income available to fund retirement, women are at a disadvantage compared to men. First, they are able to invest potentially fewer total years in the workforce due to career interruptions for childrearing and caregiving. Second, in

spite of economic gains, women continue to earn less than men. Median weekly earnings for full-time wage and salary workers in 1999 were $473 for women and $618 for men. Women, on average, earned only 77% of what men earned (U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, 2000). Women also are more likely to be divorced in midlife or widowed in later adulthood, situations that can create financial hardship. Women's potentially more vulnerable financial position and the concerns about financial well-being in retirement indicated by respondents in the present study support a growing body of literature cautioning aging baby boomers and the cohort following them that their retirement funding may be inadequate (Coplon, 1997; Costa, 1993; Dailey, 1998; Devaney, 1995; Karpel, 1995). As with issues related to health status in later adulthood, realistic financial projections and information should be included in family life education and women's financial information programs.

Implications of the Study

Implications for Theory

This study used developmental theory, symbolic interactional theory, and the feminist perspective as relevant conceptual frameworks. In general, developmental theory focuses on the physiological and psychosocial changes that normally occur in an individual over the lifespan. Increasingly, researchers examine these changes in the context of life events, social and cultural experiences, and contextual environments. With the expanded longevity of the lifespan that occurred in the last century, developmentalists began to explore these phenomena through the life stages of adulthood and aging.

Symbolic interactionism views the relationship between self and society as a process of symbolic communications between social actors, with society emerging from

the interactions between actors. The theory considers self-meanings in roles, or identities, and shared meanings, or symbols (Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz, 1993), with the concept of roles as a basic precept to the theoretical perspective (Klein & White, 1996). The feminist perspective is concerned with gender, oppression, and social and political action. To the extent that current models of work and retirement are oppressive to women's development and identity in both individual and social contexts throughout the lifespan, the feminist perspective complements both the developmental and symbolic interactional frameworks in synthesizing financial, organizational development, sociological, psychological, and family constructs to expand the way we think about women's work and retirement needs.

Utilizing the developmental perspective, the present study combined the lens of gender from the feminist perspective with the notion of continuing adult development for women within the contexts of work, family, and personal and career development. Using this synthesis, the present study has contributed to how social scientists can look at the reciprocal influence of not only life events but also social and cultural contexts on individual development. The overlap of family developmental theory and the family life cycle with individual adult developmental theory also was utilized. The most important contribution of the present study is its consideration of two social revolutions—the gender revolution concurrent with the longevity revolution—as they impact the labor force participation of women within the context of the individual and family developmental contexts across stages of adult development. The inclusion of the gendered perspective along with age allowed the present study to address Gilligan's (1982) critique of Erikson's (1950) failure to describe the process of female identity

development. The present study added to more recent contributions such as those of Levinson (1996), Sheehy (1995), Helson (1992), and Friedan (1993, 1997) considering the lens of gender in the context of adult development.

Another significant contribution of the present study was its conceptualization of career development not only from a life stage perspective but also within the context of multiple roles. The present study supported Super's (1951) theory of career development that suggested that career development was a lifelong, continuous process of developing and implementing a self-concept influenced by life roles and stages (Super, 1980). This conceptualization represents a combination of the developmental and symbolic interactional perspectives, with implications for career development and career counseling practice. Such a view supports advocating continuous, lifespan career planning throughout adulthood. Most important, the present study has implications for extending this practice beyond the age traditionally assigned to retirement. The present study pointed to new paradigms of career continuity into what has heretofore been described as "later adulthood." In this way, findings from the present study supported activity theory as a viable construct for understanding the responses of many contemporary women to aging.

The present study further supported symbolic interactional theory's purported importance of role salience, not just within the context of family but also in the multiple other roles in women's lives. Role salience is supported by the multiple role identification of the women who participated in this study, reflecting similar patterns to those identified by Crosby (1987), Stevenson (1994), Lemme (1999), and Voydanoff (1984, 1987). Among the women who participated in the present study, the apparent normative

expectation of this identification with multiple roles (Barnett & Rivers, 1996; Coontz, 1997) corroborates the role accumulation hypothesis of Sieber (1974) and the role expansion hypothesis of Marks (1977).

The findings of the present study corroborate also those of White (1999), which integrated Voydanoff's (1987) three constructs for the sequencing of work and family stages with family developmental theory to yield three hypotheses in regard to work-family career stages and their relationships to satisfaction with the balance between work and family. According to White (1999),

> The interaction of one's work career and the family career has been mainly examined by the stress, conflict, and imbalance it brings to the juggling of multiple roles and role demands. Although the debate between role expansion theory and role strain theory is far from resolved, it does seem likely that there is some truth to both perspectives. (White, 1999, p. 163)

The feminist perspective as utilized in the present study has implications for advocacy for social change to accommodate new realities not only of gender, but also of aging. Much as classic feminist theorist Charlotte Perkins Gilman (1898, 1968) played a part in pronouncing a "grand domestic revolution" in women's lives, a contemporary feminist perspective on gender and aging in the workforce provides a basis for the rethinking of workforce policies as women and the workforce in general age. As Gilman's era demanded wages for housework, housewives' cooperatives, day-care centers, and community dining clubs (Hayden, 1981, p. 598), the present study provides a foundation for additional work in such areas as elder care, health care reform, women's

financial security measures across the lifespan, and education for women in the areas of financial preparedness and retirement planning.

Findings further add support to Riley's (1992) argument for changes in social structures to aid an aging population's expression of its potentials and the optimization of role structures through increased opportunities for expanded work options. The present study corroborates Riley's (1992) contention that structural interventions will have positive implications not only for older women but also for young and middle-aged women as well. In addition, although the focus of the present study was on women, in accordance with the feminist perspective, advocacy for the structural interventions that benefit women's individual, work, and family roles also will serve to expand the potential of men's roles and labor force participation as they age.

Implications for Research

Developmental research often involves longitudinal study in order to view changes over time and at different stages of life. While the present study represents a view of three different age groups of women, its cross-sectional perspective limits it. Additional research from a longitudinal perspective is recommended, following cohorts of women across time. In particular, research is recommended to examine how life events impact women's perceptions and attitudes toward work and retirement. For example, what is the effect of any interruption or cessation of labor force participation due to unanticipated illness or disability? Whether such an event is due to a woman's own illness or disability or that of a family member, it has been shown to impact a woman's long-term financial security and well-being (Shaw, 1983; Coplon, 1997; Dailey, 1998). Health status has been shown to have a major impact on women's attitudes, socialization,

and quality of life in aging, as well as being related to economic status. For example, early retirement due to illness or disability is a factor in lower income and poverty levels of women in later life (Fiske & Chiriboga, 1990).

A follow-up study using the variable of marital status would be valuable to further explore factors that influence women's attitudes toward work and retirement. Possibly more than age, the presence or absence of a life and financial partner may have an impact on a woman's perceptions of her financial future, as well as her need for certain work-related benefits. Based on written comments on questionnaires received from respondents in the present study, any research incorporating marital status should be inclusive of partners other than marital, including same-sex partnerships. Also, the presence or absence of additional family support (siblings, adult children, non-affiliated kin) is recommended for inclusion in future research.

The present study has shown that while there are differences across the lifespan in women's development, there are consistencies for women across adulthood also. For example, caregiving is not just a "sandwich generation" phenomenon. While there is the possibility that some respondents included caring for children in the rubric of family caregiving addressed in this study, women in all ages groups, notably in the young and middle adulthood groups, affirmed their responsibility for elder care. It appeared that younger women perceive a need to assist in caregiving for elder relatives and friends with great frequency, just as do women in middle- and late-middle age. This finding supports the notion of the "club sandwich" analogy, indicating a need for expanded research into the caregiving demands on multiple generations of women throughout the life course.

Another variable that might prove valuable for further research is educational status. A woman's economic potential, mobility, and opportunities may further influence her attitudes and perceptions of work and retirement. Further, future research samples should be expanded to include women reflecting greater diversity in socioeconomic status, cultural diversity, and a broader range of occupational groups.

The questionnaire should be revised to include more in-depth questions related to specific employee benefits (e.g., adjusted work hours, flexible time, caregiving needs for both children and elders, health and disability insurance) and financial preparedness questions relating to actual financial planning behavior compared to projected financial well-being. Certainly, based on the relatively high response rate from all women in this study to questions relating to their potential for illness and disability, additional research is indicated in the areas of long-term care and disability insurance. This has implications not only for additional research but also for policy and practice in the delivery of human resource elements in the world of work.

Another issue in the area of employee benefits that warrants additional examination is job-lock. "Most private health insurance in the United States is an employment-related, nonportable fringe benefit" (Cooper & Monheit, 1993), and the risk of losing coverage can be challenging for workers of all ages. However, it appears in this study that the issue of the availability of affordable private health insurance in the absence of employer provided coverage is particularly important for women in middle adulthood. With 68% of the women in this group agreeing that health insurance was a reason to remain in a job, compared to 48% of women age 44 and under, and 19% of women ages 59-74, women in middle adulthood seem more vulnerable to job-lock.

Monheit and Cooper (1994) found that both women and men in midlife were motivated to retain employer-sponsored healthcare coverage benefits based on the reality of pre-existing conditions. Cooper and Monheit's (1993) study of the inhibiting effects of employment-related health insurance on job mobility supported the occurrence of job-lock, indicating that policyholders of employment-related coverage were 3.5 times less likely to change jobs than uninsured workers. Other studies varied in their estimates of job-lock, ranging in estimates from 20% to 40% reductions in mobility rates (Monheit & Cooper, 1994). Using rational choice and game theory modeling, Mitchell (1983), Madrian (1994), and Holtz-Eakin (1993) conducted studies that found relationships between reduction rates and workers' gender, marital status, and family size. However, additional research is needed to clarify these findings by further examining not only the relationship between gender, marital status and job-lock but also age and health status.

The present study indicated that substantial numbers of women in the young adult and middle-age cohorts have been affected by downsizing. As with the issue of job-lock, additional research on downsizing is recommended to examine how the variables of gender, age, marital status, and possibly health status interact in issues of job loss and the resulting loss of employment-related health insurance and other fringe benefits, such as employer contributions to a retirement fund. Downsizing may have long-term influences on a woman's ability to retire (lack of pension continuity, underemployment post-downsizing, depletion of assets). It also may have an impact on how women perceive themselves in terms of career positioning, fears for job security, and attitudes of employee loyalty that are conveyed to their children, as well as other effects.

Questions pertaining to the moderating effects of gender on an individual's coping with downsizing—and other life events in adulthood—would add to our understanding of adult development. For example, related to gender, do the multiple roles and social support networks enjoyed by women as reported in this study have any moderating effects in the areas of job loss, financial or career setbacks, and other types of work-status losses associated with the aging process? I recommend a more in-depth, qualitative study in this area, as further exploration of the downsizing experience for both women and men is warranted. Such research is especially important among women in midlife because, as evidenced in this study and other research, this group is more prone to be divorced and then remain single than younger women.

Findings from the present study seem to indicate that most women in the middle-adulthood and younger cohorts do not want to retire in the traditional definition of retirement. These findings support the recent findings of Moen, Plassman, and Sweet (2001) in the Cornell Midcareer Paths and Passages Study that examined the retirement plans of the baby boom generation. Both the present study and the findings of Moen, Plassman, and Sweet's (2001) study corroborate each other in asserting that the economy, gender roles, families, and retirement are in a state of flux, with old norms and institutional policies regarding retirement being out of date. Baby boomers are predicted to transform the institution of retirement, and the younger cohort following them appears to concur with this transformative approach to aging. This transformation has implications for future research in terms of projected changes in retirement patterns, whereas currently 16% of males compared to 8% of females continue to work beyond age 65 (Sterns, Matheson, & Schwartz, 1990). If this trend changes, with increasing numbers

of women remaining in the workforce, research is needed to describe the decision-making process for women. Further, while economic forecasts have been citing trends toward early retirement, both the present study and other descriptions of baby boomers' retirement projections belie such a trend as being universal, particularly among younger boomers (Devaney, 1995; Karpel, 1995; Dailey, 1998).

Future research should expand the concepts addressed herein by comparing the work and retirement attitudes and perceptions of men in age groups that correspond with those utilized in the present study. An unexpected finding of the present study was the consistency of agreement on issues among women in all age groups. It is recommended that this study be replicated by asking the same questions of men. To what extent do men share similar concerns relating to work and family? If their concerns are in agreement with those of women, advocacy for structural changes in labor policy and human resource development policies and practices is strengthened. Indeed, the need for research in this area extends beyond industrial, organizational, and human resource development research. Such issues should receive greater attention in social science research, particularly among family and consumer science researchers.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Perhaps the most significant implication of the present study for policy and practice lies in its implications for career development and career planning. Findings support the notion of career development as a lifelong, continuous process of developing and implementing a self-concept influenced by roles and stages across the lifespan (Super 1980). Hansen (2001) advocated integrating life planning in response to such changes affecting career counseling and career development as (a) convergence of career

development and adult development, especially with adult transitions; (b) emergence of a broader concept of career and career development over the life span; and (c) emphasis on context and multiple identities and their impact on career development.

Included in a lifespan perspective of career development would be contingencies for lifelong learning and training for multiple careers, and career planning that accommodates the overlap of women's individual developmental needs and family life cycle demands across adulthood. In addition, career development and life planning should incorporate concepts of financial preparedness for extended years in later adulthood, potentially involving continuous employment, and certainly requiring the need for financial resources for an extended period of time. The importance of disability insurance and long-term care insurance should be emphasized in financial planning and financial education for women as well.

Related to multiple roles and their impact on career and personal development, feedback in notations on the surveys from several respondents indicated the salience of role identification as a partner in a same-sex relationship. Because these women are not afforded the same protections as women in legally sanctioned marital relationships (e.g., spousal survivor benefits, health benefits through spouse's employer), this is an area with implications for women's financial well-being in aging and retirement in an under-studied segment of the population. This reality has implications for financial planners, elder law practitioners, and family life educators in working with women in a variety of nontraditional partnerships.

Whether they are in a cohabiting arrangement, unmarried and living alone, single parents, or in a dual-earner marriage, women are vulnerable to interruptions in earned

income. This has been a neglected area in women's financial awareness in the past. While the majority of all respondents in this study reported upbeat perceptions of retirement that included travel, volunteerism, continued participation in work and community, lifelong learning, and continued activity, women live longer than men but are more at risk for chronic, disabling conditions. Thus, these perceptions may not be realistic. This reality must be stressed in both practice and policy decisions affecting women's later years, as well as educating women about their greater need to save and investment for retirement.

The findings of the present study support earlier research findings that women have financial concerns about financial security and preparedness in retirement (Coplon, 1997; Crystal, 1996; George, 1992; Shaw, 1983). Nonetheless, the women in the present study reported high participation rates in financial planning and retirement plan contributions. This participation has implications for financial planners and educators, family and consumer science educators and practitioners, and family life education specialists in strengthening women's financial education awareness and opportunities. Financial education for women should begin in pre-adolescence, instilling in young girls the need to be proactive in assuring their futures.

The issue of women's financial security and preparedness in retirement also has potential policy implications as policymakers grapple with the issue of how an antiquated social security pension system might be changed to meet anticipated future demands. Considering longevity tables, it is reasonable to expect that women will live longer and place potentially greater demands on the system than will men. Those in policy-making positions must be made aware of women's potentially more vulnerable financial position. This vulnerability is especially important when considering the fact that women in

potentially more stable and secure financial positions were represented in this study, yet even they expressed concern for their financial future in retirement. An implication for policy and practice, as well as further research, is to address these issues with women in lower-status occupations and in lower-income strata.

Findings of the present study support Moen's (1994) argument for altering traditional arrangements to accommodate new realities of work-family issues. As was seen in the present study, women of all ages are experiencing work-family demands in areas such as balancing the importance of work and professional development with family and individual needs, caregiving across the lifespan, and issues of economic security. In both practice and policy, Riley's (1992) call for structural intervention is supported by the continuities across women's adult work lives that would benefit from age-integration and from family-integrated structures as well. Such policies would benefit both workers and their employers. The cost-benefits of a family-friendly workplace include reduced absenteeism, increased productivity, employee retention and recruitment, and work-life extension (Friedman, 1991; Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991). "Family-friendly policies are friendly not only to individual families, but to the health of the American economy, the bottom line, and the social fabric of the nation. All in all, a real bargain" (Barnett & Rivers, 1996, p. 148).

The findings of the present study inform advocacy efforts for women's individual developmental needs and work-family issues across the lifespan. While there were some differences in work and retirement attitudes and perceptions across women in different age groups, perhaps the most important implication of the present study is that women in all age groups share work-family concerns and issues. Advocacy, policy, and practice

implications include not only age-based initiatives but also options and choices based on both commonalities and diversity of developmental and family experiences. With almost half of the paid labor in the United States now being performed by women, it becomes increasingly cost effective and labor efficient to re-examine workplace policies that promote the productivity and retention of working women. However, it should be noted, again from the feminist perspective, that policies benefiting women and families also will enhance men's work and family options. Barnett and Rivers (1996) described a new dynamic interaction of the American working couple, referred to as the "collaborative couple," a couple that "shares the economic and household management functions of the family" (p. 39). In evaluating the changing corporate culture in light of this new paradigm, they assert that "the corporate culture is lagging behind the people who work within it. . . . We have to realize that there is no separate 'work self' and 'family self'" (Barnett & Rivers, 1996, pp. 136, 147). Research, policy, and practice implications indicated in this study apply to women across all age groups, seeking to unify the work and family lives of working women and working men as well.

Limitations of the Study

As with any research method, the survey method has inherent limitations. Although survey research provides the flexibility to ask many questions of a number of people, the standardization of the instrument may result in superficial coverage of complex topics (Babbie, 1995). Since the initial design remained unchanged throughout the study, it precluded responding to questions about new variables or questions observed in the responses and making observations about them. The closed-ended questions of the survey also limited exploration of potentially valuable contextual information about the

observed phenomenon that might emerge, for example, in interviews or focus groups. Survey research is limited in providing for understanding of the context within which behavior may be interpreted over an extended period of time (Singleton & Straits, 1999).

Another limitation stems from the fact that surveys are subject to reactivity, with respondents tending to give socially desirable answers to questions (Singleton & Straits, 1999). While the questionnaire for this research study was designed to minimize such reactivity, the work ethic imposed by the employment culture of the United States would tend to highlight some responses as more desirable than others in this study. Related to the issue of reactivity and potential response bias, survey research also is limited by the reliance on self-reports of attitudes and behaviors rather than observations of behavior.

Self-selection bias may have contributed to an over-representation of highly motivated working women than might appear in the general population of employed women. There is the potential that this could have been exacerbated by the fact that the Business and Professional Women's (BPW) organization represents a select group of career-oriented individuals who may not reflect the values and attitudes toward work of all women.

Another limitation of this study was the sampling frame. The membership list provided by the BPW was out of date, resulting in a high rate (25.4%) of returned mail with no forwarding addresses. This contributed to a smaller-than-desired sample size. Another challenge presented by the sampling frame was the lack of any identifying information about individuals, such as BPW membership status, age, or employment status. The BPW database did not allow for sorting by any membership criteria, making it impossible to target the mailing by age and work status (full time versus part time or

retired) as originally conceptualized. This limitation contributed to the fact that 22 of the 120 responses (22%) were inappropriate for the study (older than 75 and/or retired).

Finally, the lack of diversity of the sample is a limitation of the present study. In addition to being made up of the aforementioned select group of career-oriented women, the Business and Professional Women's organization is a largely white, middle-class group, particularly in the geographic region that was selected for this study. The experiences reported here should not be construed as representative of diverse racial or socioeconomic groups. The findings of this study are generalizeable primarily to white women with a career orientation—specifically, to those in middle and upper management positions or professions. Nonetheless, this study has made contributions to the existing literature, and subsequent studies with more diverse representation may build on this research.

Strengths of the Study

One contribution of this study was the synthesis of gender and aging perspectives. By combining developmental stages in adulthood with a consideration of the overlap of both the longevity revolution and the gender revolutions as they relate to work and family issues for women across the decades of their work lives, the area of inquiry extends feminist and family research into the disciplines of social, financial, and industrial gerontological perspectives. In addition, it is a contribution to work-life extension literature given from the perspective of women's voices.

A second contribution of this research is the expansion of our conceptions of the role of work in the context of human development through the lens of women's experiences. Through this lens, issues that are salient to women not only in relation to

their family roles but also to their individual career path, retirement goals, and financial well-being are explored.

While the fact that this research is generalizeable primarily to white, middle-class, educated women with a strong career orientation is acknowledged as a limitation of the study, it is also a strength. Thanks to funding aimed at welfare reform efforts such as Families First and other back-to-work initiatives for women, much policy research has focused on women in lower socioeconomic brackets. While this is certainly a critical and needed area of research, the present study highlights opportunities for expanding options and choices for working women in middle and upper-middle socioeconomic groups. For example, efforts to encourage entrepreneurship and small business start-ups by women may be fruitless if the concerns voiced by the women in this study are not heeded. Issues such as health care availability, disability coverage for single women, and caregiver support to allow women to maintain continuity of employment and pension accrual are examples of concerns that are highlighted in this research. Policies that address these concerns, keeping productive women in the labor force for as long as they choose, will have a beneficial impact on their financial well-being in their later years, serving as a preventative measure against public sector funding later. With women at the highest risk for poverty in later life, this becomes increasingly important with the aging of women in the baby boom cohort.

Summary

The findings of the present study suggest that, although women in different stages of adulthood differ in some of their motivations, attitudes, and perceptions of work and retirement, there are more consistencies across age groups than differences. The findings

of this study support activity theory (Havighurst, Neugarten, & Tobin, 1963; Rosow, 1967), as well as the role accumulation (Sieber, 1974) and role expansion (Marks, 1977) perspectives, in a sample of highly motivated, career-oriented women. Work and career were identified as a central part of the identity of the women who participated in this study, and intrinsic motivators emerged as being more salient than money as a motivator for work.

The dedication to work and high levels of career motivation across working women found in all age groups, through the age of 74, supported advocacy for increased labor participation and meaningful work opportunities extending beyond the traditional age of retirement. Role identification with career and work motivation were high across age groups, including the oldest age group of working women, ages 59-74. Employee benefits such as health and disability insurance, retirement funding, flextime, adjusted work hours, and support for family caregiving were important for working women across all age groups. Women's role as caregiver emerged as a constant across the lifespan. These findings support work-family programs as being beneficial to working women throughout adulthood, rather than being an issue of generational inequity. Further, consistencies across women in all age groups serve to contradict stereotyping by age and ageism in hiring and employee-retention practices.

The present study supported career development as a lifelong, continuous process (Super, 1980). The findings have demonstrated the need for continuous, lifespan career planning throughout adulthood. Additional research is needed in this area, focusing on trends in work-life extension among some aging baby boomers, in addition to lifespan career planning. Family life education and women's financial education should be

incorporated into lifespan career planning, with financial preparedness in later adulthood being especially important to women.

From a developmental perspective, the present study supports expanded personal choices throughout adulthood that are not age-based and a blurring of life periods (Neugarten & Neugarten, 1986). The fact that the women in this study indicated more similarities than differences by age group concurs with this notion. The implications of this finding from both the perspectives of age and gender lie in what Friedan has termed a Person's Movement (Friedan, 1997, p. 82). Though "we came in different ships, . . . we now ride in the same boat" (Friedan, 1997, p. 72). Within the context of a Person's Movement, policymakers and practitioners in human resources, financial planning, elder and family law, family and consumer science, family life education, and social science research should collaboratively address the longevity and gender revolutions (Moen, 1994) in ways that are conducive to both human development across the lifespan and the social and organizational structures within which development occurs.

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APPENDICES

A. LIST USAGE CLEARANCE: INFOCUS

AUG. -17 99(TUE) 14:43 BPW WASHINGTON DC TEL:202 861 0298

AUG-17-1999 08:52 AM ROBIN. J. ROBINSON 801 849 81

AUG. -12' 99(THU) 21:43 BPW WASHINGTON DC TEL:202 861 0298 P. 005

8-11-1999 18:48AM FROM INFOCUS 7038348118 P. 1

INFOCUS

List Division

To: Vivian Doolidge Charles 202-293-1100 .

From: Jeff Godwin

Date: August 11, 1999

Subject: List Rental Clearance

Mixon Ware-Hargis, Doctoral Student requests the use of the BPW names for her Research Project on Women & Work, & Financial Issues of Aging under the following terms:

List:	Active Members in TN, NC, VA, AL, & GA
Mail Date:	ASAP
Quantity:	~1,000
Rental/Exchange:	Rental

Samples are included for your review (6 additional pages). Please fax response by August 12, 1999 in order to meet requested delivery date.

Approved: X Signature

Not Approved _____ Date 8/13/99

Once signed, please fax back to 703.834.0110. Thank you for your assistance.

B. WORK AND RETIREMENT: A SURVEY OF WORKING WOMEN

Work and Retirement:

A Survey of Working Women

A Graduate Student Project

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, KNOXVILLE

Student: Mixon Ware-Hargis
Faculty Advisors:
Dr. Priscilla Blanton
Dr. Virginia W. Kupritz

Your prompt reply is appreciated.

Fold along dotted line to mail.

TO: **Mixon Ware-Hargis**
The University of Tennessee
Box 8900
Knoxville, TN 37996-0001

Complete the survey, then,
Fold along dotted line, tape or staple below ✓ and mail.

WORK AND RETIREMENT: A SURVEY OF WORKING WOMEN

THANK YOU FOR HELPING US LEARN MORE ABOUT HOW WORKING WOMEN FEEL ABOUT WORK AND RETIREMENT. THIS SURVEY CONSISTS OF 50 QUESTIONS, AND TAKES APPROXIMATELY 15 MINUTES TO COMPLETE. WHEN YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT, SIMPLY FOLD, SEAL, AND MAIL IT. AGAIN, THANKS!

YOU DO NOT HAVE TO PROVIDE YOUR NAME IN ORDER TO TAKE PART IN THE SURVEY. PARTICIPATION IN THIS RESEARCH IS VOLUNTARY, AND THERE IS NO PENALTY OR OBLIGATION SHOULD YOU CHOOSE NOT TO COMPLETE THE SURVEY. YOUR RETURN OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE WILL INDICATE YOUR CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY, AND THAT YOU UNDERSTAND THAT INFORMATION GATHERED HERE MAY BE MADE PUBLIC (PARTICIPANTS' NAMES, IF PROVIDED, WILL NOT BE MADE PUBLIC). IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS, CALL THE STUDENT-RESEARCHER AT (423)603-7226, OR E-MAIL MIXONWH@UTK.EDU.

SECTION 1: INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR WORK, EDUCATION, AND ACTIVITIES

1. What is your occupation or profession? _____
2. What is your current job title? _____
3. How many years have you worked in your current occupation? _____
4. How many years have you worked at your current job? _____
5. How many TOTAL years have you been in the work force? _____
6. Approximately how many hours per week do you work? _____
7. If you are married, what is your husband's occupation? _____
8. Do you plan to retire? *(Fill in the circle to indicate your response - ●)*
   - O No, I hope to work in my current occupation for as long as I can.
   - O Yes, but I will always "work" in some capacity (a different type of job or line of work; part time; volunteer, etc.).
   - O Yes, definitely.
9. If you plan to retire, at what age do you think you will retire? _____ years old
10. A. What education have you completed? *(Fill in the circle[s] to indicate your response[s] - ●)*
    - O High school or GED
    - O Some college
    - O Bachelor's degree
    - O Master's degree
    - O Doctorate or Professional Degree
    - O Postgraduate
    - O Other (Describe): _____

    B. Please list any professional licenses or certifications that you hold: _____

11. How important are the following to you?
(Circle the number in each row that best indicates your response.)

		Not really important (1)	Somewhat important (2)	Important (3)	Very important (4)
a.	Time to devote to my work	1	2	3	4
b.	Time for professional development	1	2	3	4
c.	Time for self	1	2	3	4
d.	Time for recreation and/or hobbies	1	2	3	4
e.	Time for physical fitness (exercise)	1	2	3	4
f.	Time for religious activities and/or volunteer work	1	2	3	4
g.	Time for friends	1	2	3	4
h.	Time for spouse	1	2	3	4
i.	Time for children	1	2	3	4

12. How much does each one of the following roles describe you?
(Circle the number in each row that best indicates your response.)

		Not at all (1)	A little (2)	A fair amount (3)	Very much (4)
a.	Working woman	1	2	3	4
b.	Professional	1	2	3	4
c.	Wife	1	2	3	4
d.	Mother	1	2	3	4
e.	Grandmother	1	2	3	4
f.	Daughter	1	2	3	4
g.	Friend	1	2	3	4
h.	Active community member/citizen	1	2	3	4
i.	Other (Describe): _____ *[Optional – You may leave this blank if you choose.]*	1	2	3	4

SECTION 2: WORK AND RETIREMENT

Questions 13 through 40 consist of a variety of statements related to work and retirement. For each of these statements, indicate whether you *Disagree* (1), *Somewhat Disagree* (2), are *Undecided* (3), *Somewhat Agree* (4), or *Agree* (5).

To record your answer, CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT CORRESPONDS WITH YOUR OPINION in each row.

	Disagree (1)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Undecided (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Agree (5)
13. If I didn't need the money I would probably not work.	1	2	3	4	5
14. If I didn't need the money I would work, but not at this job.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I derive personal satisfaction from my work.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I consider my work a career, not just a job.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My work and/or my career are part of "who I am."	1	2	3	4	5
18. I meet (or have met) friends through my work and/or work-related activities or organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My work (and/or work-related activities or organizations) is a source of social events or activities.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job.	1	2	3	4	5
21. a. My current job provides me with a retirement plan or pension.	1	2	3	4	5
b. If provided, a retirement plan or pension is an important benefit of my job.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Within the last 10 years, someone in my family has been through "downsizing."	1	2	3	4	5
23. Within the last 10 years, I have personally been through "downsizing."	1	2	3	4	5
24. Sometimes I fantasize about a new line of work or a new career.	1	2	3	4	5
25. If I had the money, I would open my own business.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I might leave my job and do something else (different job, own business, etc.) if I knew I could get quality, affordable health insurance.	1	2	3	4	5
27. If an acceptable early retirement package were offered to me, I would retire now.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I have done some preparation (or sought professional advice) related to "retirement" and/or "retirement planning."	1	2	3	4	5
29. I am committed to a financial plan for my future, and contribute to it regularly.	1	2	3	4	5

	Disagree (1)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Undecided (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Agree (5)
30. Compared to others my age, I am comfortable with my financial preparedness for the future.	1	2	3	4	5
31. If something happened to my parent(s) or another family member, I would have to help care for them.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Time off for family caregiving and/or company sponsored elder care would be an important employee benefit to me.	1	2	3	4	5
33. If my company allowed me to work less hours but keep my current benefits, I would like that option.	1	2	3	4	5
34. If flexible work hours and benefits were available to me, I would probably extend my time in the work force (that is, I would not retire as early).	1	2	3	4	5
35. I think of "retirement" as a time to stop working altogether.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I think of "retirement" as a time to continue working, but at a slower pace.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I think of "retirement" as a time to quit my job and start my own business or work at something I've always wanted to do (either part time or full time).	1	2	3	4	5
38. When (or if) I retire, I will do volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5
39. When (or if) I retire, I plan to enjoy primarily a life of leisure.	1	2	3	4	5
40. When (or if) I retire, I plan to travel.	1	2	3	4	5
41. When (or if) I retire, I would like to go back to school, or to take classes in the community or at a local college.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I have some concerns about having enough money to do the things I want to do in retirement.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3: INFORMATION ABOUT YOU

43. When were you born? *(Month)*_____ *(Year)*_____

44. Are your parents still living? *(Circle yes or no)*
Mother: Yes No | Mother-in-law: Yes No
Father: Yes No | Father-in-law: Yes No

45. A. What is your marital status? *(Circle your status)* Married Divorced Separated Widowed Never married
B. If you are married, how old is your husband? _____ years old

46. Do you have children? *(Select and CIRCLE "Yes" or "No" to the right of this question.)* Yes No

47. A. If you have children, list them by "Daughter" or "Son", and fill in their ages. *(Circle D for daughter; S for son)*
Child 1: Daughter or Son - _____ yrs old | *Child 4:* Daughter or Son - _____ yrs old
Child 2: Daughter or Son - _____ yrs old | *Child 5:* Daughter or Son - _____ yrs old
Child 3: Daughter or Son - _____ yrs old | *Child 6:* Daughter or Son - _____ yrs old
B. Do you have grandchildren? *(Select and CIRCLE "Yes" or "No" to the right of this question.)* Yes No

48. A. Have you ever been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem? *(Circle yes or no)* Yes No
B. Do you currently have any chronic illnesses or disabilities? *(Circle yes or no)* Yes No

49. I am currently (or have been in the past) responsible for elder care for a parent(s) and/or other aging relative. *(Circle "Yes" or "No" to the right of this question.)* Yes No

50. A. When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present home? *(Circle yes or no)* Yes No
B. When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present city or location? *(Circle yes or no)* Yes No

Additional comments you would like share:_____

C. COVER LETTER

Ms. Mixon Ware-Hargis
The University of Tennessee
Box 8900
Knoxville, TN 37996

FIELD(1) FIELD(2)
FIELD(3)
FIELD(4), FIELD(5) FIELD(6)

Dear Ms. FIELD(2):

I am a graduate student in the Department of Child and Family Studies at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, completing a research project as part of the requirements for my degree. Because of my interest in professional women's work/family issues, I received permission from Business and Professional Women/USA (BPW) to mail the enclosed survey to BPW members in the southeast. Neither your name nor the information you may share will be provided to any financial planning professional or organization; no one will try to sell you anything as a result of your participation in this survey; and I will not contact you in the future unless you request a copy of my final paper or follow-up information about the study.

As a professional woman myself, I am interested in learning about women's work and retirement attitudes. We now represent approximately 45% of the total labor force, and as we age, our attitudes toward retirement and work will become increasingly important to employers, policy makers, and businesses and services in all segments of the economy. To help us learn more about women's interests and concerns, I would appreciate your helping me by completing the enclosed survey. It should take approximately 15 minutes of your time. Because I respect the fact that you are a busy person with many demands on your valuable time, postage is included along with a seal to prepare the survey for mailing . . . All you need to do is fill it out, fold and seal it, and drop it in the mail.

Our university complies with ethical guidelines in conducting research. As part of those guidelines, I am required to inform you of any risks or adverse consequences that might occur as a result of your participation in this research:

> This research is limited solely to your completion of the enclosed questionnaire, it involves no experimental procedures, and no risk or adverse effects to participants are anticipated. However, there is the possibility that participating in the survey might invoke stress or concern related to personal finances, employment status, health status, feelings related to quality of life, and retirement planning or preparedness. Therefore, a list of resources to contact for assistance in all areas related to financial and retirement planning is included on the reverse side of this letter. The potential benefit to you as a participant is increased awareness of the need for women to be involved in our own financial planning, and to be proactive in planning for our retirement years. Participation in this research is voluntary and refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you may otherwise be entitled. You may withdraw from the research project at any time without penalty of loss of benefits. All returned surveys and the list of women receiving this survey will remain in my possession, and access to this information is limited to myself and my faculty advisor. Your return of the completed questionnaire indicates that you have read and agree freely to participate.

You do <u>not</u> need to include your name on the returned survey unless you wish to receive a copy of the results of the study. If you choose to include your name, it will not be released to anyone. My name, address, phone number and e-mail address are included below. Please feel free to contact me with any questions you may have about the research and the rights of research participants.

Thank you, in advance, for helping a graduate student and woman colleague in the completion not only of meaningful research, but of her goals in the pursuit of her profession.

Sincerely,

Mixon Ware-Hargis
Graduate student, The University of Tennessee
Phone: (865) 603-7226
E-mail: mixonwh@utk.edu

D. RESOURCE LIST

Resource List

THE AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS LISTED BELOW PROVIDE A VARIETY OF SERVICES, REFERRALS, INFORMATION, AND PUBLICATIONS IN THE AREAS OF AGING, RETIREMENT, AND FINANCIAL PLANNING.

AARP
601 E Street, NW
Washington, DC 20049
800/424-3410

U.S. Department of Labor
Division of Technical Assistance and Inquiries
(General questions about pension rights.)
200 Constitution Ave., N.W.
Washington, DC 20210

International Association for Financial Planning
Two Concourse Parkway, Suite 800
Atlanta, GA 30328
404/395-1605

The Institute of Certified Financial Planners
Two Denver Highlands
10065 East Harvard Avenue, Suite 320
Denver, CO 80231-5963
800/282-7526

Chartered Financial Consultants
The American College
270 Bryn Mawr Avenue
Bryn Mawr, PA 19010
215/526-1000

National Association of Personal financial Advisers
1130 Lake Cook Road, Suite 150
Buffalo Grove, IL 60089
800/366-2732

State Agencies on Aging

ALABAMA
Commission on Aging
770 Washington Avenue, Suite 470
Montgomery, AL 36130
205/242-5743

GEORGIA
Office of Aging
878 Peachtree Street, N.E., Room 632
Atlanta, GA 30309
404/894-5333

KENTUCKY
Division of Aging Services
275 East Main Street
Frankfort, KY 40621
502/564-6930

NORTH CAROLINA
Division of Aging
693 Palmer Drive
Raleigh, NC 27603
919/733-3983

TENNESSEE
Commission on Aging
706 Church Street
Nashville, TN 37243-0860
615/741-2056

E. REMINDER POSTCARD

A reminder from a "desperate" graduate student . . .

If you haven't completed and returned the Women's Work and Retirement survey you recently received in the mail, please take the time to do so today. Your assistance in my student research project is invaluable, and I thank you, in advance, for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mixon Ware-Hargis
The University of Tennessee
423/603-7226
mixonwh@utk.edu

F. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES: SURVEY QUESTIONS ANALYZED, SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	
Research Objective 1	
Research Objective 1a. To test whether the value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities related to their work, family, community, and self vary according to their age group.	
Survey question 11 was analyzed to examine the value women in different stages of adulthood ascribe to time spent in selected activities.	
Survey Question:	Q11 How important are the following to you: (a) time to devote to my work; (b) time for professional development; (c) time for self; (d) time for recreation and/or hobbies; (e) time for physical fitness (exercise); (f) time for religious activities and/or volunteer work; and (g) time for friends and family.
Findings:	▪ Value ascribed to time spent in selective activities did not vary according to age group. ▪ However, all three age groups ranked time for multiple priorities as important. ▪ A majority in all age groups ranked time for work, professional development, spouse or significant other, children, and friends as important. ▪ Time for work and for professional development were rated as important in all three age groups. ▪ 100% of women ages 59 through 74 ranked work and professional development as having importance.
Research objective 1b: To test whether the roles by which women conceptualize themselves vary among women in different stages of adulthood.	
Survey question 12 was analyzed to examine the roles by which women conceptualize themselves.	
Survey Question:	Q12 How much does each one of the following roles describe you: (a) working woman; (b) professional; (c) wife; (d) mother; (e) grandmother; (f) daughter; (g) friend; (h) active community member/citizen; and (g) other (describe).
Findings:	▪ The roles by which women conceptualize themselves did not vary according to their age group. ▪ However, women in all age groups noted role identification with multiple roles. ▪ A large majority (81.5%) identified "very much" with the roles of working woman and professional. ▪ "Working woman" and "professional" role identities were true across all age groups, including older women.
Research Objective 2	
Research objective 2: To identify working women's attitudes toward their work (e.g., their motivations to work, what they value in work), and to test whether these attitudes are dependent on their age group.	
Survey questions 13-19 were analyzed to examine working women's attitudes toward their work (e.g., their motivations to work, what they value in work).	
Survey Questions:	Q13 If I didn't need the money I would probably not work. Q14 If I didn't need the money I would work, but not at this job. Q15 I derive personal satisfaction from my work. Q16 I consider my work a career, not just a job. Q17 My work and/or my career are part of "who I am." Q18 I meet (or have met) friends through my work and/or work-related activities or organizations. Q19 My work (and/or work-related activities or organizations) is a source of social events or activities.
Findings:	▪ The majority of all women in this study (95.2%) agreed that work was a source of friendships. ▪ **Socialization emerged as a motivating factor of work among women age 44 and younger and ages 59 through 74, but not among women ages 45 through 58.**

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES: SURVEY QUESTIONS ANALYZED, SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	
Research objective 2, Findings continued	▪ 95.2% (all but 4 respondents) indicated that their work or career was "part of who I am." ▪ 93.9% of all respondents considered their work a career, and not just a job. ▪ 96.4% (all but 3 respondents) agreed that they derived personal satisfaction from work.
Research Objective 3	
Research objective 3: To test whether the importance placed on selected employee benefits depends on a working woman's age group. Selected employee benefits included health insurance; retirement plan or pension; flexible and part-time work hours; family caregiving and elder care; and disability coverage.	
Survey questions 20, 21a, 21b, 33, and 34 were analyzed to examine the employee benefits of health insurance, retirement plan or pension, and flexible and part-time work hours.	
Survey Questions:	Q20 Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job. Q21a My current job provides me with a retirement plan or pension. Q21b If provided, a retirement plan or pension is an important benefit of my job. Q33 If my company allowed me to work less hours but keep my current benefits, I would like that option. Q34 If flexible work hours and benefits were available to me, I would probably extend my time in the work force (that is, I would not retire as early).
Survey questions 31, 32, and 49 were analyzed to examine (a) the respondents' perceived need for family caregiving or elder care as a desirable employee benefit, and (b) the potential demand on working women to provide family caregiving.	
Survey Questions:	Q31 If something happened to my parent(s) or another family member, I would have to help care for them. Q32 Time off for family caregiving and/or company-sponsored elder care would be an important employee benefit to me. Q49 I am currently (or have been in the past) responsible for elder care for a parent(s) and/or other aging relative (Yes/No)
Survey questions 48a and 48b were analyzed to examine respondents' potential vulnerability to short- or long-term disability.	
Survey Questions:	Q48a Have you ever been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem? Q48b Do you currently have any chronic illnesses or disabilities?
Findings:	▪ **The concept of "job lock" (Cooper & Monheit, 1993) was supported among 45-58 year old women. 91% of all respondents agreed that a retirement plan or pension was an important benefit.*** ▪ **The provision of a retirement plan or pension as dependent on age group was supported; older women ages 59 through 74 worked in jobs that did not provide this benefit.*** ▪ 70.5% of the respondents agreed that the flexibility to work fewer hours yet retain employee benefits was a desirable option. ▪ Diagnosis of a serious illness or health problem was not dependent on age group: o 26.5% of all respondents reported having been diagnosed with a serious illness or health problem. o 13.1% reported currently having a chronic illness or disability. ▪ 74.7% of all respondents indicated the potential need to serve as a caregiver for a parent or other family member. (Not dependent on age.) ▪ 39.3% of the respondents indicated that they were currently, or had been in the past, responsible for family caregiving. (Not dependent on age.) ▪ **The importance of time off for caregiving or company-sponsored elder care as an employee benefit was dependent on age group:*** o **Only 52.9% in the older group (59-74) agreeed that this would be an important employee benefit.** o **92.6% of women ages 44 or under, and 83.3% ages 45 through 58 agreed.** o **Overall, 80% of all women responding agreed that this would be an important employee benefit.**

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES: SURVEY QUESTIONS ANALYZED, SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Research Objective 4

Research objective 4: To test whether the responses of working women to questions regarding potential "job lock," entrepreneurial inclinations, early retirement, or job security are dependent on their age group.

Survey questions 20, 24, 25, 26, and 27 were analyzed to examine potential job-lock, entrepreneurial inclination, and early retirement.

Survey Questions:	Q20	Being able to get health insurance through my employer is one of the reasons I stay at my current job.
	Q24	Sometimes I fantasize about a new line of work or a new career.
	Q25	If I had the money, I would open my own business.
	Q26	I might leave my job and do something else (different job, own business, etc.) if I knew I could get quality, affordable health insurance.
	Q27	If an acceptable early retirement package were offered to me, I would retire now.

Survey questions 22 and 23 were analyzed to examine women's personal experience with, or exposure to, the downsizing phenomenon.

Survey Questions:	Q22	Within the last 10 years, someone in my family has been through "downsizing."
	Q23	Within the last 10 years, I have personally been through "downsizing."

Findings:

- **Health care coverage through an employer as a reason to remain at a job is dependent on age group:***
  - **67.6% of women ages 45-58 agreed, compared to 48.1% 44 & younger, 18.8% age 59 & older**
- Leaving a job and doing something else if health insurance was available as dependent on age was not supported.
- **Fantasizing about a new line of work or a new career as being dependent on age group was supported:***
  - **Only 23.5% of women 59-74 agreed, compared to 65.5% 44 and younger, 56.8% ages 45-58.**
- Interest in starting one's own business as being dependent on age group was not supported.
  - But 42.9% of women in the middle group, ages 45-58 would open a business if they had the money.
- 63.8% of the women participating in this research were not interested in early retirement if an acceptable package were offered.
- Experience with downsizing—personal or family member—was not dependent on age group, but
  - 29.8% of all respondents had personally experienced downsizing
  - 56.6% had a family member who experienced downsizing
- The reversal in response pattern between the oldest group and the two younger groups is worth noting.
  - Only 11.8% of women ages 59-74 had personally experienced "downsizing" compared to 34.5% age 44 and younger, and 34.22% ages 45-58.
  - Only 37.5% of women ages 59-74 had a family member who had been through "downsizing" compared to 62.1% age 44 and younger, and 60.5% ages 45-58.

Research Objective 5

Research objective 5: To test whether the perceptions and responses of working women to the concept of retirement, financial planning for retirement, and their financial preparedness for retirement are dependent on their age group.

Survey questions 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 50a, and 50b were analyzed to examine the perceptions and responses of these working women to the concept of retirement.

Survey Questions:	Q35	I think of "retirement" as a time to stop working altogether.
	Q36	I think of "retirement" as a time to continue working, but at a slower pace.
	Q37	I think of "retirement" as a time to quit my job and start my own business or work at something I've always wanted to do (either part time or full time).
	Q38	When (or if) I retire, I will do volunteer work.
	Q39	When (or if) I retire, I plan to enjoy primarily a life of leisure.

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES: SURVEY QUESTIONS ANALYZED, SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	
Research objective 5, Survey questions continued	Q40 When (or if) I retire, I plan to travel. Q41 When (or if) I retire, I would like to go back to school, or to take classes in the community or at a local college. Q50a When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present home? Q50b When/if you retire, do you want to stay in your present city or location?
Survey questions 28, 29, 30, and 42 were analyzed to examine women's financial planning for retirement and their financial preparedness for retirement.	
Survey Questions:	Q28 I have done some preparation (or sought professional advice) related to "retirement" and/or "retirement planning." Q29 I am committed to a financial plan for my future, and contribute to it regularly. Q30 Compared to others my age, I am comfortable with my financial preparedness for the future. Q42 I have some concerns about having enough money to do the things I want to do in retirement.
Findings:	▪ No statistical significance related to concept of retirement being dependent on age: o 79.8% of all respondents disagreed with the concept of retirement as a time to stop working altogether. o 66.3% of all respondents perceived retirement as a time to continue working, but at a slower pace. o 53.1% of all respondents perceived retirement as a time to start a business or begin a new career. o Only 40.5% of all respondents perceived retirement as a time primarily for leisure. o 40.5% of all respondents perceived retirement as a time for continuing education, with the largest proportion being 42.1% of women ages 45-58 indicating that they would pursue continuing education (compares to 41.2% ages 59 and older, and 37.9% age 44 and younger). o 67.9% of all respondents perceived retirement as a time to do volunteer work. o 83.3% of all respondents perceived retirement as a time to travel. ▪ No statistical significance differences related to financial planning and preparedness being dependent on age. o 81.9% of all respondents indicated that they had engaged in some financial planning or preparation. o 83.3% of all respondents indicated that they had made regular contributions to a retirement plan. o Yet, only 67.5% were comfortable with their financial preparedness for the future compared to other women their age; and o 59% of all the women in this study had concerns about having sufficient funds for retirement goals, with 65.8% of women in the middle group (ages 45-58) having such concerns. ▪ **The preference for "aging in place" in retirement emerged as a stronger preference among women ages 59-74 (82.4%) (e.g., significance related to age group dependence).*** o **69.9% of all respondents preferred to remain in their present city or location in retirement (88.2% of those ages 59-74; 62.6% ages 45-58; and 69% age 44 and younger).**

*** Significant at .05**

VITA

VITA

A seventh generation Floridian, Mixon Ware-Hargis was born on the 4th of July in Apalachicola. She relocated to Texas with her parents, Mercia Oliver Ware and Christopher Govan Ware, where she attended elementary school in Dallas and high school in Hurst, graduating from L.D. Bell High School. She completed a B.F.A. in art history and an M.L.A. at Southern Methodist University in Dallas. Mixon began her worklife as a social worker but was drawn to real estate by her love of renovating older homes. A move to Florida provided an opportunity to expand into the development and marketing of more than two million square feet of commercial properties.

Always active and involved in her community, Mixon was selected for Leadership St. Petersburg, and later Leadership Orlando and Leadership Florida. During a Leadership St. Petersburg seminar on education, she commented that she had always wanted to teach and lamented a road not taken. When a colleague challenged her with the words, "It's never too late—do it!" she enrolled in a class at the University of South Florida. This action, along with her marriage in 1989 to Keith Hargis, began a journey of learning, teaching and service that took Mixon to Orlando and Miami, Florida, then Tennessee. While in Orlando, she pursued graduate studies with the Fielding Institute, a pioneer in distance learning. Relocating to Miami with her husband, she worked as a training specialist with the MetroDade Department of Human Resources while continuing her education at Florida International University (FIU). She completed an M.S. in adult education with a human resource development concentration and, inspired by a faculty mentor and her earlier experience in social work with the elderly, she also completed a graduate certificate in gerontology with FIU's Southeast Florida Center on Aging.

Relocating with her husband to his native Tennessee, Mixon joined the Office on Aging in Knoxville where she was instrumental in establishing the intergenerational Family Friends project. She began full-time doctoral studies in the Department of Child and Family Studies at the University of Tennessee in 1997 and will receive her Ph.D. in Human Ecology in December, 2001. She has served as an academic advisor in the College of Human Ecology, a graduate teaching associate in the Department of Family Studies, and taught in the First Year Studies Program. She was selected to serve as a fellow with the university's GTA Mentoring Program, and she received a Celebration of Excellence award for "Outstanding Graduate Student for Advising."

Mixon is a member of numerous professional and honor societies and associations which include: Kappa Omicron Nu, Sigma Phi Omega, the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, the Association for Financial Counseling and Planning Education, the Gerontological Society of America, and the Southern Gerontological Society. Her research interests include lifespan development; lifelong learning and work-life extension, consumer economics and financial gerontology; family life cycle and women's issues relating to aging. In her "spare" time, Mixon enjoys frequent road trips, meandering through the mountains and enjoying the towns and people of the Appalachian region along with their arts and crafts, antiques and foods, historic homes and life stories. She currently lives in Knoxville with her husband, Keith, and their only "child," a Maltese puppy named Maggie Mae. With a passion for lifelong learning, Mixon considers herself richly blessed because she is one of the lucky people whose work is her passion. She loves working with learners of all ages, and feels privileged to play a part in mentoring them as they forge a path to the fulfillment of their goals and dreams.