EDUCATION AND LABOUR MARKET EXPERIENCES: A CASE STUDY

EDUCATION AND LABOUR MARKET EXPERIENCES:
A CASE STUDY OF SOCIOLOGY GRADUATES

By

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ABSTRACT

A survey of graduates of the Sociology program at McMaster was designed in order to provide up to date information on the education and career paths of graduates. Specifically, this 1998 telephone survey (n=306) was used to elicit post-graduate employment and also education and training experiences, methods of seeking employment, satisfaction with current employment and employment prospects, salary levels, and views regarding the Sociology program and the extent to which it prepared students for employment. Included in the survey were those who graduated between 1992 and 1997 (the next to the most recent graduating class), thus providing information on six years of graduates. A 50 percent random sample of those whose telephone numbers and addresses were available was selected. Four-hundred and six telephone interviews were attempted, and 306 were completed. The survey covered a large portion (37%) of the 1092 who graduated from McMaster's Sociology department with B.A., M.A., and Ph.D.s between 1992 and 1997.

From this survey, it is clear that McMaster's Sociology graduates are using their training in Sociology in a variety of employment contexts and that they are making use of it within a wide range of educational programs. The majority had pursued further education following graduation. Most of those who

continued their education did so at the university level and, as one would expect, the Bachelor of Education (Teaching Certificate) was a very popular option. Others pursued university certificates and college diplomas. There was great variety in the educational programs that respondents entered.

Four out of five of those who graduated with a B.A. in Sociology are women. About half of those who graduated with M.A.s and Ph.D.s are women. There was some evidence of gender segregation, labour market segmentation and underemployment of Sociology graduates. Women were disproportionately affected.

The findings of this study support earlier research that suggests that people with degrees in the Social Sciences are faring quite well in the job market. The great majority are employed and their occupations and their income levels are in keeping with those reported in other surveys of Social Science graduates. However, given that about half are employed in the public sector and in the non-profit sector, fluctuations in levels of government support for social programs, education, and for health services certainly affect the employment opportunities of Sociology graduates.

The Sociology program is not a highly selective program and some who entered would have preferred to enter other more selective programs, for example, Social Work. This thesis provides information on the other programs

favoured by Sociology students and the proportions that would have entered other programs were they able to choose their majors again. Again, patterns are in keeping with those found elsewhere in Canada.

Many of these graduates are anxious about their opportunities in the labour market. Some of them question the value of additional schooling. Some of those who already have jobs must decide whether to upgrade their skills or acquire new ones. This study will help answer their questions.

Suggestions regarding the design of future surveys and additional questions that might be included in future surveys are presented.

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Introduction

This thesis examines three aspects of the relationship between education and employment. The first section provides an introduction to the research on the fundamental changes that have occurred since the early 1940s in the relationship between education and employment. The second section provides descriptive statistics on the occupations and educational programs that McMaster Sociology graduates of the mid 1990s entered, while the third section considers some of the broad education and employment issues from the first section in light of the findings from the graduate survey.

However, the principal focus of this paper is on patterns of employment and post-graduate training and education. I present an analysis of the patterns of employment and post-graduate education of McMaster Sociology graduates. I document the employment and post-graduate education patterns of students who graduated between 1992 and 1997. Where are McMaster's Sociology graduates finding employment? In what types of post-graduate programs are these graduates enrolling? This study will provide the answers to questions such as these.

Goals

The main goals are to provide: 1) information regarding post-graduate employment; 2) information regarding education and training following graduation (for example, the fields chosen and the degrees and certificates earned) and; 3) other matters relating to education and training. With regard to employment, this thesis will report on the occupations of graduates, the industries they entered, their annual salaries, whether or not their employment was related to Sociology, and other related issues.

Our findings can be used for several purposes. First, the results can be used when assessing the labour-market experiences of graduates. Second, graduates' evaluations and recommendations can aid directors and educators in guiding program development and in making program changes. Third, this study provides information regarding the value of a university degree in Sociology in the 1990s at four different levels (B.A., Hons.B.A., M.A., and Ph.D.). This study also shows the demographic characteristics of graduates, their post-graduate education and training patterns, and their employment patterns.

Chapter 1

Education and Employment: Trends and Considerations

The Education Revolution

Major changes are occurring in the relationship between employment and education. Although the education system has expanded continuously throughout Canadian history, the growth which has taken place since the mid 1950s has been particularly dramatic. In 1956-57 university enrolment stood at just 78,000. By 1966-67 the number of university students had increased to more than 230,000. By 1990 enrolment had increased to over 850,000 students (Department of the Secretary of State of Canada 1990:1). During this time the proportion of women attending university increased steadily. Before 1960, women made up only one-quarter or less of the undergraduate student body. By 1970, women constituted almost 37 percent of university enrolments. By 1988, more women than men were enrolled in university undergraduate programs (Department of the Secretary of State of Canada 1990:4). Over the years 1957 to 1992 enrolments increased by 294 percent for men, but by 1,420 percent for women (Bellamy and Guppy 1992:169). These massive increases came about not just as a result of the growth in the Canadian population, but also as a result of the increased value that was being placed on education and on the recruitment

of highly qualified employees (Economic Council of Canada 1964, 1992b; Bowles and Gintis 1976; Collins 1979; Statistics Canada 1983; Looker 1994).

The Changing Labour Force: Composition and Organisation

During these years the composition of the Canadian labour force and the kinds of jobs that exist have changed significantly. In 1946, just over one-quarter of all workers were involved in agricultural work and almost one-third were blue-collar workers, while less than two in five were classified as white-collar workers (Statistics Canada 1996:A33-A50). However, by 1995, the percentage of workers in agriculture had decreased to only 3.2 percent and the proportion of blue-collar workers had decreased to about one in five. However, almost three-quarters of workers were involved in service industries (Statistics Canada 1996:A33-A50). All these changes have meant that the types of work that typically require formal educational credentials have become increasingly important.

The organisation of work has changed and the composition of the labour force has become much more diverse. For example, new technologies, new products and services, and new forms of work organisation have transformed the jobs that people do and also the ways in which they work (Rinehart 1986:507-530; Krahn and Lowe 1994:214-224). The transformation of work organisations,

in turn, affects and is influenced by changing types of employment and demands for distinct kinds of employees. Over the last four decades more and more women have entered paid work and, in addition, the labour force has become more ethnically heterogeneous. In fact, Clement and Myles argue that the "massive entry of women into paid work in the latter part of the twentieth century has been as dramatic as the changes in industry composition and are virtually inseparable from it" (1996:105). At the same time, these changes in the occupational structure have meant that the prospects for secure employment are increasingly uncertain for a sizeable proportion of the workforce. Three groups are particularly vulnerable, first, young people who are about to enter the labour force, second, older workers, and third, recent immigrants and minority group members.

Entering the Labour Market

These social and economic changes have been reflected in the changed relationship between schooling and work. In the nineteenth century, schooling had little importance for most of the Canadian population apart from teaching students fundamental reading, writing, and social skills (Prentice 1977; Curtis 1988). Even in the 1950s and 1960s it was quite usual to talk of the transition from school to work as being a short period during which young and sometimes

poorly qualified school leavers searched for employment and changed jobs prior to settling down in their early twenties (Marquardt 1998:40-41). For many, formal education had little or no connection to the types of jobs that most people held, for example, jobs in manufacturing. One of the principal purposes of schooling was to keep young people occupied and to prepare them to contribute to a stable, orderly society (Dreeben 1968; Bowles and Gintis 1976:130-132; Prentice 1977; Curtis 1988; Gidney and Millar 1990). By the 1970s this pattern had changed markedly. The transition between education and employment tended to include periods of employment in short-term jobs, periods of work in government-sponsored programs, and periods of unemployment. Since this time, the importance of formal education has increased and education has now become a major factor in determining patterns of entry into the labour market (Krahn and Lowe 1990:15-26; Tanner et al. 1995:56-69).

In recent years, there has been a further reassessment of the social and economic purposes of schooling (Ontario Premier's Council 1990; Economic Council of Canada 1992b; Ontario Ministry of Education and Training 1996; see Marquardt 1998:65-69). What had once been regarded as a relatively fixed pattern of progression through the major stages of life has come to be redefined as a series of overlapping transitions (Livingstone 1993). This change has evolved in the context of global economic changes. For many young people,

there is not so much a single point of entry into labour markets as a continual

shifting from one educational or work setting to another. Just as increasing

numbers of students seek part-time employment in order to gain experience and

to support themselves while they are receiving formal education, they are also

more likely to return to educational programs after they have started work in

order to upgrade their credentials or retrain for different types of work. As

Livingstone points out, more and more research suggests that life-long learning

has become the norm (Livingstone 1993; 1999:120-132).

Employment and the "Education Edge"

Generally, the majority of evidence suggests that people with higher

levels of education and strong educational backgrounds will be more successful

in the job market than those with limited educational credentials (Blau and

Duncan 1967; Jencks 1972; Knotterus 1987; Kerckhoff 1990; Hunter and Lieper

1993; Statistics Canada 1995b; Tanner et al. 1995). For example, as Statistics

Canada data indicate, those with higher levels of education are more likely to

find jobs, have meaningful work, and earn high incomes (Statistics Canada 1983,

1986, 1996). In Becker's words:

> Probably the most impressive piece of evidence is that more highly
> educated and skilled persons almost always tend to earn more than

others…inequality in the distribution of earnings and income is generally positively related to inequality in education and other training (Becker 1964:2).

In recent years the benefits of education appear to have been especially pronounced for women. For example, the gap between men's and women's labour force participation rates and earnings decreases with each additional level of education. Similar patterns hold true for other minority groups, including immigrants and Aboriginal peoples (Myles et al. 1988; Côté 1991; Li 1996:117-30).

The importance of education for employment takes on greater significance in light of recent data that indicate that it has become increasingly difficult for young adults to settle into long-term, stable employment (Nava 1992:79-81; Tanner et al. 1995:56-73; Marquardt 1998:5). On the basis of his analysis of data collected between 1979 and 1993 on the labour market experiences of young adults, Crompton observes that finding work has become ever more difficult and that in the case of those who do obtain employment, the amounts earned are much less than they used to be (1996:17, see also Statistics Canada 1989; Wannell 1989).

As labour markets become more unstable and more competitive there is additional pressure to achieve ever more advanced levels of education and

training. Just as research shows that workers who enter job markets with strong educational credentials have better opportunities than those with less education, other research points to the importance informal job-related education and training (Muszynski and Wolfe 1989; Sharpe 1990; Darrah 1995). While individuals with a broad range of educational backgrounds are engaging in further education and training, the benefits are not equally shared among all labour market participants. For example, in their study of Edmonton youth, Lowe and Krahn reported that young workers who already have high levels of education are the ones who tend to seek more in the way of further education and training (1994:7). In Ontario, Livingstone found that while highly educated or qualified workers have high rates of participation in further education, there has been a growing tendency for those with limited educational credentials and job qualifications to seek further education (1993). In fact, in Ontario, Livingstone reported that in 1990 about two-thirds of young adults aged 15-25 without high school diplomas and adequate job qualifications were enrolled in courses of some kind.

The above research suggests that many individuals, even those who are already highly educated, require extensive educational credentials and continual upgrading in order to remain competitive in the job market. It is clear that those who fail to achieve high levels of education and up-to-date training are becoming

ever more likely to join the growing numbers of marginal or long-term unemployed workers (Tanner et al. 1995:75-116).

Unfortunately, these research studies do not indicate the extent to which education and training are actually required on the job. One question that must be considered is whether or not the increase in educational credentials is a function of the greater complexity of jobs or whether it is an outcome of credential inflation and other factors that are not related to skills and training (Adkins 1974; Berg 1979; Myles 1988:335-364; Redpath 1994:89-114).

Advocates of the first argument draw attention to the impact of information technology and the creation of new jobs that require a more highly educated and trained labour force. The rise in the numbers of jobs that require high qualifications occurs in a couple of ways. One way is through the creation of new jobs in high-level professional and service sectors. The other way is through requiring higher levels of training of workers in existing jobs. As tasks become ever more specialised and more complex, more advanced types of education are required. Beck argues that since the mid-1980s the growth in jobs in Canada and in the United States has been centred in industries that possess high concentrations of 'knowledge workers'[1], i.e., engineers, scientific and technical workers, and senior managers who possess high levels of training and specialized skills (1992:125-30, see also Perelman 1984). According to a report

published by Statistics Canada, from 1980 to 1990, about 60 percent of growth in Canada employment occurred in the managerial, administrative, and professional sectors (Statistics Canada 1995a:6). This same report also cites research that suggests that nearly half of new jobs that will be created between 1986-2000 will require 17 or more years of formal education and training.

Several other critics have argued that formal education has become a tool for screening out and selecting employees for reasons which have little or nothing to do with the capabilities that are associated with specific levels of educational attainment, the skills that are required on the job, or the abilities of these individuals who have completed specific numbers of years of schooling (Collins 1975, 1979, 1980, 1981; Adkins 1974; Berg 1979; Myles 1988:335-364). Many individuals who have the requisite skills are locked out of jobs because they lack the necessary credentials.

Credentialism and Under-employment

A variety of factors account for the growing emergence of credentialism and under-employment. The supply of workers at a given level of educational attainment often determines what the requirements will be. If the supply of labour of a particular type is limited in a particular area, standards will be lowered. However, since people are staying in school longer, the general

tendency has been in the opposite direction (Marquardt 1998:79). Employers can often afford to raise their educational requirements and still have a large pool of talent from which to choose. In fact, as more and more highly educated workers enter the labour force, employers often respond by raising their educational requirements in order to reduce the numbers of candidates that they must screen and in order to minimise the costs associated with selecting and recruiting new employees (Holzer 1996:52-57). This situation often translates into the issue commonly referred to as under-employment, where individuals with specific skills learned through post-secondary education and training are working in jobs in which they are under-utilizing their skills and education.

As indicated earlier, it has been argued that job requirements are frequently raised because the precise skills required on the job are not easily identified and because they will often change over time. Employees are hired, therefore, because of their ability to learn new tasks. Also, employers often hire workers for entry-level positions with the intention of eventually promoting them. Employers argue that their requirements are determined by the nature of the jobs that these employees will hold in the future, not just by the nature of the positions that they enter on first joining the company (Doeringer and Piore 1971; Redpath 1994:67-93; Rosebaum and Binder 1997:73-75).

Most of the factors cited above, which account, at least in part, for the increase in educational requirements, can perhaps be indirectly related to some of the requirements of jobs. However, it can also be argued that in some instances requirements have been raised solely for reasons which have virtually nothing to do with skills required on the job (Collins 1981:329; Myles 1988:335-364). Many professional organisations, labour unions, and other organised groups establish minimum requirements for the purpose of restricting the supply of "qualified" workers in a particular field. By raising educational requirements, various occupational and status groups have been able to monopolise jobs by imposing their own particular standards on the selection process (Collins 1975:87). The effect has been to create an artificial scarcity of qualified (credentialed) workers, thereby maintaining or increasing the wages that those "on the inside" can command.

As a result of these various uses of educational credentials, people spend more years in school. In turn, requirements are raised. Requirements and levels of attainment reinforce each other in an upward spiral for reasons which have little, if anything, to do with the skills required on the job (Collins 1979:17-18, 1981:211). It can be argued that one major consequence of credentialism is to turn formal education into an institution which restricts upward mobility and contributes to the unequal distribution of income and wealth (Redpath 1994:97-

105). Various interest groups use educational requirements to protect their standing within the class structure by routinely denying entry to individuals who lack proper certification, regardless of the skills and the potential abilities that these individuals possess (Game and Pringle 1983; Bergmann 1986).

Education as Necessary

It has been argued that growth in the fields of engineering, management, science, and technology is essential to enable Canadian companies, both large and small, to remain competitive in a highly competitive economy (Economic Council of Canada 1992b; Thurow 1992). This argument maintains that education has played a vital role in the development of Canada as an advanced industrial society. This has been achieved by providing the highly skilled workforce that is needed to keep Canada competitive. The dramatic expansion of formal education, therefore, came about in order to meet the technical needs of an expanding, industrialised nation.

Implicit in this analysis of education is a conception of Canadian society as a social system in which various individuals and organisations perform specific, specialised tasks which are functional for the maintenance and prosperity of the system. Education, like other parts of the system, is seen as

evolving in order to improve the society as a whole and to benefit the lives of individuals of that society.

Education and training can also smooth the relationships between educated workers and employers because educated people are better able to secure employment, because they receive higher wages and benefits, and because they usually have better working conditions (Economic Council of Canada 1992b:1). In other research, Bowlby indicates that in addition to receiving higher wages, graduates whose jobs are closely related to their fields of study are the most likely to be satisfied at work (1996:35).

A much less optimistic approach is taken by those who stress that the categorisation of jobs or industries by job titles and by educational levels is frequently misleading, because job titles seldom indicate how work is actually changing. Recent economic restructuring has been typified by the disappearance of secure, better paying work and by the proliferation of low-end jobs as businesses deliberately pursue strategies that will help them reduce labour costs (O'Neill 1991:12; Krahn and Lowe 1996:98-100). Traditional industries and businesses often adopt the strategy of phasing out existing jobs, while the new jobs that are created, particularly new jobs in the service sector, require limited skills and are poorly paid (Myles et al. 1988; Krahn 1990:1; Morissette 1991; Wannell 1991). As overall educational levels rise and as job descriptions

change, employers are able to keep wage rates low because of the competition
that is generated by the existence of labour surpluses, by claiming that the
available workers do not have the relevant skills, and by transferring production
from regions with high labour costs to those with lower labour costs. A great
deal of the recent growth in employment has been in service sectors and these
industries tend to be characterised by part-time and temporary work that offers
low wages, few benefits, and poor working conditions (Economic Council of
Canada 1990; Betcherman et al. 1994:74-76). Statistics Canada reported that
between 1975 and 1993 non-standard employment, for example, temporary and
part-time work, increased from 23.6 to 30 percent of the total labour force
(Betcherman et al. 1994:76). Educated workers may increasingly be forced to
accept these kinds of jobs (Clark et al. 1986; Krahn and Lowe 1990:10-14;
Nobert et al. 1992). On the basis of their analysis of a national survey of the
Canadian labour force in the early 1980s, Jamsin and McDowell concluded that
only half of social science graduates held jobs that were related to their education
(1989). Grayson, reporting on the experiences of York University graduates,
reports that 27.1 percent of graduates felt that their jobs were closely related to
their educations, 30 percent thought that there was some relationship between
their jobs and educations, while 43 percent believed that their jobs and their
educations were unrelated (Grayson 1998:10).

Recent research on the changing nature of employment suggests a much more complex picture than that which is suggested by the two arguments outlined above. Considerable attention has been focused on the tendency towards polarisation, on the growth of both high-end and low-end jobs, and on the corresponding decline in mid-level jobs (Appelbaum 1987:196; Myles et al. 1988; Krahn 1990; Economic Council of Canada, 1990; 1991; 1992a; 1992b; 1992c; Statistics Canada 1992; Broad 1995; Jones 1995; Menzies 1996). These analyses have emphasised the declines in employment in goods-producing industries relative to the substantial increases in service-sector employment, while at the same time arguing that the demand for highly skilled, well-paid employees in many industries has increased as a consequence of new production techniques and the application of information technologies. However, increased productivity, workplace restructuring, and downsizing have led to widespread lay-offs, to the intensification of work, and to de-skilling (Braverman 1984; Clement 1981; Newton 1992: 41-43; Robertson and Wareham 1989; Milkman and Pullman 1991). These cost-cutting strategies allow companies to introduce new technology without retraining workers (Betcherman et al. 1994:91). In the process, several trends emerge, the most notable of which involve the expansion of the white-collar sector, the growth in part-time employment relative to full-time employment, and the increase in long-term unemployment.

Labour Market Segmentation

When analysing labour force trends, it is often tempting to look at the patterns and to conduct the inquiry as if these patterns affect all workers equally. However, labour market transformations have different consequences for different categories of workers. An analysis of labour market polarisation, conducted for Human Resources and Development Canada, revealed that between 1984 and 1993 the degree of polarisation had decreased for women, had increased for men, and had increased most dramatically for workers under 35 years of age (1996:6). Some commentators, therefore, have argued that the labour market is best viewed as a segmented one rather than as a unified one in which people are rewarded in proportion to their educational qualifications and their skills (Doeringer and Piore 1971; Piore, 1979; Bolaria and Li, 1988). This kind of analysis seeks to explain how members of subordinate social groups, most notably women and visible minorities, are concentrated in lower paying, more insecure jobs. White men, on the other hand, tend to work for larger employers, to experience better working conditions, and to receive higher wages. This primary sector of the labour market usually consists of jobs in large, profitable, unionized companies. These workers tend to have higher incomes, to have better opportunities for advancement as employees accumulate skills and knowledge, to enjoy superior working conditions, and to experience greater

stability. In contrast, the secondary sector consists of low paying jobs that tend to be held by workers who are discriminated against and who have unstable work histories. Jobs in the secondary sector of the labour market are often labelled "dead-end jobs" because they seldom offer opportunities for upward mobility. Segmented labour market models are useful in demonstrating that not all workers are competing for the same jobs. These models also offer us some insight into how educational qualifications may serve to differentiate distinct pools of workers. For example, the practice of streaming in Canadian schools operates to select students for particular positions within segmented labour markets (Gordon 1972:50; Curtis et al. 1992; Gaskell 1992).

Despite the insights that they offer, segmented labour market theories do not provide a complete explanation of inequalities within labour markets. Labour markets are both much more complicated and much less static than this approach suggests. For example, immigration policies have been modified in recent decades. Changes in policy have enabled large numbers of both highly qualified immigrants and poorly educated immigrants from Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean regions to enter Canada. This change has resulted in a situation in which there are high concentrations of visible minorities in managerial and professional occupations and low-skill occupations (Bolaria 1987; Côté 1991). In addition, the declining numbers of jobs in traditional labour markets (i.e.,

manufacturing), combined with the growth of small businesses and the increases in the numbers employed in non-traditional occupations, has led to the blurring of the boundaries between the primary and the secondary segments of the labour force. Furthermore, this approach does not adequately address the changing role of women in a labour market that is still to a considerable extent segregated by gender (Gunderson et al. 1990; Krahn and Lowe 1990:11-14; 1994:149-187; Renzetti and Curran 1992:88; St. Pierre 1994; Clement and Myles 1996:105-112; Crysdale et al. 1999:137).

Gender Segregation

Gender segregation refers to the employment of women and men in separate occupations (Perry, Davis-Blake, and Kulik 1994). In 1946 fewer than 20 percent of Canadian women aged 25 and over participated in the paid labour force and only about one-third did so in the late 60s. By 1970, 38 percent of women worked outside the home for pay. However, by the 1990s nearly 60 percent of women worked. Men's participation rates have declined somewhat over the same time period, but men's rates remain relatively high. In 1946 men's rates stood at about 90 percent, 85 percent in the late 1960s, and at just under 75 percent in 1995 (Bernier, 1996:A48-49). By 1996, women were represented in substantial numbers and proportions in a wide range of occupational groups

(Statistics Canada 1991; 1996). Women's participation in many higher-paying fields, such as managerial, administrative, and professional occupations, has increased as access to advanced levels of education has become easier and as employers have become more open in their hiring practices. However, the data also show that women are concentrated in a few specific areas, notably clerical, sales, and service occupations, occupations that are characterised by low wages and relatively little autonomy (Jenson 1989; Gunderson et al. 1990: 220-221; Horrell et al. 1990; Crysdale et al. 1999:32-33). In addition, while both genders do share the same job titles (for example "manager") in some occupations across organisations, only rarely do they share the same job titles within organisations (Bielby and Baron 1986).

Comparisons among those who are employed full-time show that women, on average, earn only two-thirds of the wages earned by men. The lowest ratios of women's to men's earnings tend to be in the sales and service sectors, and in other occupations in which there are high concentrations of female workers (Gaskell 1991; Wajcman 1991; Clement and Myles 1996:105-106; Lips and Colwill 1993; Marquardt 1998:103). The segmentation of the labour force along gender lines is even more pronounced when part-time workers are taken into consideration, given that most part-time workers are women in poorly paid work. Even though the proportion of women earning a Bachelor's degree has exceeded

the proportion earned by men since 1988, there still remains a considerable concentration of women in fields of study that tend to lead to less well-paid employment (Guppy and Arai 1993). As Clement and Myles emphasise, despite improved educational and employment opportunities, women continue to be segregated in jobs that closely resemble the kinds of personal service and domestic labour that they carry out in the household (1996:109-112). Consequently, the male-female earnings gap has decreased much more slowly than the increase in women's post-secondary education would suggest. Thus, while greater access to education has created new employment opportunities for some women, traditional gender roles have also been reproduced in the intersection of household, education, and employment.

It is clear that labour markets are extremely complex and that they are continually changing. The probability that a person with limited education will find reasonably secure employment or that such a person can even follow an educational route that leads directly to a clearly defined, rewarding career has become much less. This does, of course, result in high levels of uncertainty among those who are considering or reassessing their employment prospects. On the basis of their analysis of several case studies of changing Canadian workplaces in the 1990s, Osberg, Wien, and Grude conclude that the problems of increasing rates of unemployment, polarisation of incomes, and rising rates of

poverty are all related to one root cause—the lack of jobs in Canada (1995:182-183). For example, in 1995, 42 percent of a national sample of Canadians in full-time employment expressed concern about keeping their jobs (Bibby 1995:99). Young workers, who do not have seniority and who are especially vulnerable to economic shifts, must often rely on part-time work and on jobs that do not match their qualifications in order to break into the labour market (Lowe and Krahn 1990:12-22, 1994:5; Nobert et al. 1992:41).

Employment and the Education Effect

In recent years it has become quite obvious that western societies are undergoing a period of rapid change. There have been very important new developments in applications of technology and also major changes in the structure of the world's economy. There has been a growing realisation that employment patterns are changing and that traditional employment opportunities are disappearing. These transformations have, and will continue to have, important implications for the relationship between education and employment.

Research conducted by Livingstone (1993) in Ontario indicates the presence of two large problematic groups of workers, first, those whose formal educational credentials exceed their job requirements and, second, those who feel that they do not have sufficient skills or training to carry out all of their job tasks.

From the existing research, it is clear that Canada has large numbers of workers who are undereducated and underqualified for the available jobs. Canada also has a significant number of actual or potential workers who are overqualified and underemployed[2] (Department of the Secretary of State of Canada 1990:32; Krahn 1992:110; Côté and Allahar 1994:33-39; Kelly et al. 1997: 11-15; Paju 1997:16; Livingstone 1999:97-132). It has been estimated that about one-fifth of the entire Canadian labour force and an even larger proportion of the group of younger, more highly educated workers are overqualified or underemployed (McDowell 1991:10).

Surveys conducted by Statistics Canada have documented the employment experiences of graduates of post-secondary programs and have revealed that there is a strong correlation between education and employment (Anisef et al. 1980; Krahn and Lowe 1990; 1991; Bowlby 1996:37). Drawing on data from a national survey conducted in the early 1980s, Myles, Picot, and Wannell conclude that nearly one-third of labour-force participants reported that they were overqualified for their jobs. These proportions were even greater in high-growth sectors like the personal-services sector, and they were highest among women and among young workers (1988). Utilizing a Statistics Canada survey of university graduates of 1982, Clark, Laing, and Rechnitzer report that natural sciences graduates were the least likely to be underemployed (20

percent), while the social science graduates were the most likely (just over 50 percent) (1986). Lowe and Krahn indicate that in 1994 just under one-quarter of all workers, about one-fifth of university graduates, and nearly one-third of high-school graduates reported feeling that they were overqualified for their jobs (1994:5).

Conclusion

There are clearly numerous economic and technological changes that are currently reshaping the relationship between employment and education. Because of the complicated and ever changing nature of work and labour markets, it is difficult to draw any clear conclusions about the degree of match or fit between education and employment. However, it is clear that the relationship between education and employment is changing and that this relationship is much more complex than it was in previous decades. Even those individuals who are in a position to make long-term plans for their future careers must face the possibility that educational requirements may change, that certain jobs may disappear altogether, or that the working conditions in particular occupations may become much less attractive before their education is complete. However, it is also evident that those individuals with the highest levels of formal education are in the best position to benefit and that these are the ones who are most likely

to find stable, well-paid, and satisfying employment. However, even in the case of highly educated workers there is always the possibility that no work that is directly related to their particular fields of study will be available. On the other hand, those with limited amounts of formal education are ever more likely to have difficulty finding and keeping work. And when they do find work even they may find themselves overqualified for their jobs. In this sea of change, many people feel uncertain about their futures. For youths faced with the prospect of seeking work, regardless of their levels of education, the question of what kinds of jobs will be available is increasingly uncertain.

Chapter 2

The McMaster Sociology Graduate Survey: Methodology

A cross-sectional telephone survey, conducted by Dr. M.A. Denton and an undergraduate sociology research methods class, provides the data for this study. Interviewing by telephone started in February of 1998 (see Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire). The sample of graduates was chosen from among those who had obtained Sociology degrees at McMaster University between June 1992 and December 1997 (the next to the most recent graduating class) and for whom the McMaster Alumni Office had addresses and telephone numbers.[3] Of the 1092 graduates from those years, the Alumni Office provided the names and the telephone numbers of all Ph.D. and M.A. graduates and those of a 50% random sample of B.A. or Honours graduates.[4] Overall, 406 telephone interviews were attempted. Three-hundred and four B.A.s, M.A.s, and Ph.D. graduates of the Sociology program at McMaster were contacted. In all, 202 B.A. graduates, 71 Honours B.A. graduates, 26 M.A. graduates, and 5 Ph.D. graduates participated in the study. The largest group (22%) had graduated in 1997, while the smallest group had graduated in 1993 (9.9%). The other years, with the exception of 1992 with 11.2 percent, had a fairly even distribution of

graduates ranging from 16.4 percent to 20.4 percent of the total in each year. To increase the response rate, at least five more attempts were made to contact those respondents who had not been contacted during the initial phase of the survey. By November, 1998, 304 telephone interviews had been completed. This represents a response rate of approximately 75 percent. This is considered to be a good response rate for a survey and provides a more than adequate sample for analysis (Babbie 1995:262).

In this survey graduates were asked some standard questions relating to their employment histories, their current jobs, and their post-graduate education since graduation in Sociology. They were also asked some open-ended questions relating to the program itself. All of the quantitative information (for example, age, income, and marital status) provided by those who responded to the survey was entered into a computer that is equipped with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The CCDO Guide: Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (1993) was used when coding and classifying the respondents' occupations. In addition, the Standard Industrial Classification Manual (1988) was used to classify the industries in which graduates were employed.

Chapter 3

McMaster Sociology Graduate Survey Results

Characteristics of Respondents

Gender

Of the Sociology graduates who responded to the survey, most were female (83.1%,n=251). Only 16.9 percent were male. As Table 1 shows, females outnumber males by about 4 to 1. At McMaster, as elsewhere, Sociology programs have attracted many more female students than male students.[5]

Table 1
Years of Graduation by Sex

	SEX		TOTALS	
Year of Graduation	Female	Male	Percent	Count
1992	82.4	17.6	100.0	34
1993	86.7	13.3	100.0	30
1994	78.0	22.0	100.0	50
1995	83.3	16.7	100.0	60
1996	86.9	13.1	100.0	61
1997	82.1	17.9	100.0	67
Total	83.1	16.9	100.0	302

2 missing cases

Age

At the time of graduation, the respondents' ages ranged from 23 to 62, with the average age being 30.5 years (Chart 1). The modal age

Chart 1
Ages of Respondents at Time of Graduation
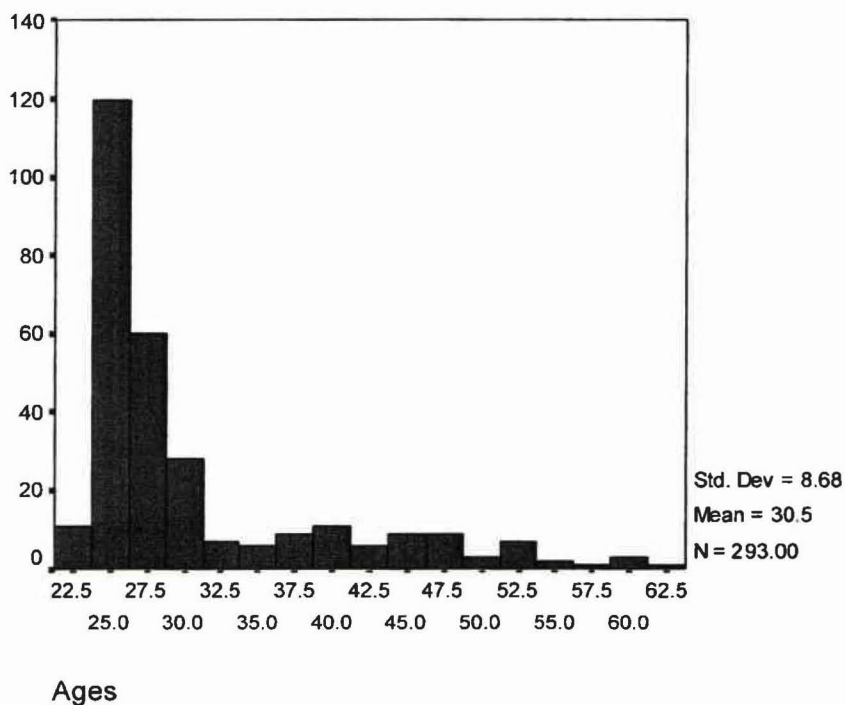
was 25 years. These figures are consistent with the findings of other Canadian surveys, which show that social science graduates tend to be female and that the average age of students in the social sciences tends to be higher than that of students in other disciplines.

Marriage and Children

Just over half of respondents were single (56.3%), 36.4% were married or living in common-law relationships, 5.3% were separated or divorced, and 2.0% were in other situations (Table 2).

Table 2
Marital Status and Year of Graduation

Year of Graduation	MARITAL STATUS				TOTAL	
	Single (never married)	married/common law	separated or divorced	other	Percent	Count
1992	26.5	64.7	8.8	0	100.0	34
1993	26.7	53.3	16.7	3.3	100.0	30
1994	59.2	34.7	2.0	4.1	100.0	49
1995	56.7	40.0	1.7	1.7	100.0	60
1996	62.9	32.3	1.6	3.2	100.0	62
1997	76.1	16.4	7.5	0	100.0	67
Total	56.3	36.4	5.3	2.0	100.0	302

2 missing cases

Only 28.8% of respondents had children. Of these respondents, almost 33% had one child, 40.0% had two children, 17.6% had three children, 5.9% had four children, 2.4% had five, and 1.2% had six children (Chart 2). Many of the graduates surveyed were in their late 20s and early 30s and are therefore likely to be married and to have children.

Chart 2
Number of Children
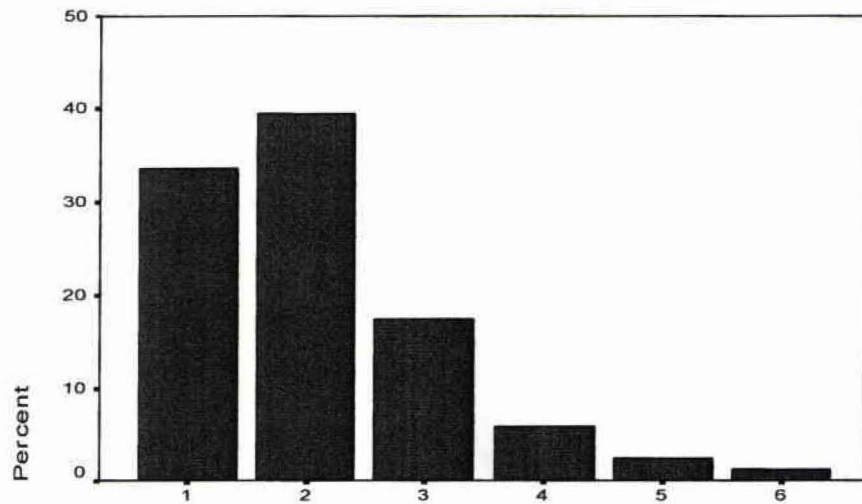
Almost 12% of all respondents indicated that they were members of visible minority groups.

Annual Income

Each respondent was asked to indicate the annual gross salary from his/her current or main job. Salary levels ranged from a low of $10,000 or less to a high of $60,000 or more. The modal category was between $30,000 and $39,999, with 29.9% of respondents having salaries in this range, while just over 50% of respondents earned less than $30,000 per year. Chart 3 shows the differences between men and women with respect to income. Men were over-

represented in every income category over $30,000. Women, on the other hand, were over-represented in every income category under $30,000. [6]

Chart 3

Annual Gross Income from Main Job by Sex
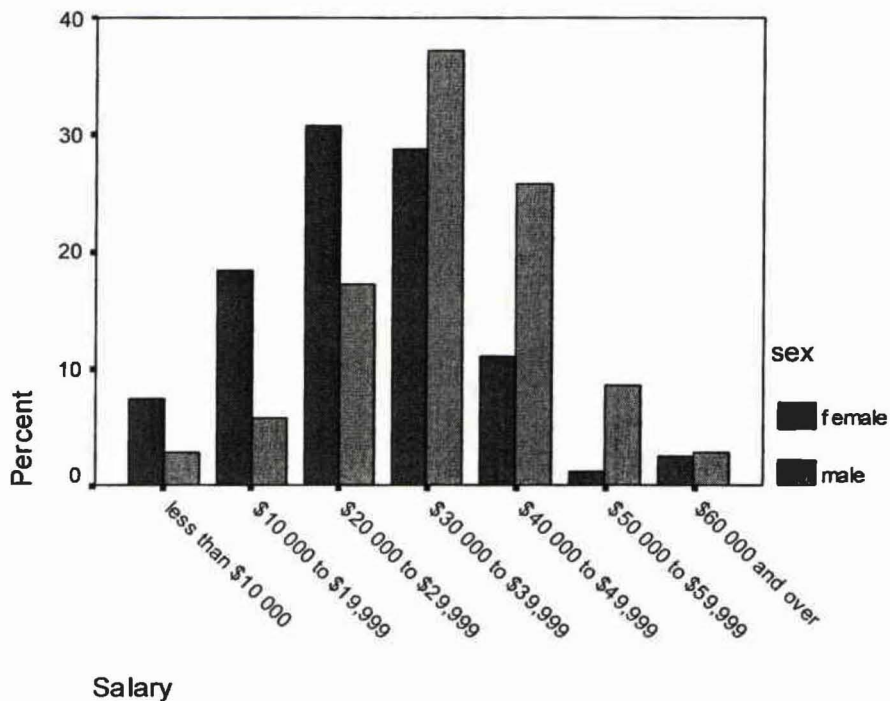
Respondents with two or more jobs were also asked to give their total annual gross income from all of their jobs taken together. Again, salaries ranged from a low of $10,000 or less to a high of $60,000 and over. Only 34 respondents had more than one job and answered this question. For these respondents, the modal category was also between $30,000 and $39,999, with 29.4% falling into this group. Almost 53% of these respondents earned less than

$30,000. As Chart 4 shows, men were more likely than women to be earning incomes over $30,000 per year, while women were more likely to be earning incomes below $30,000 per year. Additional material on salaries, full and part-time work, and types of industries and jobs will be found in chapter 5.

Chart 4
Annual Gross Income from All Jobs by Sex
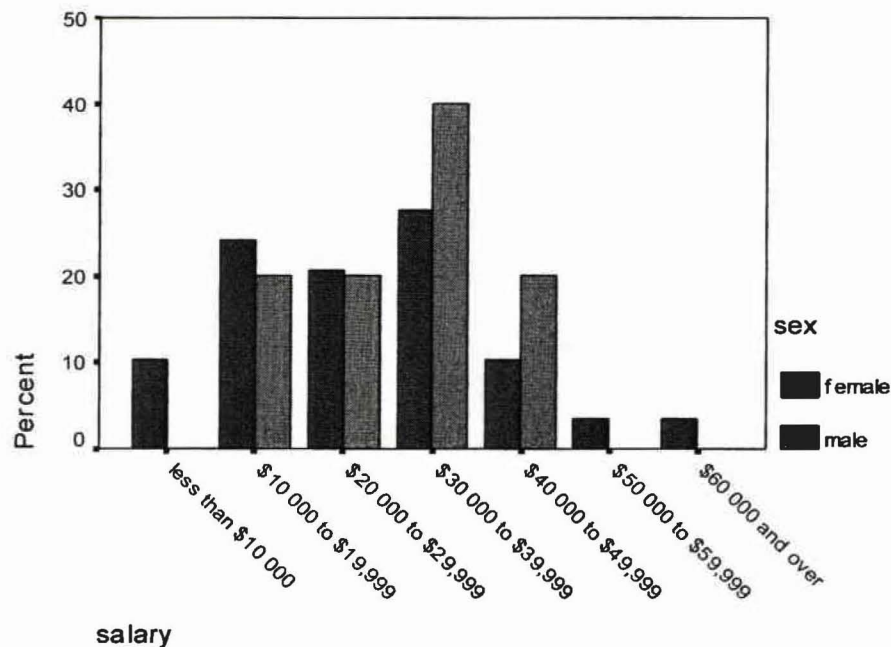
Chapter 4

Graduates' Educational Histories

Year of Graduation

Those who were surveyed had graduated between 1992 and 1997. Overall, 202 B.A. graduates, 71 Honours B.A. graduates, 26 M.A. graduates, and 5 Ph.D. graduates participated in the study. Chart 5 shows, the largest group (22%,n=63) had graduated in 1997, while the smallest group had graduated in 1993 (9.9%,n=30). Thus, this sample is fairly representative of those who graduated in the middle portion of the 1990s.

Chart 5
Respondents' Years of Graduation
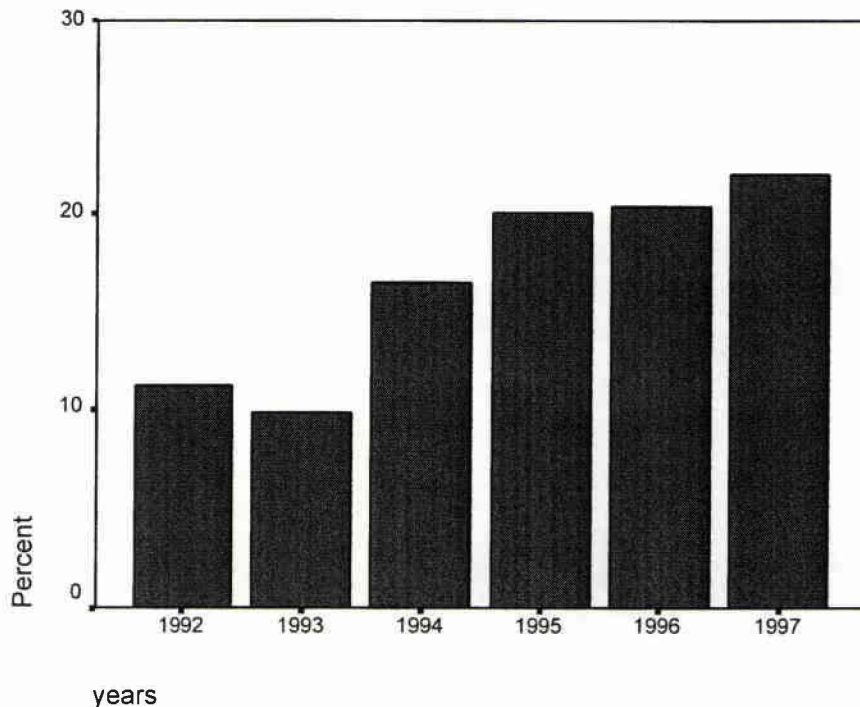
Years to Complete Degree

Respondents were asked how many years it had taken them to complete their degrees at McMaster. Overall, this ranged from one year (in the cases of some M.A. and transfer students) to 25 years (in the cases of those who had completed their degrees part-time, taking very few courses per year). In the case of the 202 individuals who had completed the B.A. program, the average time spent in the program was just under 5 years, with a mode of 3 years. In the case of the 71 Honours B.A. graduates, the average time in the program was just over 4 years, the mode being 4 years. In the case of the 26 M.A. graduates, an average of nearly 2 years was spent in the program, the mode being 1 year. The 5 graduates with Ph.D.s took, on average, 6.3 years to complete the program. The range was between 5 and 8 years.

Respondents were also asked the grades that they had usually received while in the program. The majority (61.7%) indicated that, overall, they had been "B students," 22.8% had been "A students," and 15.5% had been "C students." When these patterns are broken down by degree a not so surprising pattern emerges. In the cases of the B.A. graduates, 66.2% were "B students," 22.6% were "C students," and 11.3% were "A students." Among the Honours graduates, 72.5% were "B students," 23.2% were "A students," and only 4.3%

were "C students." Graduates with M.A. degrees were overwhelmingly "A students" (96.2%). As one would expect, the doctoral students all indicated that they were "A students."

Programs: Sociology and Other Subjects

Just over 66% of respondents had graduated with a three-year B.A. in Sociology, 23.3% had completed the Honours B.A. program, and 8.8% had obtained M.A.s in Sociology, while 1.7% had obtained Ph.D.s (see Chart 6).

Chart 6
Types of Degrees
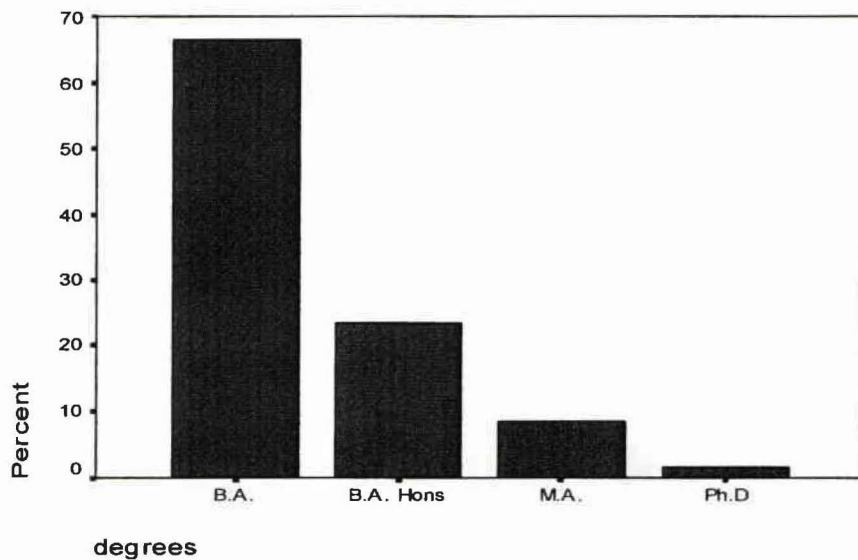
Majors and Minors

Of the 202 respondents who had graduated from the B.A. program, the majority (79.1%) had not combined Sociology with other majors, while 10.7%

had minored in another subject. Only 10.2% had double-majored in Sociology

and another subject. Of the 19 B.A. graduates who had double-majored, 26.3%

were in Psychology, another 15.8% had chosen Women's Studies, 10.5% were in

Chart 7
Majors
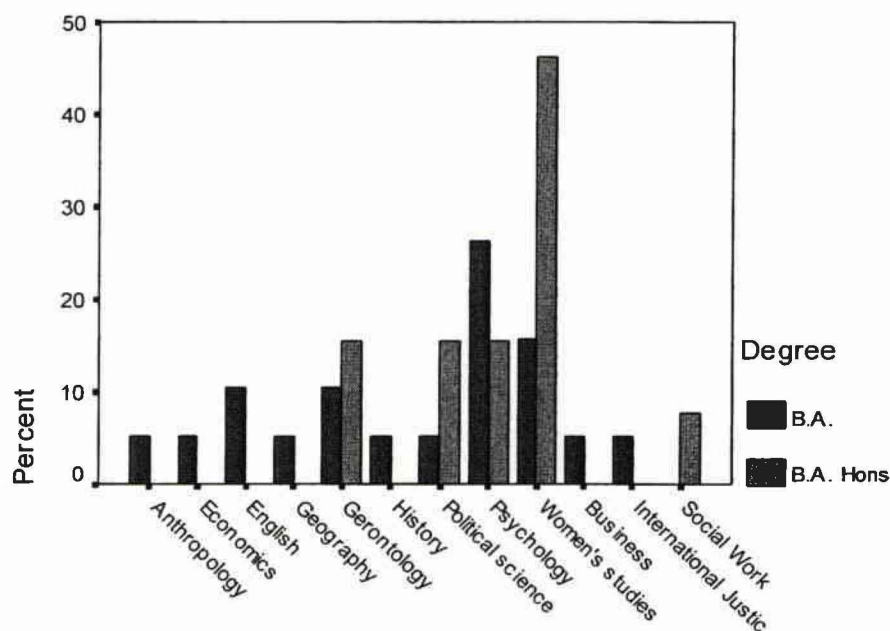
subject

Gerontology, and 10.5% had chosen English. Taken together, these four subjects

alone accounted for over 63% of those respondents who had chosen double-

majors. The remaining 37% reported a wide variety of other subjects (shown in

Chart 7). As Chart 8 indicates, of the 24 B.A. graduates who had minored in

another subject, Psychology was, once again, the most popular program with

26.3% choosing it. Almost 16% chose Anthropology, and 10.5% were in

Religious Studies. Taken together, these three subjects account for over 52% of minors. The remaining 47.4% reported that they had chosen minors in a variety of other subjects. Of the 71 Honours graduates, just over 52% had combined Sociology with another subject, 30.4% (n=21) had minored in another subject, while only 17.4% (n=13) had chosen double-majors. Of these graduates with double-majors, 46.2% had chosen Women's Studies, 15.4% had chosen Gerontology, 15.4% had chosen Political Science, 15.4% were in Psychology, and the remaining 7.7% were in Social Work (Chart 7). Of the 21 honours graduates who chose minors, 30% had chosen Psychology, 20% had chosen Women's Studies, 10% were in Geography, 10% were in History, and the remaining 30% reported a variety of other subjects (Chart 8).

Chart 8
Minors
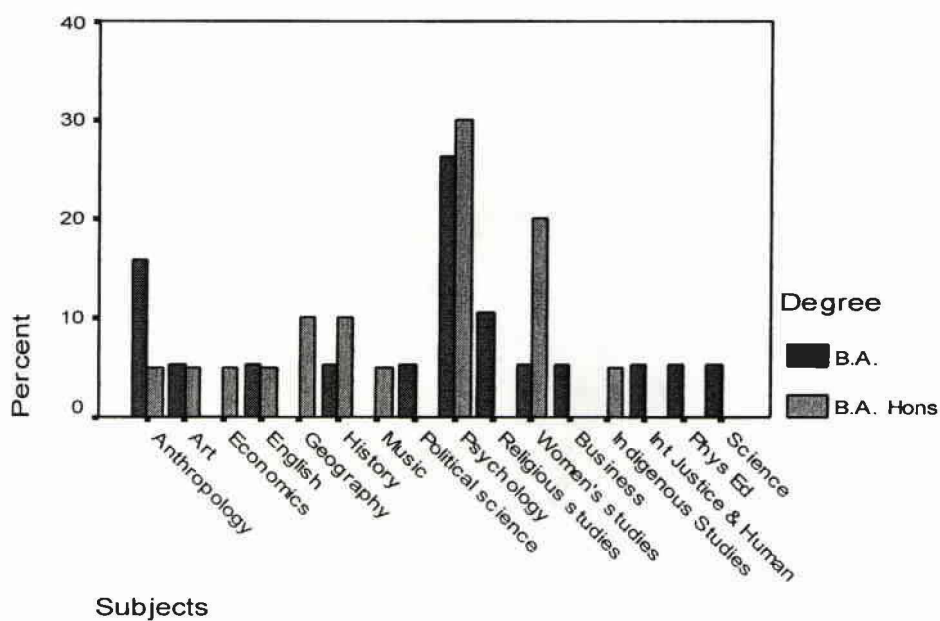
Just over 68% of all respondents had completed their degrees on a full-time basis, while 17.8% had been part-time students. The remaining 13.8% had sometimes attended on a full-time basis, sometimes on a part-time basis.

The majority (85.8%) of graduates had completed all of the credits for their degrees at McMaster. Only 14.2% had completed at least one course at another educational institution. Of those who had not obtained all of their credits at McMaster, 13.3% had been enrolled at the University of Toronto, 13.3% at the University of Waterloo, 6.7% at York University, and 6.7% at the University of Western Ontario. The remaining 62.2% had completed courses at a variety of other universities and colleges.

Sources of Funding

Respondents were asked to indicate the main sources on which they had drawn to finance their studies. The two most common sources were, first, the Ontario Student Assistance Plan (OSAP – Ontario and Canada Student Loans) and, second, financial help received from family members. Just over 30% had used earnings from part-time employment, 29.6% had used earnings from summer employment, 28.1% had used personal savings, 11.3% had used earnings from full-time employment, 13.6% had used scholarship money, 6.3%

had obtained bank loans, and 4% had used some of their spouses' earnings. Surprisingly, only 1.7% had tapped into registered education savings plans (RESPs) in order to finance their studies.

Sociology Program Experiences

All of the respondents were asked whether if, in general, they would recommend McMaster University to a friend. Just over 95% (n=289) indicated that they would recommend McMaster. Only 5% (n=15) said that they would not. This figure is slightly higher than the 88.2% who would recommend York to others, reported by Grayson for York University graduates from all faculties (Grayson 1988:13).

Respondents who said that they would recommend McMaster were asked why. The top five reasons given in responses to this open-ended question were as follows: because of the professors (26.1%,n=76), because McMaster has a reputation for being a good school (21.3%,n=62), because of the convenience of the campus (18.9%,n=55), because the classes are interesting (17.5%,n=55), and because of the general atmosphere (16.2%,n=47).

Those who would not recommend McMaster were also asked to give their reasons. Only 15 respondents indicated that they would not recommend

McMaster. The most frequently given responses were as follows: because the Sociology program was too broad (21.4%,n=3), because the atmosphere at McMaster was not friendly (14.3%,n=2), and because Sociology class time-tabling was too rigid (14.3%,n=2).

All respondents were asked whether they would still major in Sociology if they were to have the opportunity to take their degrees over again. Almost 51% (n=152) indicated that they would not major in Sociology again, while 49.3% (n=148) indicated that they would major in Sociology again. Again, this compares well with Grayson's data on York University graduates, which indicate that 55.2% of York Arts graduates would choose the same major again (Grayson 1998:13). In a national sample of graduates, it was found that 68% of B.A. graduates, 79% of M.A. graduates, and 78% of Ph.D. graduates would select the same majors again if they had the opportunity to do so (Department of the Secretary of State of Canada 1990:33).

Respondents were asked why they would or would not major in Sociology. The three main reasons given by the 148 graduates who would major in Sociology again were as follows: because of their personal interest in the subject (32.3%,n=43), because they enjoyed Sociology (30.1,n=40), and because the program content was applicable in their work and in their daily lives

(27.8,n=37). It is also worth noting that only 8.3% (n=11) of these graduates indicated that they would major in Sociology because the program prepared them for future careers.

The main reasons given by the 152 graduates who indicated that they would *not* major in Sociology again were as follows: over one-third were concerned about the lack of job opportunities for Sociology graduates (36.9%,n=48), 27.7% (n=36) would have preferred to have taken other programs, and 16.2% (n=21) believed that the Sociology program does not offer enough in the way of applied skills.

Those graduates who said that they would *not* major in Sociology again were also asked what subject they would choose as their major. The five most frequently chosen programs (accounting for 55.9% of these graduates) were as follows: Business (24%), Psychology (10.9%), Social Work (10.9%), Natural Sciences (5.4%), and Gerontology (4.7%). The remaining 44.1% chose a wide variety of other programs, including Nursing, Computer Science, and Engineering.

Education Since Graduation

Enrolment in Further Education

All of the respondents were asked whether they had, since graduating in Sociology, enrolled in any other educational programs. Those who had enrolled in educational programs since graduation were asked to describe some of the features of their programs. What follows is a summary of their answers.

Almost 57% (n=172) of graduates had enrolled in further educational programs, while 43% (n=132) had not. Just under 20% had enrolled part-time, while 36.8% had enrolled as full-time students. The graduates who were the most likely to enroll in educational programs after graduation were those with a M.A. (69.2%), followed by Honours B.A. graduates (67.6%), and B.A. graduates (52.8%). None of the Ph.D. graduates had enrolled in programs after graduation.

With regard to the *first* educational programs that respondents enrolled in, almost 54% had enrolled in educational programs at universities, 34.5% had enrolled in community college programs, 9.4% had enrolled in programs offered by private institutions, and 2.3% had enrolled in programs offered by other types of educational institutions (see Chart 9).

Chart 9
Institutions of Further Education
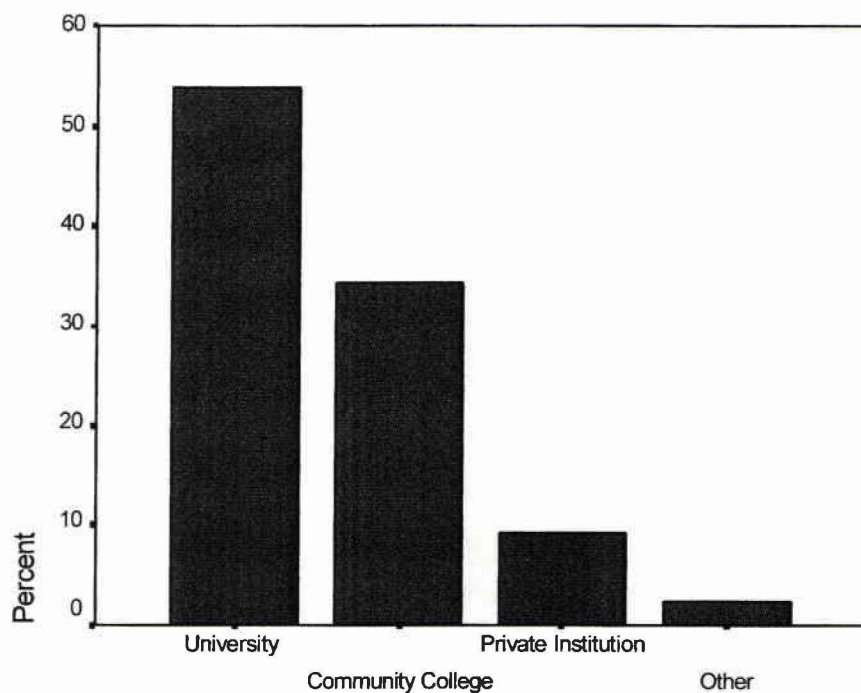
Respondents reported the names of these institutions. Almost 20% had continued their studies at McMaster University, 9.5% had enrolled at Mohawk College, 7.7% at Sheridan College, 5.3% at the University of Toronto, 4.7% at the University of Western Ontario, 4.1% at York University, and 4.1% at Humber College. The remaining 45.1% had enrolled in programs at various other universities, colleges, and other institutions.

These respondents were asked why they had decided to continue their education. This question had some standard responses from which respondents

could choose and a space for other responses was also included. Respondents were able to list more than one reason. Just over 70% (n=126) indicated that they wanted to improve their employment prospects, 52.9% (n=90) indicated that they had an interest in a particular field, and 15.3% (n=26) said that they had been encouraged to enroll by others.

Programs of Study After Graduation in Sociology

Table 3 indicates all of the programs in which respondents had enrolled and also the proportions that had entered them. The five most frequently chosen programs were as follows: college diploma programs (which accounted for 18.2% (n=29) of these graduates), college certificate programs (16.4%,n=26), Bachelor of Education (Teaching Certificate) programs (13.8%,n=22), M.A. programs (11.3%,n=18), and university certificate programs (8.8%,n=14).

It should also be noted that of the 172 respondents who pursued education subsequent to earning their degrees in Sociology, 52.6% (n=90) were still enrolled in their programs at the time of the survey, while 40.9% (n=70) had completed their programs. Only 6.4% (n=11) had dropped out of their programs.

Table 3
Degree, Diploma, and Certificate Programs

	TOTALS	
	Percent	Count
College Diploma	18.2	29
College Certificate	16.4	26

B.Ed	13.8	22
University Certificate	8.8	14
Ph.D.	8.1	13
Other Certificates	6.1	11
University Diploma	5.6	10
B.A.	4.4	8
M.S.W	4.4	8
M.A.	3.8	7
B.S.W.	3.1	6
B.A. Hons	2.5	4
M.B.A	1.3	2
L.L.B.	1.3	2
Professional Degree	0.6	1
M.Sc.	0.6	1
M.A. (T)	0.6	1
M.Sc. (T)	0.6	1
Total	100	166

5 missing cases

Of the 70 respondents who had *completed* their programs at the time of this survey, just over 37% (n=26) had completed university certificate programs. Almost 24.3% (n=17) had earned college diplomas. A further 20% (n=14) had earned Bachelor of Education degrees, 10% (n=7) had completed M.A. degrees, while the remaining 8.7% (n=6) had completed various other undergraduate B.A. programs (second degree programs).

Of those still enrolled in a program of further education (n=89), just over 21% (n=19) were in college diploma programs, 13.5% (n=12) were in Ph.D. programs, 12.4% (n=11) were in M.A. programs, and 11.2% (n=10) were in

college certificate programs. The remaining 41.6% (n=37) were enrolled in various other kinds of programs.

Fields of Study

Enrolling in Teachers' Colleges was a popular choice, accounting for 13.5% (n=23) of all respondents who pursued more education after graduation in Sociology. Ten percent (n=17) of respondents had enrolled in more advanced programs in Sociology, 10% had entered Social Work, and 8.2% (n=14) had enrolled in Human Resources programs. The remaining 54.1% (n=92) had enrolled in various other types of programs from law to computer programming (see Table 4).

Table 4
Fields of Study

	TOTALS	
	Percent	Count
Teachers' College	13.5	23
Social Work	10.0	17
Sociology	10.0	17
Human Resources	8.2	14
Marketing	3.5	6
Business	2.9	5
Business Management/Administration	2.9	5
Law	2.9	5
Nursing	2.9	5
Computer Programming	2.4	4
Education	2.4	4
Gerontology	2.4	4
Police services	2.4	4
Anthropology	1.8	3
Computer (general)	1.8	3
Early Childhood Education	1.8	3

Special Education	1.8	3
Addiction Studies	1.2	2
Conflict Resolution	1.2	2
Dental	1.2	2
English	1.2	2
Financial	1.2	2
Industrial Relations	1.2	2
Psychology	1.2	2
Recreation	1.2	2
Social Service Worker	1.2	2
Systems Analysis (Computer)	1.2	2
Travel	1.2	2
Advertising	0.6	1
Alternative Dispute Resolution	0.6	1
Anology, wine industry	0.6	1
Behavioural Science	0.6	1
Career Course	0.6	1
Commerce	0.6	1
Communication Disorder	0.6	1
Correctional Worker	0.6	1
Developmental Disability Worker	0.6	1
Geography	0.6	1
Health Sciences Administration	0.6	1
History	0.6	1
Journalism	0.6	1
Natural Sciences	0.6	1
Neurology	0.6	1
Nutrition	0.6	1
Oncology/Computers	0.6	1
Pharmacy	0.6	1
Philosophy	0.6	1
Physiotherapy	0.6	1
Religious studies	0.6	1
Rock Analyst	0.6	1
Statistics and Environment	0.6	1
Total	100.0	171

First Jobs After Graduation

Features of First Positions

Respondents were asked to describe their *first* jobs after graduating from the Sociology program. Almost 85% (n=258) of the 304 respondents indicated that they had been employed after graduation (and had therefore actually had *first* jobs). However, 15.1% (n=46) had not obtained employment. Employment status can be broken down by type of degree. Over 85% of B.A. graduates were employed, as were 87.3% of the Honours B.A. graduates, 73% of the M.A. graduates, and 80% of Ph.D. graduates. If those respondents who voluntarily decided *not* to seek employment (9.2%) are removed from the calculation, then almost 96% of respondents had obtained jobs after graduating. York University graduates had a similar employment rate of 96.1% (Grayson 1999:6). These figures are slightly higher than the national averages of 84% and 89% reported for graduates of the mid-1980s two and five years after graduation, respectively (Department of the Secretary of State of Canada 1990:29).

Of the 258 respondents who had been employed after graduation, 63.2% (n=163) had obtained "new" positions after graduating in Sociology. Interestingly, 36.8% (n=95) indicated that they were employed in the same positions that they had held before graduation.

As Table 5 shows, over half of these respondents had worked in permanent jobs, 27.8% had worked on a contract basis, while the remaining 16.1% had worked on other kinds of terms. Women were most likely to have worked on a temporary, seasonal, or casual basis. Men were more likely to have permanent positions. Men were also likely to be self-employed or to have had formal employment contracts.

Table 5
Type of Employment Position by Sex

		SEX		TOTAL
		Female	Male	
	Permanent position	55.1	61.5	56.1
	Contract position	27.3	30.8	27.8
	Temporary position	10.2	5.1	9.4
	Seasonal position	4.6		3.9
	Self-employed	0.5	2.6	0.8
	Other	2.3		2.0
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0

n=258

Of those who had held a *first* job, 46.4% had held jobs in the public sector, while 42.5% had held jobs in the private sector. The remaining 11.1% had been employed in non-profit organizations.

First Jobs After the Sociology Degree

Table 6 shows all of the jobs reported by those respondents who obtained *first* jobs following graduation in Sociology. The jobs that were reported were categorized into occupational groups and organized by sex. The four most common occupational groups were clerical occupations (18.1%), teachers and professionals (13%), judges, lawyers, psychologists, social workers, ministers of religion, and policy and program officers (9.3%), and specialist managers (8.9%). These four groups accounted for just over 49% of these respondents. The six most frequently reported occupations, taken together, accounted for 27.5% of all *first* occupations reported. The most common kinds of *first* occupations were as follows: retail salespersons and related clerks (6.6%), elementary school and kindergarten teachers (4.5%), post-secondary teachers and research assistants (4.5%), customer service, information, and related clerks (4.5%), community and social service workers (4.1%), and registered nurses (3.3%).

The four most common occupational groups for males were as follows: teachers and professionals (22.3%), and occupations in protective services (14%), specialist managers (8.4%) and judges, lawyers, psychologists, social workers, ministers of religion, and policy and program officers (8.4%). These

groups account for over 53% of the first jobs that men had after graduation. In the case of women, the four most frequent occupational categories were as follows: clerical occupations (20.8%), teachers and professionals (11.4%), judges, lawyers, psychologists, social workers, ministers of religion, and policy and program officers (9.7%) and specialist managers (9.2%). These groups account for over 51% of the first jobs women had after graduation.

Table 6
First Jobs by Sex

	Sex		Total	
	Female	Male	Percent	Count
Specialist Managers	**9.2**	**8.4**	**8.9**	**22**
Financial Managers	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Human Resources Managers	2.4	0.0	2.0	5
Purchasing Managers	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Other Administrative Services Managers	2.9	2.8	2.9	7
Banking, Credit and Other Investment Managers	0.5	2.8	0.8	2
Information Systems and Data Processing Managers	0.5	2.8	0.8	2
Sales, Marketing and Advertising Managers	1.9	0.0	1.6	4
Managers in Retail Trade, Food and Accommodation Services	**3.4**	**2.8**	**3.2**	**8**
Retail Trade Managers	2.4	0.0	2.0	5
Restaurant and Food Service Managers	1.0	2.8	1.2	3
Other Managers, N.E.C.	**1.9**	**5.6**	**2.4**	**6**
Managers in Social, Community and Correctional Services	1.4	2.8	1.6	4
Recreation and Sport Program and Service Directors	0.5	2.8	0.8	2
Professional Occupations in Business and Finance	**1.0**	**2.8**	**1.2**	**3**
Financial and Investment Analysts	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Specialists in Human Resources	0.5	2.8	0.8	2
Finance and Insurance Administrative Occupations	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.4**	**1**
Bookkeepers	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Secretaries	**1.9**	**0.0**	**1.6**	**4**
Secretaries (except Legal and Medical)	1.9	0.0	1.6	4

Administrative and Regulatory Occupations	3.4	0.0	2.8	7
Supervisors, General Office and Administrative Clerks	1.4	0.0	1.2	3
Executive Assistants	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Property Administrators	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Conference and Event Planners	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Clerical Occupations	20.8	5.6	18.1	45
General Office Clerks	2.4	0.0	2.0	5
Records and File Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Receptionists and Switchboard Operators	2.4	0.0	2.0	5
Computer Operators	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Data Entry Clerks	1.0	2.8	1.2	3
Telephone Operators	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Accounting and Related Clerks	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Payroll Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Tellers, Financial Services	1.4	0.0	1.2	3
Banking, Insurance and Other Financial Clerks	1.9	0.0	1.6	4
Administrative Clerks	2.4	0.0	2.0	5
Court Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Library Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Customer Service, Information and Related Clerks	4.8	2.8	4.5	11
Shippers and Receivers	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Professional Occupations in Health	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Other Professional Occupations in Therapy and Assessment	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Nurse Supervisors and Registered Nurses	3.8	0.0	3.3	8
Registered Nurses	3.8	0.0	3.3	8
Technical and Related Occupations in Health	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Other Medical Technologists & Technicians(except Dental Health)	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Assisting Occupations in Support of Health Services	1.0	2.9	1.2	3
Nurses Aides and Orderlies	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Other Aides and Assistants in Support of Health Services	0.5	2.8	0.8	2
Judges,Lawyers,Psych.,Soc.Workers,Min.of Rel.,Prog.Officers	9.7	8.4	9.3	23
Social Workers	2.9	0.0	2.5	6
Family, Marriage and Other Related Counselors	2.4	0.0	2.0	5
Ministers of Religion	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Health & Social Policy Researchers, Consultants & Program Officers	1.9	2.8	2.0	5
Economists & Economic Policy Researchers & Analysts	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Economic Development Officers & Marketing Researchers & Consultants	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Education Policy Researchers, Consultants & Program Officers	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Recreation & Sports Program Supervisors & Consultants	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Program Officers Unique to Government	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Teachers and Professionals	11.4	22.3	13.0	32
University Professors	0.0	5.6	0.8	2

Post-Secondary Teaching & Research Assistants	3.8	8.3	4.5	11
College and Other Vocational Instructors	1.4	5.6	2.0	5
Secondary School Teachers	1.4	0.0	1.2	3
Elementary School and Kindergarten Teachers	4.8	2.8	4.5	11
Paralegals,Soc.Serv.Workers & Occup. in Educ. & Relig., N.E.C.	**5.4**	**8.3**	**5.7**	**14**
Community and Social Service Workers	3.4	8.3	4.1	10
Instructors and Teachers of Disabled Persons	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Other Instructors	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Professional Occupations in Art and Culture	**1.0**	**0.0**	**0.8**	**2**
Editors	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Professional Occupations in Public Relations & Communications	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Technical Occupations in Art, Culture, Recreation, and Sport	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.4**	**1**
Program Leaders & Instructors in Recreation and Sport	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Sales and Service Supervisors	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.4**	**1**
Food Service Supervisors	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Technic.,Ins.,Real Est. Sales& Retail, Wholesale&Grain Buyers	**0.5**	**2.8**	**0.8**	**2**
Insurance Agents and Brokers	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Real Estate Agents and Salespersons	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Cashiers	**3.4**	**0.0**	**2.9**	**7**
Cashiers	3.4	0.0	2.9	7
Retail Salespersons and Sales Clerks	**6.7**	**5.6**	**6.6**	**16**
Retail Salespersons and Sales Clerks	6.7	5.6	6.6	16
Occupations in Food and Beverage Service	**2.4**	**2.8**	**2.5**	**6**
Food and Beverage Servers	2.4	2.8	2.5	6
Occupations in Protective Services	**1.5**	**14.0**	**3.2**	**8**
Police Officers (except Commissioned)	0.5	5.6	1.2	3
Correctional Service Officers	0.5	5.6	1.2	3
By-Law Enforcement and Other Regulatory Officers, n e c	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Security Guards and Related Occupations	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Occup. in Travel & Accommod. incl. Attendants in Rec.& Sport	**2.0**	**0.0**	**1.6**	**4**
Travel Counselors	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Pursers and Flight Attendants	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Childcare and Home Support Workers	**6.3**	**0.0**	**5.3**	**13**
Early Childhood Educators and Assistants	2.9	0.0	2.5	6
Visiting Homemakers, Housekeepers and Related Occupations	1.4	0.0	1.2	3
Elementary and Secondary School Teacher Assistants	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Babysitters, Nannies and Parents' Helpers	1.0	0.0	0.8	2
Mechanics	**0.0**	**2.8**	**0.4**	**1**
Machinery & Transportation Equipment Mechanics	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Transportation Equipment Operators & Related Workers	**0.0**	**2.8**	**0.4**	**1**
Delivery Drivers	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Primary Production Laborers	**0.0**	**2.8**	**0.4**	**1**

Oil and Gas Well Drilling Workers and Services Operators	0.0	2.8	0.4	1
Machine Operators in Manufacturing.	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Testers and Graders, Goods and Beverage Processing	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Assemblers in Manufacturing	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Other Assemblers & Inspectors	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
Total	**85.3**	**14.7**	**100.0**	**244**

14 missing cases

First Industries of Employment

Table 7 shows all of the first industries that the respondents worked in following graduation in Sociology. The industries that were reported were categorized according to the major industrial grouping and were also organized by sex. The two most frequently reported industrial groups accounted for 40.5% of these respondents. The top two industrial groups were: health and social service industries, with 24.8%, and education services industries, with 15.7% of these respondents. In the case of men, the two most common industrial groups were education services industries (21.2%), and health and social service industries (15.2%). For women, the two most common industrial groups were health and social service industries (26.5%), education services industries (16.5%).

For men, the three most frequently reported industries were university education (12.1%), elementary and secondary education (9.1%), and chartered banks (9.1%). These three industries accounted for just over 30% of all men who

had a first job after graduation. For women, the four most common industries were as follows: elementary and secondary education (10.1%), university education (4.2%), department stores (3.7%), and day-care and nursery-school services (3.7%). These four industries accounted for almost 22% of all women who had a first job after graduation.

Table 7
First Industries by Sex

	Sex		Total	
	Female	Male	Percent	Count
Mining, Milling, Quarrying and Oil Well Industries	0.0	6.0	1.0	2
Conventional Crude Oil and Natural Gas Industry	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Non conventional Crude Oil Industry	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Food Industries	1.0	0.0	1.0	2
Potato Chip, Pretzel and Popcorn Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Malt and Malt Flour Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Beverage Industries	1.0	0.0	1.0	2
Soft Drink Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Distillery Products Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Paper and Allied Paper Products Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Pulp Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Printing, Publishing and Allied Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Publishing Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Transportation Equipment Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Motor Vehicle Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Non-Metallic Mineral Products Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Glass Products Industry (except Glass Containers)	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Chemical and Chemical Products Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Pharmaceutical and Medicine Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Trade Contracting Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Process Piping Work	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Transportation Industries	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Scheduled Air Transport Industry	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Other Utility Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Gas Distribution Systems Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1

Communication Industries	0.5	3.0	1.0	2
Postal Service Industry	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Courier Service Industry	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Motor Vehicle,Parts and Access. Industries, Wholesale	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Motor Vehicle Parts and Accessories, Wholesale	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Products Industries, Wholesale	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Photographic Equipment and Supplies, Wholesale	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Food, Beverage and Drug Industries, Retail	4.2	3.0	4.1	9
Food (Groceries) Stores	2.6	3.0	2.7	6
Liquor Stores	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Pharmacies	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Shoe, Apparel, Fabric and Yarn Industries, Retail	2.6	0.0	2.3	5
Shoe Stores	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Clothing Stores n.e.c.	2.1	0.0	1.8	4
Household Furniture, Appliances & Furn. Ind., Retail	1.0	0.0	1.0	2
Appliance, Television, Radio and Stereo Stores	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Household Furnishings Stores	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Automotive Veh., Parts & Access. Ind. Sales & Service	1.0	3.0	1.4	3
Automobile (New) Dealers	0.5	3.0	0.9	2
Other Motor Vehicle Services n.e.c.	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
General Retail Merchandising Industries	3.7	3.0	3.6	8
Department Stores	3.7	3.0	3.6	8
Other Retail Store Industries	2.7	0.0	2.3	5
Book and Stationery Stores	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Other Retail Stores n.e.c.	1.6	0.0	1.4	3
Deposit Accepting Intermediary Industries	3.7	9.1	4.6	10
Chartered Banks	3.2	9.1	4.1	9
Trust Companies	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Consumer and Business Financing Intermediary Industries	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Sales Finance Companies	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Investment Intermediary Industries	3.1	3.0	3.2	7
Investment (Mutual) Funds	0.5	3.0	0.9	2
Retirement Savings Funds	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Investment Companies	2.1	0.0	1.8	4
Insurance Industries	2.6	0.0	2.4	5
Life Insurers	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Other Property and Casualty Insurers	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Operators of Residential Buildings & Dwellings	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Insurance and Real Estate Agencies	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Business Service Industries	3.8	0.0	3.2	7
Advertising Agencies	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Offices of Lawyers and Notaries	1.1	0.0	0.9	2

Management Consulting Services	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Business Services n.e.c.	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Federal Government Service Industries	**4.2**	**6.0**	**4.7**	**10**
Correctional Services	1.1	3.0	1.4	3
Social Service Administration (F)	2.6	0.0	2.3	5
Recreation and Culture Administration (F)	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Research Administration (F)	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Provincial and Territorial Government Service Industries	**3.2**	**6.0**	**3.8**	**9**
Correctional Services (P&T)	1.1	3.0	1.4	3
Police Services (P&T)	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Labour and Employment Services (P&T)	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Finance and Economic Administration (P&T)	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Recreation and Culture Administration (P&T)	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Local Government Service Industries	**3.7**	**6.0**	**4.2**	**9**
Transportation and Communication Administration	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Correctional Services (L)	0.5	3.0	0.9	2
Police Services (L)	1.1	3.0	1.4	3
Social Service Administration (L)	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Recreation and Culture Administration (L)	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Educational Service Industries	**16.5**	**21.2**	**15.7**	**38**
Elementary and Secondary Education	10.1	9.1	9.9	22
Post-Secondary Non-University Education	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
University Education	4.2	12.1	5.4	12
Library Services	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Health and Social Service Industries	**26.5**	**15.2**	**24.8**	**55**
General Hospitals	3.2	3.0	3.2	7
Mental (Psychiatric) Hospitals	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Other Specialty Hospitals	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Homes for Personal and Nursing Care	2.1	3.0	2.3	5
Homes for Children in Need of Protection	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Institutional Health and Social Services n.e.c.	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Drug Addiction and Alcoholism Treatment Clinics	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Home Care Services	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Other Non Institutional Health Services	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Child Day Care and Nursery School Services	3.7	0.0	3.2	7
Child Welfare Services	2.1	0.0	1.8	4
Social Rehabilitation Services	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Other Non Institutional Social Services	1.1	3.0	1.4	3
Offices of Social Workers	0.5	3.0	0.9	2
Offices of Other Social Service Practitioners	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Radiological Laboratories	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Health Care and Public Safety Promo Assoc. & Agencies	2.1	0.0	1.8	4

Health Care Research Agencies	1.6	0.0	1.4	3
Social Service Planning and Advocacy Agencies	0.5	3.0	0.9	2
Other Health and Social Service Associations and Agencies	2.1	0.0	1.8	4
Accommodation Service Industries	**1.5**	**0.0**	**1.5**	**3**
Hotels and Motor Hotels	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Lodging Houses and Residential Clubs	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Camping Grounds and Travel Trailer Parks	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Food and Beverage Service Industries	**3.7**	**6.0**	**4.1**	**9**
Restaurants, Licensed	3.2	3.0	3.2	7
Restaurants, Unlicensed (Including Drive Ins)	0.5	3.0	0.9	2
Other Service Industries	**1.0**	**0.0**	**1.0**	**2**
Other Theatrical and Staged Entertainment Services	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Sports and Recreational Clubs	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Personal and Household Service Industries	**1.1**	**0.0**	**0.9**	**2**
Private Households	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Membership Organization Industries	**0.0**	**6.0**	**1.0**	**2**
Religious Organizations	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Business Associations	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Other Service Industries	**1.1**	**3.0**	**1.4**	**3**
Automobile and Truck Rental and Leasing Services	0.0	3.0	0.5	1
Ticket and Travel Agencies	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Total	**85.1**	**14.9**	**100.0**	**222**

36 missing cases

First Jobs: Hours Worked Per Week and Starting Salaries

The information that is presented below is based on the responses of those 258 respondents who had obtained *first* jobs after graduating in Sociology. The average number of hours worked per week was 35.6 hours, while the modal number of hours was 40 hours. Almost 83% were working 30 hours or more per week, while 19.1% were working between 10 and 29 hours per week.

Chart 10
First Jobs: Hours Worked Per Week by Sex
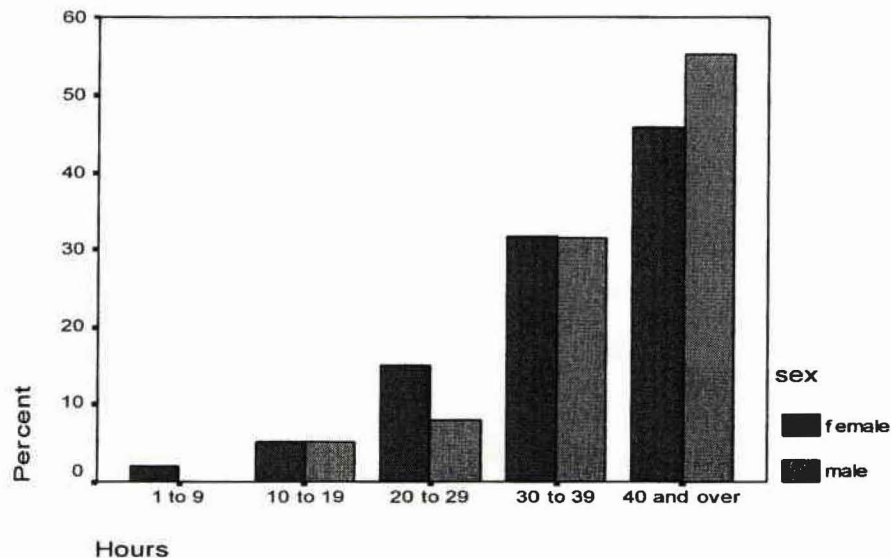
Men worked between 10 and 60 hours per week, with a mean of 38.2 hours per week. Women averaged 35.2 hours per week. Women's hours ranged from 5 to 75 hours per week. Chart 10 shows that men were more likely to be working over 20 hours per week, while women were more likely to be working less than 20 hours per week. Annual starting salaries for these respondents ranged from less than $10,000 to over $60,000. The modal annual income was between $20,000 and $30,000. One must bear in mind the fact that many of these respondents were entering the labour force for the *first* time with little or no prior experience. Recent entrants to the labour force typically earn entry-level salaries.

Chart 11 shows the proportions of women and men in each income category. Men were over-represented in every income category over $30,000, while women were over-represented in every category under $30,000.

Chart 11
First Jobs: Starting Salary by Sex
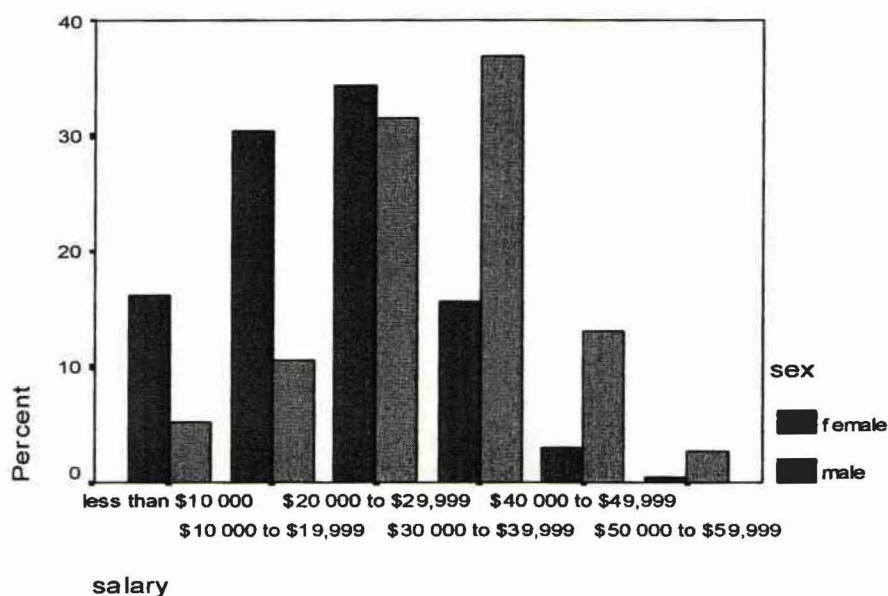
How Did You Find Your <u>First</u> Job?

Respondents who had obtained *first* jobs since graduating in Sociology (n=258) were asked what resources they had used in their searches for jobs. Many resources were used. However, the three most common responses were as follows: "friends and relatives" (29.8%), "sending a résumé to the employer"

(23.8%), and using classified advertisements in newspapers (21%). Interestingly, only 7.1% of the respondents indicated that they had found their jobs through volunteer work.

Almost 68% of these graduates indicated that their jobs were related to their degrees, while 32.2% indicated that their positions were not related to their degrees. These findings are in keeping with those reported in other studies. In 1988, 74% of 1986 social science graduates were employed in jobs that were directly or partially related to their education, while the average for all graduates was 83% (Department of the Secretary of State of Canada 1990:31). Drawing on their analysis of a national sample of 1990 graduates, LaPierre and Little found that 57% of B.A. graduates indicated that their jobs were directly related to their degrees (1996:10). These figures are similar to those reported by Grayson. His research on York graduates indicates that 57.1% of respondents believed that there was a connection between their jobs and educations, while almost 43% did not believe there was a relationship (Grayson 1988:10).

Relationship Between First Job and University Degree

Respondents were also asked how related their university degrees were to their *first* jobs in terms of, first, the content of the undergraduate courses, second,

the academic skills that they had acquired and, third, the computer skills that they had acquired (see Table 8). In terms of course content, 30.4% indicated that their degrees were "related" to their first jobs. With regard to the academic skills that they had acquired, 30.4% indicated that their degrees were "related." Interestingly, only 13.1% believed that the computer skills were "related" to their *first* jobs.

Table 8
Relationship between First Job and Aspects of Degree

	VERY RELATED	RELATED	SOMEWHAT RELATED	NOT RELATED	TOTAL Percent
Course Content	10.3	30.4	24.1	35.2	100.0
Academic Skills	25.3	30.4	22.1	22.1	100.0
Computer Skills	8.3	13.1	13.9	64.7	100.0

n=258

First Job Satisfaction

Table 9 shows the ratings that respondents gave when evaluating various aspects of their jobs. Overall, 26.6% of respondents were satisfied with their first jobs, while almost 19% were not satisfied. Graduates were also asked to indicate how satisfied they were with various aspects of their *first* jobs. With regard to opportunities for gaining job experience, 27.3% were "satisfied." With regard to the availability of opportunities for learning skills, 25.3% were "satisfied." With

regard to opportunities for displaying personal initiative, 25.3% were "satisfied."

With regard to opportunities for advancement, 20.4% were "satisfied." With

regard to benefits, 19.8% were "satisfied." With regard to salary, 33.3% were

"satisfied."

Table 9
First Job Satisfaction

	VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	NOT SATISFIED	TOTAL PERCENT
Overall	36.5	26.6	18.3	18.7	100.0
Job Experience	43.0	27.3	17.0	13.0	100.0
Learning Skills	41.5	25.3	18.6	14.6	100.0
Personal Initiative	32.0	25.3	20.9	21.7	100.0
Advancement	23.6	20.4	18.4	37.6	100.0
Benefits	23.9	19.8	10.3	46.1	100.0
Salary	20.6	33.3	21.8	24.2	100.0

n=258

These respondents were also asked to indicate the most important

considerations that they had taken into account when choosing their *first* jobs.

The most frequently mentioned consideration was the desire to earn a "good

salary" (47%), followed by the desire "to gain experience and learn skills"

(33.6%), to work in a specific field (30%), to make use of certain aptitudes or

abilities (23.7%), to have the opportunity to be helpful to others (23.7%), to work

in a convenient location (21.7%), to have the opportunity for advancement

(20.6%), to have job security (19.8%), to obtain employment (19%), and to enjoy

good benefits (17.8%). It appears that large numbers of graduates may be willing to forgo opportunities for advancement, job security, and good benefits in order to earn good salaries. However, many jobs that offer attractive salaries also have many other kinds of advantages, for example, job security and health benefits.

Chart 12 shows how useful respondents thought their training in Sociology had been in preparing them for their first jobs. Almost 26% of them indicated that their training had been "very useful," 43.7% indicated that their training had been "somewhat useful," and 30.7% indicated that their training had been "not useful" in their first jobs.

Chart 12
Usefulness of Sociology Degree for First Jobs
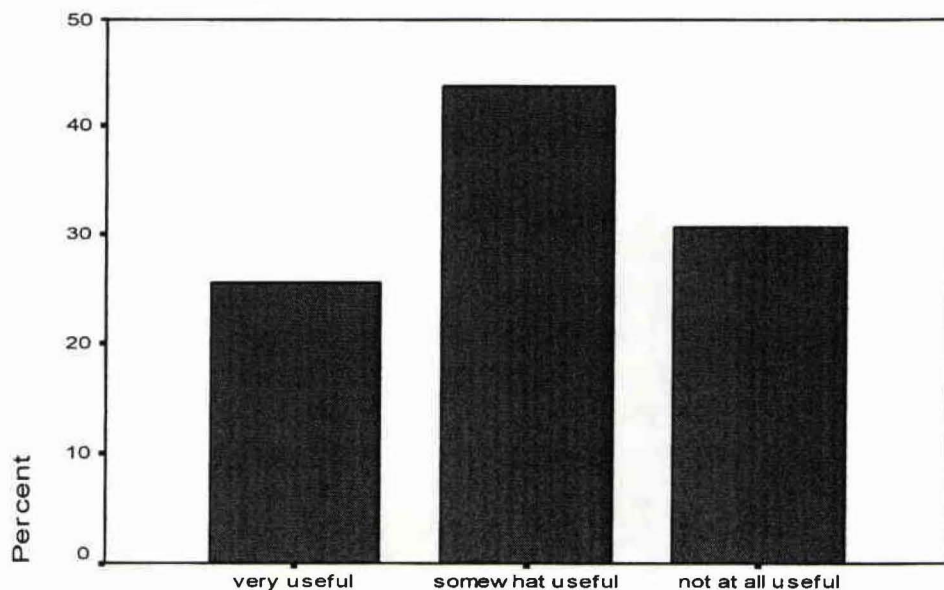
Current Employment

Features of Current Employment

Just over 89% (n=223) of the 258 respondents who had held *first* jobs

after obtaining their degrees in Sociology were still employed at the time of the

survey. As Chart 13 shows, 36.8% (n=92) of the respondents indicated that their

current jobs were different from their *first* jobs. Just over 52% (n=131) were in

the same job, 2.8% (n=7) were not employed, but looking for work, while only

2.4% (n=6) were not employed <u>and</u> not seeking employment. Of the remaining

Chart 13
Current Employment Status
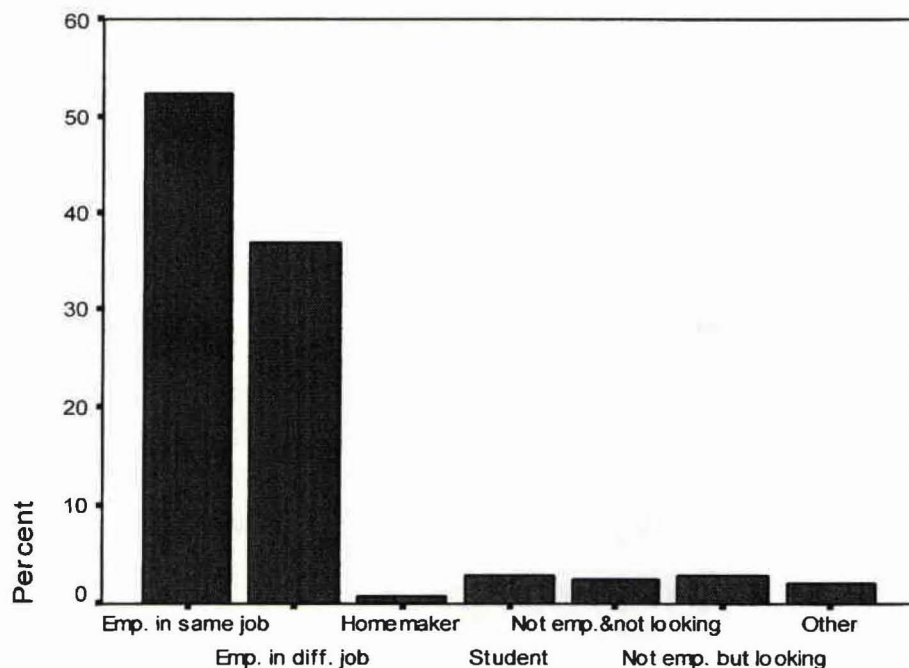
respondents, two were continuing their education and two were homemakers. If one excludes those respondents who had (for various reasons) voluntarily excluded themselves from the labour force (n=61), then the employment rate of these graduates is 91.8% (n=223).

As Table 10 shows, over 67% of these respondents were currently working in permanent jobs, 21.8% were working on a contract basis, while the remaining 11% were working on other types of basis. Women were especially likely to have contract, temporary, or seasonal work. Men were more likely to be working in permanent positions and were more likely to be self-employed.

Table 10
Type of Employment Position by Sex

		SEX		TOTAL	
		Female	Male		
	Permanent position	66.1	73.0	67.2	173
	Contract position	21.9	21.6	21.8	56
	Temporary position	6.3	2.7	5.7	14
	Seasonal position	0.5	0.0	0.4	1
	Self-employed	2.1	2.7	2.2	5
	Other	3.1	0.0	2.6	7
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	256

2 missing cases

Current Jobs

Table 11 shows all of the current jobs reported categorized under major occupational groups and organized by gender. The four most commonly reported occupational groups were as follows: teachers and professionals (15.9%), clerical occupations (14.8%), specialist managers (11.5%), and judges, lawyers, psychologists, social workers, ministers of religion, and policy and program officers (9.8%). These four groups accounted for 52% of these respondents. The six most frequently reported occupations, taken together, accounted for 25.7% of all current occupations reported. The most commonly reported occupations were as follows: elementary school and kindergarten teachers (7.3%), retail salespersons and related clerks (4.6%), post-secondary teachers and research assistants (4.1%), community and social service workers (3.7%), human resources managers (3.2%), and other administrative services managers (2.8%).

In the case of men, the three most common occupational groups were teachers and professionals (17.6%), occupations in protective services (14.6%), and specialist managers (14.6%). In the case of women, the three most frequent occupational groups were as follows: clerical occupations (16.2%), teachers and professionals (15.8%), and specialist managers (10.8%).

Table 11
Current Occupation by Sex

	Sex		Total	
	Female	Male	Percent	Count
Specialist Managers	**10.8**	**14.6**	**11.5**	**25**
Financial Managers	1.1	2.9	1.4	3
Human Resources Managers	3.8	0.0	3.2	7
Other Administrative Services Managers	3.3	0.0	2.8	6
Banking, Credit and Other Investment Managers	0.5	2.9	0.9	2
Information Systems and Data Processing Managers	0.5	2.9	0.9	2
Sales, Marketing and Advertising Managers	1.6	5.9	2.3	5
Managers in Retail Trade, Food and Accommodation Services	**2.1**	**2.9**	**2.3**	**5**
Restaurant and Food Service Managers	0.5	2.9	0.9	2
Retail Trade Managers	1.6	0.0	1.4	3
Other Managers, n.e.c.	**2.1**	**8.7**	**3.2**	**7**
Other Business Services Managers	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Managers in Social, Community and Correctional Services	1.6	2.9	1.8	4
Recreation and Sport Program and Service Directors	0.5	2.9	0.9	2
Professional Occupations in Business and Finance	**2.0**	**2.9**	**2.4**	**5**
Financial Auditors and Accountants	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Financial and Investment Analysts	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Specialists in Human Resources	0.5	2.9	0.9	2
Professional Occupations in Business Services to Management	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Finance and Insurance Administrative Occupations	**1.5**	**0.0**	**1.5**	**3**
Bookkeepers	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Insurance Underwriters	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Assessors, Valuators and Appraisers	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Secretaries	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Secretaries (except Legal and Medical)	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Administrative and Regulatory Occupations	**3.6**	**0.0**	**3.4**	**7**
Executive Assistants	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Immigration, Unemployment Insurance and Revenue Officers	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Property Administrators	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Conference and Event Planners	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Supervisors, General Office and Administrative Clerks	1.6	0.0	1.4	3
Clerical Occupations	**16.2**	**5.8**	**14.8**	**32**
General Office Clerks	2.2	0.0	1.8	4
Records and File Clerks	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Receptionists and Switchboard Operators	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Data Entry Clerks	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Telephone Operators	0.5	0.0	0.5	1

Accounting and Related Clerks	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Tellers, Financial Services	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Banking, Insurance and Other Financial Clerks	2.7	0.0	2.3	5
Administrative Clerks	2.2	0.0	1.8	4
Personnel Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Court Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Library Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Customer Service, Information and Related Clerks	2.7	2.9	2.8	6
Professional Occupations in Natural and Applied Science	**0.5**	**2.9**	**1.0**	**2**
Computer Systems Analysts	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Computer Programmers	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Professional Occupations in Health	**1.6**	**0.0**	**1.4**	**3**
Dieticians and Nutritionists	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Professional Occupations in Therapy and Assessment	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Nurse Supervisors and Registered Nurses	**2.7**	**0.0**	**2.3**	**5**
Head Nurses and Supervisors	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Registered Nurses	2.2	0.0	1.8	4
Technical and Related Occupations in Health	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Medical Sonographers	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Assisting Occupations in Support of Health Services	**1.1**	**2.9**	**1.4**	**3**
Other Aides and Assistants in Support of Health Services	1.1	2.9	1.4	3
Judges,Lawyers,Psych.,Soc.Work,Min.of Rel.,Program Officers	**9.2**	**11.6**	**9.8**	**19**
Social Workers	3.3	0.0	2.8	6
Family, Marriage and Other Related Counselors	1.1	2.9	1.4	3
Ministers of Religion	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Probation and Parole Officers and Related Occupations	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Health & Social Policy Researchers, Consult & Program Officers	1.6	2.9	1.8	3
Economists & Economic Policy Researchers & Analysts	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Recreation & Sports Program Supervisors & Consultants	2.2	0.0	1.8	3
Program Officers Unique to Government	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Teachers and Professionals	**15.8**	**17.6**	**15.9**	**34**
University Professors	0.0	5.9	0.9	2
Post-Secondary Teaching & Research Assistants	3.8	5.9	4.1	9
College and Other Vocational Instructors	1.6	2.9	1.8	4
Secondary School Teachers	2.2	0.0	1.8	4
Elementary School and Kindergarten Teachers	8.2	2.9	7.3	15
Paralegals,Soc.Serv. Workers& Occup. in Educ.& Relig.,N.E.C.	**7.6**	**5.9**	**7.4**	**16**
Community and Social Service Workers	3.3	5.9	3.7	8
Employment Counselors	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Instructors and Teachers of Disabled Persons	2.2	0.0	1.8	4
Other Instructors	1.6	0.0	1.4	3
Professional Occupations in Art and Culture	**1.0**	**0.0**	**1.0**	**2**

Editors	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Professional Occupations in Public Relations & Communications	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Technical Occupations in Art, Culture, Recreation, and Sport	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Program Leaders & Instructors in Recreation and Sport	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Sales and Service Supervisors	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Food Service Supervisors	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Technic.,Ins.,Real Est. Sales& Retail,Wholesale&Grain Buyers	**0.5**	**2.9**	**1.0**	**2**
Insurance Agents and Brokers	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Real Estate Agents and Salespersons	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Cashiers	**2.2**	**0.0**	**1.8**	**4**
Cashiers	2.2	0.0	1.8	4
Retail Salespersons and Sales Clerks	**5.4**	**0.0**	**4.6**	**10**
Retail Salespersons and Sales Clerks	5.4	0.0	4.6	10
Occupations in Food and Beverage Service	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Food and Beverage Servers	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Occupations in Protective Services	**2.6**	**14.6**	**4.7**	**10**
Police Officers (except Commissioned)	1.1	8.8	2.3	5
Correctional Service Officers	0.5	2.9	0.9	2
By-Law Enforcement and Other Regulatory Officers, n.e.c.	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Protective Service Occupations	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Security Guards and Related Occupations	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Occup.in Travel & Accommod. incl. Attendants in Rec.& Sport	**2.1**	**0.0**	**1.9**	**4**
Travel Counselors	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Pursers and Flight Attendants	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Other Attendants in Accommodation and Travel (except Airline)	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Childcare and Home Support Workers	**4.9**	**0.0**	**4.6**	**9**
Early Childhood Educators and Assistants	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Visiting Homemakers, Housekeepers and Related Occupations	2.7	0.0	2.3	5
Elementary and Secondary School Teacher Assistants	1.1	0.0	0.9	2
Mechanics	**0.0**	**2.9**	**0.5**	**1**
Machinery & Transportation Equipment Mechanics	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Transportation Equipment Operators & Related Workers	**0.0**	**2.9**	**0.5**	**1**
Delivery Drivers	0.0	2.9	0.5	1
Machine Oper.& Rel. Workers in Chem.,Plastic & Rubber Proc.	**0.5**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Testers and Graders, Goods and Beverage Processing	0.5	0.0	0.5	1
Total	**84.4**	**15.6**	**100.0**	**215**

8 missing cases

Current Industries of Employment

Table 12 (given below) shows the various industries in which respondents were currently employed. Once again, the industries that were reported were categorized under major industrial groups and organized by gender. These results are similar to those reported for the first jobs respondents had after graduation. The two most frequently reported industrial groups accounted for just over 46% of these respondents. The top two industrial groups were health and social service industries with 24.4%, and education services industries with 21.8% of these respondents. For men, the two most frequently reported industrial groups were, first, education services industries (20%) and, second, health and social service industries (13.3%). For women, the two most frequent industrial groups were, first, health and social service industries (26.3%) and, second, education services industries (22.2%).

For men, the four most frequently reported industries were as follows: university education (13.3%), chartered banks (10%), elementary and secondary education (6.7%), and police services (6.7%). These four industries accounted for almost 38% of all currently employed male respondents. For women, the four most common industries were as follows: elementary and secondary education (14.4%), other health and social service associations and agencies

(4.8%), general hospitals (4.2%), university education (3.6%), and chartered
banks (3.6%). These four industries accounted for 30.6% of all currently
employed female respondents.

Table 12
Current Industries by Sex

	Sex		Total	
	Female	Male	Percent	Count
Mining, Milling, Quarrying and Oil Well Industries	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Conventional Crude Oil and Natural Gas Industry	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Food Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Malt and Malt Flour Industry	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Beverage Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Distillery Products Industry	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Printing, Publishing and Allied Industries	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Other Publishing Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Newspaper, Magazine & Periodical Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Machinery Industries (Except Electrical)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Machinery and Equipment Industries n.e.c.	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Electrical and Electronic Products Industries	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Major Appliance Industry (Electric and Non Electric)	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Chemical and Chemical Products Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Pharmaceutical and Medicine Industry	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Manufacturing Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Manufactured Products Industries n.e.c.	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Transportation Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Scheduled Air Transport Industry	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Communication Industries	0.6	6.6	1.5	3
Telecommunication Carriers Industry	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Postal Service Industry	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Courier Service Industry	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Motor Vehicle, Parts and Accessories Industries, Wholesale	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Motor Vehicle Parts and Accessories, Wholesale	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Products Industries, Wholesale	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Photographic Equipment and Supplies, Wholesale	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Food, Beverage and Drug Industries, Retail	3.6	0.0	3.0	6

Food (Groceries) Stores	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Liquor Stores	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Wine Stores	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Pharmacies	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Shoe, Apparel, Fabric and Yarn Industries, Retail	**1.2**	**0.0**	**1.0**	**2**
Clothing Stores n.e.c.	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Household Furniture, Appliances & Furnishings Ind., Retail	**0.6**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Other Household Furnishing Stores	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Automotive Vehicles, Parts and Access. Ind. Sales & Service	**1.2**	**0.0**	**1.0**	**2**
Automobile (New) Dealers	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Motor Vehicle Services, n.e.c.	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
General Retail Merchandising Industries	**1.2**	**3.3**	**1.5**	**3**
Department Stores	1.2	3.3	1.5	3
Other Retail Store Industries	**2.4**	**0.0**	**2.0**	**4**
Book and Stationary Stores	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Other Retail Stores, n.e.c.	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Deposit Accepting Intermediary Industries	**5.4**	**10.0**	**6.1**	**12**
Chartered Banks	3.6	10.0	4.6	9
Trust Companies	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Consumer and Business Financing Intermediary Industries	**0.6**	**3.3**	**1.0**	**2**
Sales Finance Companies	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Financial Leasing Companies	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Investment Intermediary Industries	**3.0**	**3.3**	**3.0**	**6**
Investment (Mutual) Funds	0.6	3.3	1.0	2
Retirement Savings Funds	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Investment Companies	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Insurance Industries	**1.8**	**0.0**	**1.5**	**3**
Life Insurers	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Other Property and Casualty Insurers	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Real Estate Operator and Insurance Agent Industries	**0.6**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Operators of Residential Buildings & Dwellings	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Business Service Industries	**4.2**	**0.0**	**3.5**	**7**
Advertising Agencies	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Offices of Architects	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Offices of Lawyers and Notaries	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Federal Government Service Industries	**5.4**	**3.3**	**5.1**	**10**
Correctional Services (F)	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Other Protective Services	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Finance and Economic Administration (F)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Taxation Administration (F)	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Social Service Administration (F)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Education Administration (F)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1

Recreation and Culture Administration (F)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Research Administration (F)	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Provincial and Territorial Government Service Industries	**2.4**	**9.9**	**3.5**	**7**
Correctional Services (P & T)	0.6	3.3	1.0	2
Police Service (P&T)	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Other Protective Services (P&T)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Education Administration (P&T)	0.6	3.3	1.0	2
Recreation and Culture Administration (P&T)	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Local Government Service Industries	**5.4**	**10.0**	**6.0**	**12**
Transportation and Communication Administration	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Correctional Services (L)	0.6	3.3	1.0	2
Police Services (L)	1.8	6.7	2.5	5
Social Service Administration (L)	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Recreation and Culture Administration (L)	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Educational Service Industries	**22.2**	**20.0**	**21.8**	**43**
Elementary and Secondary Education	14.4	6.7	13.2	26
Post-Secondary Non-University Education	2.4	0.0	2.0	4
University Education	3.6	13.3	5.1	10
Other Educational Services	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Health and Social Service Industries	**26.3**	**13.3**	**24.4**	**48**
General Hospitals	4.2	3.3	4.1	8
Extended Care Hospitals	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Mental (Psychiatric) Hospitals	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Children's (Pediatric) Hospitals	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Homes for Personal and Nursing Care	1.8	3.3	2.0	4
Other Institutional Health and Social Services n.e.c.	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Home Care Services	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Child Day Care and Nursery School Services	2.4	0.0	2.0	4
Child Welfare Services	1.8	0.0	1.5	3
Social Rehabilitation Services	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Other Non Institutional Social Services	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Offices of Social Workers	1.2	3.3	1.5	3
Offices of Other Social Service Practitioners	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Health Care and Public Safety Promotion Associations & Agencies	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Health Care Research Agencies	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Social Service Planning and Advocacy Agencies	1.8	3.3	2.0	4
Other Health and Social Service Associations and Agencies	4.8	0.0	4.1	8
Accommodation Service Industries	**0.6**	**0.0**	**0.5**	**1**
Other Recreation and Vacation Camps	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Food and Beverage Service Industries	**1.8**	**3.3**	**2.0**	**4**
Restaurants, Licensed	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Restaurants, Unlicensed (Including Drive Ins)	0.6	3.3	1.0	2

|				
Other Service Industries	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Other Sports and Recreational Clubs	0.6	0.0	0.5	1
Personal and Household Service Industries	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Cemeteries and Crematoria	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Membership Organization Industries	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Religious Organizations	0.0	3.3	0.5	1
Other Service Industries	1.8	3.3	2.0	4
Automobile and Truck Rental and Leasing Services	0.6	3.3	1.0	2
Ticket and Travel Agencies	1.2	0.0	1.0	2
Total	84.8	15.2	100.0	197

26 missing cases

Current Jobs: Hours Worked Per Week and Starting Salaries

Respondents who indicated that they were currently employed in jobs that were different from the *first* jobs that they held immediately after graduating in Sociology were asked how many hours per week they worked. The average number of hours worked was 37.3, while the mode was 40 hours. Almost 83% were working 30 hours or more per week, while 19.1% were working between 10 and 29 hours per week. These figures are similar to those reported for York graduates two years after graduation, with 87.3% working full-time, and 8.8% working part-time (Grayson 1999:6).

Men worked between 10 and 75 hours per week. The mean was 40.1 hours per week. Women worked, on average 37.2 hours per week, with a range from 5 to 75 hours per week. Chart 14 indicates that few men worked under 20 hours per week, while many more women worked less than 20 hours per week.

Chart 14
Current Jobs: Hours Worked per Week by Sex
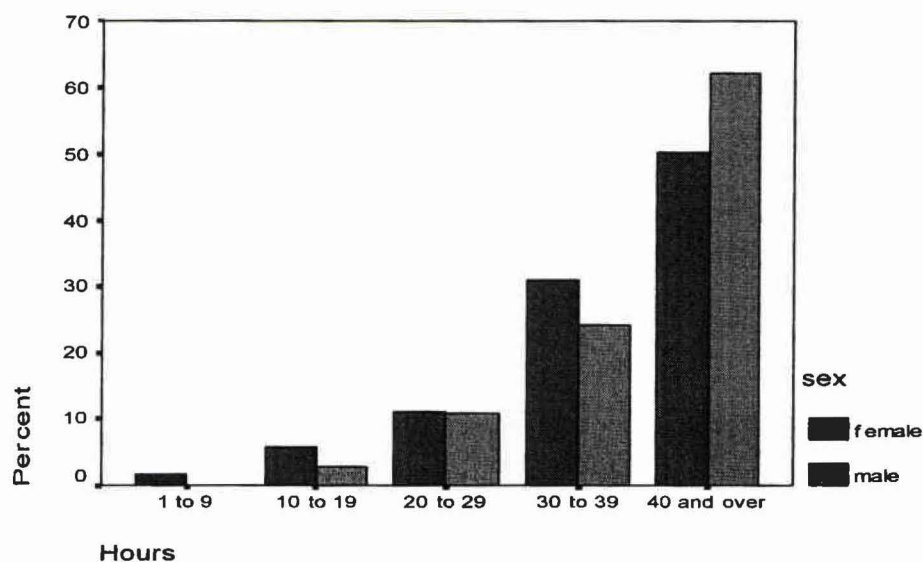
Salaries ranged from less than $10,000 to over $60,000 annually. The mode was between $30,000 and $40,000. Chart 15 shows the proportions of women and men in each income group. Just as in the first jobs that respondents reported, men were much more likely than women to be earning over $30,000 per year. In contrast, women were much more likely than men to be earning less than $30,000 per year. These patterns are in keeping with the information reported by respondents regarding their *first* jobs following graduation.

Respondents who indicated that their current jobs were different from their *first* jobs were asked why they had changed jobs. The five answers most frequently given accounted for almost half of these respondents. Just over 17%

Chart 15
Current (Main) Jobs: Annual Salary by Gender
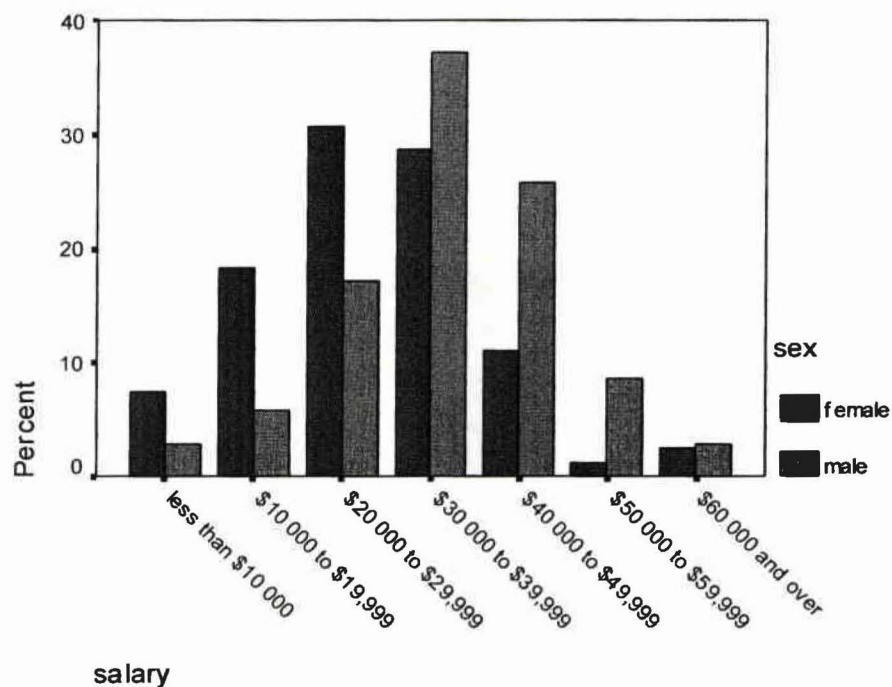
indicated that their contracts had ended, 11.1% had not liked their previous jobs, 9.1% had wanted higher salaries, 7.1% had wanted more opportunities for advancement, and 5.1% had received promotions. Almost 51% of these respondents were employed in the private sector, 38.3% were in the public sector, while 10.7% were in non-profit organizations.

Relationship between First Job and Aspects of Degree

Almost 52% of these respondents indicated that for their current jobs holding a university degree was a requirement, while 48.5% indicated that a university degree was not a requirement. Just over 70% indicated that their jobs were related to their degrees, while almost 30% indicated that their positions were not related to their degrees.

These respondents were also asked how related their degrees were to their current jobs in terms of the content of their undergraduate courses, and the academic and the computer skills that they had acquired (see Table 13). In terms of course content, 21.1% indicated that it was "related." With regard to academic skills, 25.4% indicated that they were "related." Surprisingly, only 11.1% of these graduates indicated that the computer skills that they had acquired were "related" to their jobs.

Table 13
Relationship between Current Job and Aspects of Degree

	VERY RELATED	RELATED	SOMEWHAT RELATED	NOT RELATED	TOTAL PERCENT
Course Content	10.1	21.1	32.9	36.0	100.0
Academic Skills	27.6	25.4	29.4	17.5	100.0
Computer Skills	8.0	11.1	19.5	61.5	100.0

n=223

Job Satisfaction

Table 14 shows the ratings that respondents gave when evaluating various aspects of their jobs. Overall, 25.7% of respondents were very satisfied with their current jobs. With regard to opportunities for gaining job experience, just over 24.1% were satisfied, with regard to opportunities for learning skills, almost 26.2% were satisfied, with regard to opportunities for displaying personal initiative, 27.1% were satisfied, and with regard to opportunities for advancement, 25.9% were satisfied. With regard to benefits, 26.8% were satisfied. With regard to salary, 32.9% were satisfied. In comparison with the responses given in relation to the *first* jobs that the respondents obtained, a higher proportion of respondents answered positively. There could be several reasons for this. These graduates may have come to accept the fact that the job market is

Table 14
Current Job Satisfaction

|	VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	NOT SATISFIED	TOTAL PERCENT
Overall Satisfaction	46.5	25.7	16.8	11.1	100.0
Job Experience	54.4	24.1	13.6	7.9	100.0
Learning Skills	49.8	26.2	16.2	7.8	100.0
Personal Initiative	44.1	27.1	17.9	10.9	100.0
Advancement	31.6	25.9	21.9	20.6	100.0
Benefits	30.8	26.8	14.3	28.1	100.0
Salary	25.0	32.9	28.5	13.6	100.0

n=223

very competitive and that they cannot expect that their expectations will ever be met. Or it may simply be that with the experience that they gained from their *first* jobs they were able to secure better positions that were more in keeping with their expectations. However, it is likely that there are a variety of factors that explain this pattern.

Perceived Usefulness of Sociology Degrees in Current Jobs

These respondents were also asked how useful their training in Sociology had been in preparing them for their current jobs. As Chart 16 shows, 28.8% of them indicated that their training had been "very useful," 46.3% indicated that their training had been "somewhat useful," and 24.9% indicated that their training had been "not useful" in their current jobs.

Chart 16
Usefulness of Sociology Degree for Current Jobs
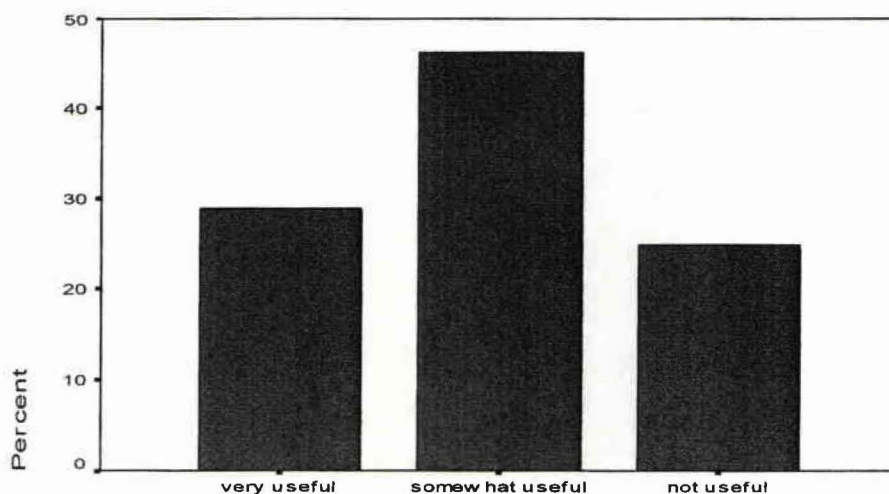
Chapter 5

Discussion

These data on the employment and education patterns of recent graduates will be especially interesting to those who have graduated from McMaster's Sociology program over the past decade, to those about to graduate, and to future graduates. Many of these people are anxious about their opportunities in the labour market. Some of them question the value of additional schooling. Some of them who already have jobs must decide whether to upgrade their skills or aquire new ones. In fact, external conditions, such as economic cycles and technological developments, often force change, and individuals need to be able to make well-informed decisions. The data that have been presented here may answer some of their questions.

As has been discussed, there have been major changes in women's participation in higher education. These changes have been profound. In fact, there has probably been no other major social institution where women's lives have, collectively, been altered so dramatically in the past few decades. Women now comprise over 50% of enrollements in Canadian universities. Even though women have made enormous gains in acquiring academic and professional

qualifications over the past few decades, they remain concentrated in the social sciences and humanities programs. For example, in 1997-98, women made up 54.4% of all undergraduate full-time enrollments at McMaster, while they comprised 69.3% of the faculty of social sciences[6] and over 80% of Sociology undergraduates (Registrar's Report 1998/99). It is important to document the post-graduate experiences of women in female dominated programs such as Sociology. This study provides information on a very large group of female graduates from a female dominated university program.

Employment Patterns

This study supports earlier research that suggests that people with degrees in the social sciences are faring quite well in the job market (Grayson 1988; Lapierre and Little 1996; Davies and Denton 1997; Statistics Canada 1999). Of the graduates who responded to this survey, 78.8% were currently employed, while 12.7% were continuing their educations.

Almost 96% of the respondents had held jobs after graduation. Interestingly, almost 37% of respondents indicated that they were employed in the same positions that they had held while they were still completing their degrees. It is clear that a large number of respondents were in part-time, or even full-time employment while they were attending McMaster. Just over 66%

indicated that their first jobs were related to their degrees, while 70% indicated

that their current jobs were related to their degrees. These figures are slightly

higher than that reported in a national survey of the Canadian labour force

conducted in the early 1980s. This study indicated that only about half of social

science graduates held jobs that were related to their educations (Jamsin and

McDowell 1989). Grayson, reporting on the experiences of York University

Arts graduates, reported that just over 57% felt that their jobs were related to

their educations (Grayson 1998:10).

The majority of respondents indicated that they were currently working in

the service sector. The most common occupations were those in education and in

health and social service sectors. Some of the most frequently mentioned kinds

of employers were educational institutions (for example, elementary schools,

secondary schools, and universities), health and social service agencies, and

chartered banks. It appears that there is great diversity in occupations and in

industries. For example, one graduate was currently working as an investment

analyst, another was employed as a minister of religion, and another had become

an editor.

From this study it is clear that the McMaster Sociology program, although

not very selective, has graduates with a wide range of interests and abilities.

Consequently, no simple answer as to exactly where Sociology graduates find employment can be given. It is clear that these graduates have a wide range of employment opportunities.

With reference to some of the broad issues surrounding education and employment, this study did find evidence of gender segregation. However, even though the proportion of men (16.9%) who responded to the survey corresponds very well with the overall proportion of men who graduated from McMaster's Sociology program (18%) the actual number of male respondents is small and therefore any conclusions should be accepted with caution.

This study revealed clear differences in the employment patterns of men and women. Although women were represented in large numbers and proportions in a wide range of occupational groups, the data show that women are concentrated in a few specific areas, particularly clerical, sales, and service occupations. The clerical and administrative sectors had some of the highest concentrations of women. Clerical jobs alone accounted for 18.1% and 16.2% of women's first and current jobs, respectively. Women were almost four times as likely as men to be employed in this field. These jobs tend to be characterised by low wages and relatively little autonomy. In contrast, fewer than one in ten workers in protective service occupations were women.

Our findings suggest that their continues to be some labour market segmentation. One of the most obvious consequences of labour-market segmentation is the wage gap. Despite working almost as many hours per week as men, women tended to be over-represented in all wage categories under $30,000, while men tended to have considerably higher incomes.[7] Furthermore, women were much more likely than men to hold seasonal and temporary positions, while men were more likely to hold permanent positions and to be self-employed.

Other studies of university graduates find similar results. Reskin (1993) found that among university graduates as a whole, females earn about 74% of the income earned by males. Davies, Mosher, and O'Grady found wage gaps of 84% and 91% for university graduates of 1978 and 1988, respectively. However, a 1995 Statistics Canada report found that among 1990 graduates in 1992 there was no wage difference when hours worked, field of study and tenure were controlled (Statistics Canada 1995c).

Wages are often an indicator of the overall quality of a job. Jobs that have a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic benefits also tend to command high salaries. In addition to paying well, "good jobs" usually offer other kinds of advantages: they tend to be secure, to offer a range of benefits, to provide advancement

opportunities, and to be interesting and challenging. Even in teaching, where there were fairly equal proportions of men and women, no women were to be found working as university professors. In short, the gender wage gap that was evident among Sociology graduates is indicative of a much broader social pattern.

With regard to the ratings that respondents gave when evaluating their jobs, the typical graduate was satisfied with his/her opportunity for learning skills and his/her salary. However, the typical graduate was not satisfied with his/her opportunities for advancement. These patterns are in keeping with other research that shows that most of the growth in employment is in the service sector. This type of employment tends to be characterised by work that offers low wages, few benefits, poor working conditions, and limited opportunities for upward mobility (Myles et al. 1988; Krahn 1990:1; Morissette 1991; O'Neill 1991:12; Wannell 1991; Betcherman et al. 1994:74-76; Krahn and Lowe 1996:98-100). Most graduates found work in the service sectors. While they may be willing to accept entry-level wages, many are not satisfied with working in the "dead-end" jobs which often seem to characterize these sectors. Other researchers have concluded that educated workers may increasingly be forced to find jobs in this

type of employment (Clark et al. 1986; Krahn and Lowe 1990:10-14; Nobert et al. 1992).

A smooth transition from school to work obviously involves more than simply obtaining employment. The type of work that a young person finds clearly matters. It is important to look beyond employment status and to examine the extent of the match between the skill requirements of the jobs that graduates obtain and graduates' educational credentials (Smith 1986). Underemployment can be defined and measured in a number of ways (Clogg et al. 1986). Subjective indicators include the respondents' own assessment of whether his/her job is related to his/her education and training, or whether it requires him/her to draw on his/her skills and abilities.

With respect to the current jobs (results were very similar to that reported for first jobs) that respondents held, over 70% indicated that their jobs were related to their degrees. A slight majority (51.5%) indicated that for their current jobs holding a university degree was a requirement. Interestingly, the majority (61.5%) indicated that the computer skills that they had acquired were "not at all related" to their jobs. A significant minority (36%) indicated that the course content was "not at all related." With regard to academic skills, 22.1% indicated that they were "not at all related." However, only 11.1% indicated that they not

satisfied with their current jobs. This was down from 18.7% reported for the first jobs respondents obtained.

These data suggest that large numbers of these respondents are experiencing underemployment. A large minority of these graduates claimed that their jobs were not related to their educations and did not make use of their skills and their knowledge of Sociology. In other words, according to subjective indicators, a considerable degree of underemployment exists. Nevertheless, only a small minority of these graduates were not satisfied with their current employment.

This observed relationship between jobs and educations suggests that education in Sociology contributes to general academic skills which can be applied in a wide variety of contexts. Not only do students learn about substantive areas in the discipline of Sociology, but they also learn to analyze, to synthesize, and to evaluate. Consequently, Sociology courses tend to teach students how to ask questions, how to make informed judgements, and how to analyze problems. Marsick contends that this type of education enables a person to respond effectively to "rapid, complex change in organisations, people and their work," which calls for new ways of dealing with information, new kinds of knowledge and information, and different ways of organising the workplace and

managing employees (1987:10). This partly explains why so many graduates were employed in management and in education.

Interestingly and contrary to expectations, only a small minority of respondents had found their <u>first</u> jobs through volunteer work. The majority of respondents indicated that they had found their <u>first</u> jobs after graduation through "friends and relatives" (see Granovetter 1973; 1983; 1995 for valuable insights into the process of job finding and the importance of contacts). It seems that the old adage is correct—"who you know" is very important when it comes to finding a job.

Factors Influencing the Decision to Major in Sociology

There was almost a perfect 50/50 split among respondents as to whether they would or would not major in Sociology again. Some wanted their educations to lead directly to jobs, while others enjoyed Sociology because the program content was relevant to their daily lives. It is worth noting that very few of those graduates who said that they would take Sociology over would do so because the program prepared them for future careers.

Interestingly, the main programs that the respondents would choose to major in, if they had the opportunity, had fairly stringent admission requirements. It is probable that many of them had applied for admission to these programs

before entering Sociology, but had been rejected. Or alternatively, some students may actually have been admitted to these programs, but found that they could not achieve the grade-point averages necessary for continuation, did not pass the required course(s), or that they simply did not enjoy the programs. These students may then have transferred to Sociology. It must be emphasised that the Sociology program at McMaster is not a highly selective program. However, some other programs at McMaster do have limited enrolments and fairly stringent admission criteria (examples of such programs are Business, Gerontology, Kinesiology, Psychology, and Social Work). In fact, the requirements of these and other programs can actually determine who becomes a Sociology student. For example, the Calculus requirements of the Business and Psychology programs, the swimming and fitness requirements of Kinesiology, and the high academic and other requirements for the limited numbers of places in the Social Work and Gerontology programs prevent many students from entering or staying these programs.

Given the large numbers of women who study Sociology, this issue is especially important. Women tend not to gain high mathematics qualifications in high school and therefore tend to choose university majors that do not emphasise mathematics (Chipman and Thomas 1987; Gilligan 1982:23-45; Marcroft

1990:61; Oakes 1990; Rogers 1990:38; Thomas 1990:19; National Advisory Board on Science and Technology 1993). Many programs at McMaster have high mathematics requirements, while Sociology has only a modest one. It is very likely that substantial numbers of students in the Sociology program at McMaster are there because they were not admitted to the programs that they initially selected or that they were not able to maintain the academic standards that are required of students in these programs. In the case of those who applied and did not gain entry into these programs, completing a Sociology degree may help them gain admission into their programs of choice through the "back door." It is likely that these students do not view graduation from Sociology as "graduation", but rather as a "stepping stone" that may help them in their long-term plans for achieving their initial goals. For example, after graduating in Sociology, some graduates will enter the "Gerontology as a Second Degree" program, some will apply to Business programs with advanced standing, and some will enter MSW programs. Because the Sociology program at McMaster covers a broad range of fields, students are able to take courses within the Sociology program that are related to their "real" interests. In this manner, they may continue to work towards the goal of entering their programs of first choice.

This probably explains why such a large number of Sociology graduates, were they able to choose again, would choose a different major.

It is probable that some graduates of sociology are "late-choosers." Sociology students are older than the usual undergraduates. For example, some of these students are women returning to university after raising children. These, rather older graduates may have been unsure of their occupational goals before entering the Sociology program. Since many skills acquired elsewhere can be applied in the field of Sociology, individuals who find themselves in a particular occupation or academic field may be able to transfer into Sociology with the loss of only a few academic credits. Consequently, Sociology is, right from the start, not the degree of choice for some Sociology students.

Over half of McMaster's Sociology graduates went on to enroll in some type of further education, either at the university or at the college level. This can be interpreted in several different ways. For example, the McMaster Sociology program may be preparing some students for the challenge of higher education. On the other hand, some graduates may be continuing their studies simply because they find that they cannot obtain *satisfactory* employment. Or it may be that some graduates are combining their academic knowledge with more practical and skills-oriented college programs.

It also needs to be pointed out that the goals of Sociology students will vary from university to university. Some of the graduates of the McMaster program may simply be using their Sociology degrees as "stepping stones" that will aid them in achieving other more significant goals. For example, because the costs of attending university are continually increasing, more and more students are staying on in their parents' homes and enrolling in <u>local</u> colleges and universities. Because McMaster University does not have a Faculty of Education, some Hamilton-based students who are committed to teaching as a career may be earning their B.A.s in Sociology at McMaster and then enrolling in Faculties of Education at other universities. Furthermore, it is clear that there are a substantial number of Sociology graduates who would rather have completed degrees in such fields as Psychology, Gerontology, Business, Kinesiology, or Social Work had they been able to gain entry. Since they could not, they earned their degrees in Sociology. Undoubtedly, some of them then tried to gain entry to those programs through the "back door." The proportion of respondents continuing their education (57%) appears to be rather high, but there are many reasons for this. Most of the respondents who continued their education did so at the university level. As one would expect, the Bachelor of Education (Teaching Certificate) was a very popular option. Others enrolled in

university certificate and college diploma programs. Respondents entered a wide variety of educational programs. For example, some entered business management programs, while others chose financial planning or law. One respondent entered a physiotherapy program. It is clear that these graduates are using their training in Sociology in a variety of contexts and that they are making use of it within a wide range of educational programs.

In general, the prospects for the employment of Sociology graduates appear to be encouraging. Respondents appear to have done fairly well in the job market. The great majority of Sociology graduates are employed and their occupations and their income levels are in keeping with those reported in other surveys of social science graduates (Statistics Canada 1999; Grayson 1998; LaPierre and Little 1996; McMaster University 1995). However, it must be recognized that only a few studies of Sociology graduates have been conducted. This McMaster study deals with the situation at one single point in time. It is clear that fluctuations in levels of government support for social programs and for health services will greatly affect the employment opportunities of Sociology graduates.

Suggestions for Future Research

Additional research is needed in order to document both the academic and employment histories of students prior to entry to Sociology,[8] the occupations these students desire following graduation in Sociology, the various programs applied to <u>prior</u> to their entry to Sociology, and the various programs that they applied to <u>while enrolled</u> in the Sociology program.[9]

Because there is evidence that there is a strong link between family background and socio-economic status (SES) (Porter, Porter, and Blishen 1982:313; Forcese 1986:14-19; Curtis, Livingstone, and Smaller 1992:10; Siedule 1992:19; Tanner, Krahn, and Hartnagel 1995; Nakhaie 1996), future surveys of McMaster graduates should, if possible, include data on the educational and occupational histories of students' parents. Research suggests that the mechanisms by which inequalities are reproduced are extremely complex. Individual students' predispositions and experiences combine with signals from peers, family members, and educators and encourage students to make certain choices with regard to such matters as how long to stay in school, what subjects to study, what careers to consider, and even how much effort to put into particular courses. The degree of influence that parents can exert on their children's educations and career choices, for instance, through providing time

and money to support their children's educations, and through being involved in networks that include other parents, teachers, and potential employers that can provide useful feedback and direction.

The revolutionizing possibilities of the 'information age' are central to many debates about the trends in education and work. The introduction of computers has affected expectations about education and has also transformed day-to-day patterns of living and working. Because new technologies and information systems are so important, additional questions on computer skills should be included in future surveys.

Future research might also focus on isolating those factors that explain why some graduates obtain better jobs than others. Do credentials really matter? Is education the main explanation? Are there differences in the types of jobs obtained by those who earn a 3- as opposed to 4-year B.A.s? Do grades make a difference? Are grades related to achievements in further education and employment? Do computer skills affect employment? In the case of graduates in similar jobs, are there significant variations in their credentials, their earnings, their minors, and other majors, and their early career histories? Further research on these issues is clearly necessary in order to provide a better understanding of

the educational and occupational experiences of graduates in the years following

graduation.

Appendix A: Copy of Questionnaire
SURVEY OF GRADUATES OF THE MCMASTER SOCIOLOGY PROGRAM
1992-1997

Interviewer _____   ID FROM LABEL _____

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. Information from this survey will be used to help the Sociology department in its curriculum planning. The information you provide us will be held in strict confidence. Results will be released only in the form of percentages or grouped data, no individual responses will be given. If you do not wish to answer a specific question, then we will simply move on to the next question.

A.   EDUCATION IN THE MCMASTER SOCIOLOGY PROGRAM

I would like to begin by asking you a few questions about completing your _____ degree from McMaster in 19____. INSERT TYPE OF DEGREE AND YEAR OF GRADUATION FROM LABEL ON THE COVER SHEET)

May I confirm that this is your most recent degree from McMaster. IF NO: What is your most recent degree and in what year did you graduate?

(CODE MOST RECENT DEGREE AND YEAR OF GRADUATION) :

A1   YEAR OF GRADUATION _____

A2   TYPE OF DEGREE.
        ¹☐ B.A. (3 years)
        ²☐ B.A. (HONS)
        ³☐ Master's ...GO TO A4
        ⁴☐ Ph.D. ....GO TO A4

A3   Did you combine Sociology with another subject or minor in a second subject?
        ¹☐ No

        ²☐ Combine, What subject? _____   ☐ ☐

        ³☐ Minor What subject? _____   ☐ ☐

A4   While you were completing this degree, were you mainly enrolled in the Sociology Program as a full-time or part-time student?
        ¹☐ full-time
        ²☐ part-time
        ³☐ both full-time and part-time

A5   Did you complete all of the credits for this degree at McMaster?
        ¹☐ Yes ²☐ No, At what other educational institutions did you obtain academic credits towards your degree?

        _____   ☐☐

        ☐☐

A6   How many years did it take to complete this degree? _____

A7   Overall, were you an: ¹☐ A student   ²☐ B student   ³☐ C student   ⁴☐ D student.

B   SOCIOLOGY PROGRAM AND MCMASTER UNIVERSITY

Now, I have a few questions on your experiences at McMaster University in the Sociology program.

B1.   Would you recommend McMaster to a friend?
        ¹☐ Yes   ²☐ No

        IF YES OR NO, Why is that? _____   ☐☐

B2   If you could take your university degree over again, would you major in Sociology?
        ¹☐ Yes   ²☐ No

        IF YES OR NO ,Why is that ?_____   ☐☐

        IF NO, What would you choose? _____   ☐☐

Now thinking about Sociology in particular:

B3   Were you able to take the Sociology electives that were of interest to you? Would this be:
        ¹☐ Most
        ²☐ Some
        ³☐ or Very Few

        IF SOME OR VERY FEW ASK: Why is that?

        _____   ☐☐

B4   Was there a specific course or area of interest within Sociology that influenced the type of
        employment of interest to you?
        ¹☐ No   ²☐ Yes, What area is that?

        _____   ☐☐

B5   To what extent did you develop the following skills while studying Sociology at McMaster.
        Would this be a lot, somewhat or not at all:

		A lot	Somewhat	Not at all.
(a)	organizational skills	¹☐	²☐	³☐
(b)	communication skills	☐	☐	☐
(c)	problem solving skills	☐	☐	☐
(d)	computer skills	☐	☐	☐
(e)	writing skills	☐	☐	☐
(f)	oral presentation skills	☐	☐	☐
(g)	research skills	☐	☐	☐
(h)	teamwork skills	☐	☐	☐
(I)	other (PLEASE SPECIFY)	☐	☐	☐

B6   Thinking about the both the subject matter and the skills that you have learned in studying Sociology, what do you think has been the most beneficial to you in your employment or life experiences (INTERVIEWER SPECIFY IF RESPONDENT SPEAKS OF EMPLOYMENT OR LIFE EXPERIENCES)

☐☐

_____

C.   EDUCATION AFTER GRADUATION FROM MCMASTER

We would like to know what educational experiences you have had since graduating from McMaster with your _____ in Sociology. (INSERT MOST RECENT DEGREE)

C1.   Since graduating with your degree in Sociology from McMaster, have you been enrolled in a full-time or part-time post-secondary educational program or a program leading to professional certification?
¹☐ Yes, full-time   ²☐ Yes, part-time   ³☐ No **IF NO, GO TO PART D.**

IF MORE THAN ONE EDUCATIONAL COURSE OR PROGRAM ASK RESPONDENT ABOUT MOST RECENT.

C2   What is the name of the institution you attended or are attending (eg: name of University, College, Business School, etc.).

☐☐

_____

¹☐ University
²☐ Community College
³☐ Private Educational Institution or school(eg. DeVry, Park Business School, etc.)
⁴☐ Other (SPECIFY)_____

C3   What is/was the field of study? _____   ☐☐

C4   Did you complete the program?
¹☐ No ²☐ Yes ³☐ On-going

       IF YES OR ON-GOING, In what year did/will you graduate? _____

C5   What degree/diploma/certificate did/will you obtain? _____   ☐☐

C6   Why did you decide to continue your education?(**CHECK ALL THAT APPLY**)

	Yes	No
a) interest in field	¹☐	²☐
b) to increase employment opportunities	☐	☐
c) encouraged by others to continue studies	☐	☐
d) other	☐	☐
(PLEASE SPECIFY)_____		

D.   FIRST JOB AFTER GRADUATING FROM SOCIOLOGY

I would like to ask you some questions about your first job after completing your _____ in Sociology (regardless of how many years after graduation)

D1   Have you obtained employment since completing your degree?

        [1]☐ Yes

        [2]☐ Employed in a job that was held prior to completing the degree   **GO TO D4.**

        [3]☐ No, Why is that?

                [1]☐ continued education   [4]☐ home or family responsibilities

                [2]☐ poor job market   [5]☐ health reasons

                [3]☐ travelled after graduation   [6]☐ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

                IF NO TO D1, GO TO SECTION F   _____

D2   After completing your studies, how many months did you spend looking for your first job?

    _____ or

    [1]☐ Had job prior to completion of studies. **GO TO D4**

D3   On average, how many hours per week did you spend searching for a job? _____

D4   How did you find your first job? **(CHECK ALL THAT APPLY)**

	Yes	No
a) educational placement services	[1]☐	[2]☐
b) off-Campus Government Employment Centre	☐	☐
c) private employment agency	☐	☐
d) newspaper classified ads	☐	☐
e) friends or relatives	☐	☐
f) sent resume to employer	☐	☐
g) phoned or made personal contact with employer	☐	☐
h) professor or academic departments	☐	☐
i) former employer	☐	☐
j) through volunteer work	☐	☐
k) Internet employment listing services	☐	☐
l) other strategies (PLEASE SPECIFY)	☐	☐

D5   In choosing your first job what were the most important considerations?
(CHECK ALL THAT APPLY)

	Yes	No
a) to work in a specific field (e.g. teaching, social services)	[1]☐	[2]☐
b) ability to make use of aptitudes or abilities	☐	☐
c) opportunities for advancement	☐	☐
d) good salary	☐	☐
e) job security	☐	☐
f) good benefits	☐	☐
g) opportunity to be helpful to others	☐	☐
h) to gain experience and learn skills	☐	☐
i) limited employment opportunities	☐	☐
j) location	☐	☐
k) other (PLEASE SPECIFY)_____	☐	☐

D6   In what year did you begin your first job after graduation? 19_____

D7   Approximately how many hours did you work per week in your first job? _____

D8 What kind of employment position were you in? Was it a:
    ¹☐ permanent position   ⁴☐ seasonal position
    ²☐ contract position   ⁵☐ self-employed, or a
    ³☐ temporary position   ⁶☐ volunteer position
                                               ⁷☐ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
    _____

D9 Some graduates have two or more jobs. Did you obtain a second job at the time you held the first job after graduation?
    ☐ Yes
    ☐ No **GO TO D12**

D10 Approximately how many hours did you work per week in this second job?

    _____

D11 What kind of position was this? Was it a:
    ¹☐ permanent position   ⁴☐ seasonal position
    ²☐ contract position   ⁵☐ self-employed, or a
    ³☐ temporary position   ⁶☐ volunteer position
                                               ⁷☐ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
    _____

Now I want to ask you a few more questions about your first job after graduating from Sociology.

D12 What was your job title and duties? _____ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

D13 What kind of business or industry did you work in? _____ ☐ ☐ ☐

D14 What this a private, non-profit or public sector employer?
    ¹☐ private   ²☐ non-profit   ³☐ public

D15. What was the name of your employer_____

D16 Was your University degree required by your employer for this job?
    ¹☐ Yes   ²☐ No

D17 How useful has your training in Sociology been in preparing you for your first job? Was it:
    ¹☐ Very useful   ²☐ Somewhat useful   ³☐ Not useful.

D18 Overall, how closely related to your Sociology degree was this job. Was it:
    ¹☐Very related   ²☐Related   ³☐Somewhat related   ³☐Not related

D19 How related was your sociology degree to your first job in terms of :

		Very Related	Somewhat Related	Not Very Related	Not at all Related
a)	the course content	¹☐	²☐	³☐	⁴☐
b)	academic skills learned	☐	☐	☐	☐
	(Writing, critical thinking, solving problems, communications)				
c)	computer skills learned	☐	☐	☐	☐

D20   Overall, how satisfied were you with your first job. Were you:
                ¹□Very satisfied ²□Satisfied ³□Somewhat satisfied ⁴□Not satisfied.

D21   Still thinking of your first job, how satisfied were you with the following:

		Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Not Satisfied
		¹□	²□	³□	⁴□
d)	salary				
e)	benefits	□	□	□	□
c)	opportunities for advancement	□	□	□	□
d)	opportunities for personal initiative	□	□	□	□
e)	opportunities for job experience	□	□	□	□
f)	opportunities for learning skills	□	□	□	□

D22   What was your approximate starting salary per year? Was it:
           ¹□ less than $10,000   ⁴□ $30,000 to $40,000
           ²□ $10,000 to $20,000 ⁵□ $40,000 to $50,000
           ³□ $20,000 to $30,000 ⁶□ $50,000 or more

E.   CURRENT JOB

E1   Are you currently:
           ¹□ employed in the same (first) job **GO TO E21**
           ²□ employed in a different job
           ³□ homemaker .... **GO TO SECTION F**
           ⁴□ a student.. **GO TO SECTION F**
           ⁵□ not employed and not looking for employment........ **GO TO SECTION F**
           ⁶□ not employed but looking for employment............... **GO TO SECTION F**
           ⁷□ other (PLEASE SPECIFY) _____

E2   Since completing your degree in Sociology, how many different jobs have you had?_____

E3   How long did your first job last? _____ (months)

E4   Why did you change jobs?
           ¹□ laid off from previous job   ⁷□ wanted a job in my field of study
           ²□ contract ended   ⁸□ opportunities for advancement
           ³□ fired   ⁹□ higher salary
           ⁴□ did not like previous job   ¹⁰□ more challenging opportunities
           ⁵□ previous job part-time   ¹¹□ previous job temporary
           ⁶□ promoted   ¹²□ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)_____

E5   In what year did you begin your current job? _____

E6   Approximately how many hours do you work per week in this job? _____

E7   What kind of a position are you in? Is it:
           ¹□ permanent position   ⁴□ seasonal position
           ²□ contract position   ⁵□ self-employed, or a
           ³□ temporary position   ⁶□ volunteer position
                                    ⁷□ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
                                   _____

E8   Are you currently employed in a second job?
        ¹□ Yes ²□ No, **GO TO E11**

E9   Approximately how many hours do you work per week in this second job? _____

E10   What kind of position is this? Is it a:
        ¹□ permanent position   ⁴□ seasonal position
        ²□ contract position   ⁵□ self-employed, or a
        ³□ temporary position   ⁶□ volunteer position
                                    ⁷□ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
                                    _____

IF RESPONDENT HOLDS MORE THAN ONE POSITION, ASK THE REMAINING QUESTIONS IN SECTION E ABOUT THE FULL TIME POSITION OR THE POSITION THEY CONSIDER THEIR MAIN JOB.

E11   What is your job title and duties? _____   □□□□

E12   What kind of business or industry do you work in ?_____   □□□

E13   What is the name of your employer _____

E14   Is this a private, non-profit or public sector employer?
        ¹□ private   ²□ non-profit   ³□ public

E15   Was your University degree required by your employer for your current job?
        ¹□ Yes   ²□ No

E16   How useful has your training in Sociology been in preparing you for your current job? Was
    it: ¹□ Very useful   ²□ Somewhat useful   ³□ Not useful.

E17   Overall, how related to your Sociology degree is your current job? Is it:
        ¹□ Very related   ²□ Related   ⁴□ Somewhat related   ⁴□ Not related

E18   How related is your sociology degree to your current job in terms of :

	Very Related	Related	Somewhat Related	Not Related
a) the course content	¹□	²□	³□	⁴□
b) academic skill learned	□	□	□	□
(Writing, critical thinking, solving problems, communications)				
c) computer skills learned	□	□	□	□

E19   Overall how satisfied are you with your job. Are you:
        ¹□Very satisfied   ²□Satisfied   ³□Somewhat satisfied ⁴□Not satisfied.

E20   How satisfied are you with the following:

		Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Not Satisfied
(a)	salary	¹□	²□	³□	⁴□
(b)	benefits	□	□	□	□
(c)	opportunities for advancement	□	□	□	□
(d)	opportunities for personal initiative	□	□	□	□
(e)	opportunities for job experience	□	□	□	□
(f)	opportunities for learning skills	□	□	□	□

E21   What is your annual (before taxes) salary from your current or main job? Is it:

       [1]□ less than $10,000   [5]□ $40,000 to $50,000
       [2]□ $10,000 to $20,000   [6]□ $50,000 to $60,000
       [3]□ $20,000 to $30,000   [7]□ $60,000 or more
       [4]□ $30,000 to $40,000

FOR THOSE WITH TWO OR MORE CURRENT JOBS, ALSO ASK:

E22   What is your TOTAL annual salary (before taxes) from all your jobs? Is it:

       [1]□ less than $10,000   [5]□ $40,000 to $50,000
       [2]□ $10,000 to $20,000   [6]□ $50,000 to $60,000
       [3]□ $20,000 to $30,000   [7]□ $60,000 or more
       [4]□ $30,000 to $40,000

F   DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Finally, I have a couple of questions about your background.

F1   What is your year of birth: 19____

F2   **RECORD SEX**

       [1]□ Female   [2]□ Male

F3.   What is your current marital status?

       [1]□ single (never married)   [4]□ widowed
       [2]□ married/common law   [5]□ other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
       [3]□ separated or divorced
                                          _____

F4.   Do you have children?

       [1]□ No   [2]□ Yes, How many children do you have? _____

F5.   Are you a member of a visible minority group?

       [1]□ No   [2]□ Yes

F6   What sources of financial assistance did you use to finance your ____ degree? (CHECK ALL THAT APPLY)

	Yes	No		Yes	No
a) OSAP	[1]□	[2]□	g) full-time employment	[1]□	[2]□
b) assistance from family	□	□	h) spouse/partner's income	□	□
c) summer employment	□	□	i) scholarships	□	□
d) part-time employment	□	□	j) personal bank loan	□	□
e) Registered Ed Saving Plan	□	□	k) other (PLEASE SPECIFY)	□	□
f) personal savings	□	□	_____		

F7   Do you have any other comments about your experiences majoring in sociology that you would like us to share with the sociology department?

Thank you for completing this survey.

Notes

1. Apart from the above-mentioned basic skills, these include 'basic problem-solving,' and the ability to 'think through and take ownership of the problems workers unearth.' They possess such skills as 'knowing how to learn,' creative thinking and problem solving,' 'personal management,' 'group effectiveness,' and 'leadership' (see Beck 1992:125-30, see also Perelman 1984).

2. This means having higher credentials than are required for entry-level positions.

3. The McMaster Sociology Survey asked respondents about their labour market experiences during the period since graduation. The graduates' recollections of the earlier periods may have been less reliable than their recollections of more recent events.

4. Because the estimates are based on a sample (approximately half of all the Sociology graduates), somewhat different figures might have resulted if a complete census had been taken using the same questionnaire, interviewers, processing procedures, and so on. This difference is sampling error. In addition to sampling error, other errors can be made. Interviewers may not understand instructions; respondents may not answer questions correctly; mistakes may be introduced when processing and tabulating the data. Every effort was made to reduce sampling errors, but in general, the more personal and subjective an inquiry, the greater the possibility that errors will occur.

5. Over 82% of the students in McMaster's Sociology program are women.

6. To put this percentage into perspective, the proportions of women studying full-time in all faculties at McMaster during 1997-98 were as follows: Nursing, 91.7%; Health Sciences, 72%; Social Sciences, 69.3%; Humanities, 66.3%; Science, 54%; Business, 43%; and Engineering with only 21% (see The Registrar's Report 1998/99).

7. These differences held even when full-time and part-time employment was considered. However, it should be noted that according to a 1995 Statistics Canada report, in 1982 the earnings gap between male and female university graduates stood at 13%, while in 1992, the gap had shrunk to 9%.

8. Questions such as these could be answered by administering surveys to students who are currently enrolled in Sociology programs. Surveys of students are neither expensive or time-consuming.

9. Some examples of questions that could be included in future surveys:

   Did you apply to other programs before enrolling in Sociology?What programs did you apply to? Was the Sociology program your first choice? What program was your first choice? Do you hope to eventually enroll in that program?

   Since you have enrolled in Sociology have you applied to any other programs of education or training? Why? Why not?

   What kind of businesses or industries do your parents work in? What are their job titles and duties? Do your parents have a

university or college education? What are their approximate annual salaries?

Have you ever been employed? If not, why? What kind of business or industry did you last work in? What was your job title and duties? Were you considered a full-time or part-time worker?Are you currently employed? What kind of business or industry did you last work in? What was your job title and duties? Realistically, what occupation do you <u>expect</u> to pursue <u>after</u> graduating in Sociology?

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