THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTING STYLES ON CHILDREN'S CAREER CHOICE IN OYE LOCAL GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN EKITI STATE

BY

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that OJO ADEBANJO OLUWADAMILOLA PSY/13/1276 of the department of psychology, faculty of social sciences, Federal University Oye Ekiti carried out this project under supervisions

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to Almighty God, for his infinite love and sufficient mercy upon me, also to my family, and friends, am thankful to my supervisor for being sincere and resourceful towards my research work. It is also dedicated to my dear mother, who taught me that even the largest task can be accomplished if it is done one step at a time.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of parenting style on their children career choice in Oye Local Government Area of Ekiti State. The sample consisted of two hundred respondents who were conveniently selected from secondary schools within Oye local government in Ekiti State. The instrument used was a questionnaire which was administered to the respondents. Four (4) null hypotheses were formulated and tested. Multinomial logistic regression analysis was used due to the levels of the independent variable having more than two levels, testing the influence of parenting style one children's career choice. The findings of the study showed that only authoritarian style parenting significantly predicted choosing a career in the social sciences than being an artisan with an odd ratio of 1.15. In addition, one (1) out of the three (4) null hypotheses tested was accepted because there were no significant differences in the variables compared. Hypotheses one (1). Hypotheses 2 and 3 were rejected as there were significant differences in the variables compared. The results of these findings seem to indicate that students in secondary schools in Oye Local Government Area of Ekiti State have are often independence in making career choices.

Keywords: *Career choice, Influence and Parenting style.*

Word count: 190 words

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Everyone wants to be identified with a career regardless of its worth's or value, whereas individuals are optimistic about their career choice. The oxford advanced learners dictionary of current English defines career as "a job or profession especially one with opportunities for progress or promotion" A profession is therefore " is a dignified occupation based on intellectual training and desirable mental exercise the purpose of which is to render service''. Henry-bell (2006) Stress that career is the totality of experience through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work as a part of his way of living. Chen (2003) objectivist believe that occupational matches can be measured and predicted mainly through scientific assessment and will logically state what type of career choice best fits that person. This type of thinking was dominated in the early 20th century- Frank Person the designated founder of the vocational guidance movement. Speete (2002) Observe " career is an ongoing process that occurs over the life-span and includes homes school and communities".

Eduwen (2000) opined" it is realistic that students desire help in order to make satisfying choice of the occupation. Career choice has become a complex science with the advent of information technology, the emergence of post industrial revolution and job competition. It was a common practice in the old days to find feudalism converting it into a family affair where the son of a blacksmith was destined to become a blacksmith and a feudal was born a leader. Industrialization and post industrialization has made it possible for a common person to be richer as long as she or he has due skills and knowledge (Wattles, 2009). Today, one has not only to make

due career planning but also exhaustive career research before making a career choice so as to adjust with the evolving socio-economic conditions (Wattles, 2009). Most of students who are secondary schools do not have accurate information about occupational opportunities to help them make appropriate career choice. According to Kerka (2000), career choice is influenced by multiple factors including personality, interests, self-concept, cultural identity, globalization, socialization, role model, social support and available resources such as information and financial. Bandura et al (2001) state that each individual undertaking the process is influenced by several factors including the context in which they live in, their personal aptitudes, social contacts and educational attainment. According to Hewitt (2010), factors influencing career choice can either be intrinsic or extrinsic or both. Hewitt further states that most people are influenced by careers that their parents favor, others follow the careers that their educational choices have opened for them, some

Career selection is one of many important choices students will make in determining future plans. This decision will impact them throughout their lives. The essence of who the student is will revolve around what the student wants to do with their life-long work. Everyone should have an honest occupation" (Rosenstock & Steinberg, cited in O'Brien, 1996, p. 3). Every student carries the unique history of their past and this determines how they view the world. That history created, in part by the student's environment, personality, and opportunity, will determine how students make career choices. It then follows that how the student perceives their environment, personality, and opportunity also will determine the career choices students make.

Factors in Career Choice, the first factor in career choice, environment, may influence the career students choose. For example, students who have lived on an island may choose a career dealing with the water, or they may choose to leave the island behind, never to have anything to

do with water again. Maybe someone in the student's life has made a significant impact or impression, leading to a definite career choice.

Parents' educational background and parenting style may influence student views on whether or not to continue their education. Someone they saw on television may have influenced the student, or parents may have demanded that they Career Choice Factors 12 assume a family business. First, these are various environmental factors that would lead a student to a chosen career. How students have seen themselves in a role in which personality is a determining factor may influence a chosen career. Some careers demand that you have the personality to match the qualities of the occupation. For example, sales people have to be outgoing. Second, through the parenting style it creates different personalities Splaver (1977) said "personality" plays an important role in the choosing of the right career. A student's personality must be a self-motivated type, as to investigate career possibilities from early on in their lives, and not the procrastinating type that waits until they are compelled to decide. Students must take seriously the role grades play in limiting opportunities in the future. Splaver went on to say, "It is important for you to have a good understanding of yourself, your personality, if you are to make intelligent career plans" (Splaver, 1977, p.12).

Opportunity is the third factor that has shaped career choices for students. Opportunity may influence how students have perceived their future in terms of the reasonable probability of a future in particular career fields. The issue of poverty has played an important determining role in the opportunities available to all. The income level of high school families may determine what career a student chooses during a specific time in the student's life; choices that will determine a large part of that student's future. Some students will have to budget education according to their personal income. Thout (1969) addressed those in desperate need, "Where necessary, these persons

[Individuals described as living under the poverty level] must be assisted through special training programs to overcome educational and social handicaps so that minimum job standards can be met" (p. 1). Students in many cases will need the proper mentoring Career Choice Factors 13 opportunities to succeed. These support groups will be another opportunity that if properly implemented, can help a student in the career choice process.

The most common factor is parenting style. The family is a place in which children learn to interpret reality (Way and Rossmann 1996b). Parents serve as significant interpreters for children of information about the world and children's abilities (Hall, Kelly, Hansen, and Gutwein 1996). Researchers have studied the influence of parents and the family on children's career choice and development. Much of this research has demonstrated links between career development and such factors as socioeconomic status, parents' educational and occupational attainment, and cultural background. This Digest highlights a different body of research that considers the effects of family relationships. This research is based on attachment theory, which suggests that close relationships provide experiences of security that promote exploration and risk taking (Ketterson and Blustein 1997), and social learning theory, which views "early experiences as a basis for developing career self-efficacy and interests as well as career goals and choices throughout life" (Altman 1997, p. 241). The Digest looks at the ways in which parenting styles, family functioning, and parent-child interaction influence career development.

Roe, an early theorist, proposed that early childhood experiences play an indirect role in shaping later career behavior (Brown, Lum, and Voyle 1997). She suggested that parent-child relationships influence personality orientations and the development of psychological needs; vocational interests and choices are some of the ways in which individuals try to satisfy those

needs (ibid.). Although Osipow (1997) and others point out the difficulty of demonstrating links between parenting styles and vocational choices, some research evidence is emerging.

Parenting styles are broad patterns of child rearing practices, values, and behaviors. Four types of parenting styles are:

i. Authoritative (both demanding and responsive),

ii. Authoritarian (highly demanding and directive but not responsive),

iii. Indulgent or Permissive (more responsive than demanding), and

iv . Uninvolved (low in responsiveness and demandingness) (Darling 1999).

The authoritative style balances clear, high expectations with emotional support and recognition of children's autonomy. Studies have associated this style with self-confidence, persistence, social competence, academic success, and psychosocial development (Bloir 1997; Strage and Brandt 1999). Authoritative parents provide a warm family climate, set standards, and promote independence, which result in more active career exploration on the part of children (Kracke 1997). Although authoritarian parenting is associated with school success, pressures to conform and fulfill parents' expectations regarding education and careers can cause a poor fit between the individual and the chosen career, as well as estranged family relationships and poor mental health (Way and Rossmann 1996a). Families with uninvolved (or inactive) parents "seem unable to function well either because they cannot set guidelines, or because they do not pursue interests that involve places and persons outside the family" (ibid., p. 3). This makes it more

difficult for children to develop self-knowledge and differentiate their own career goals from their parents' goals.

Overall family functioning, a broader concept that encompasses parenting style, includes such factors as parental support and guidance, positive or negative environmental influences, and family members' interaction styles (Altman 1997). Family functioning has a greater influence on career development than either family structure (size, birth order, number of parents) or parents' educational and occupational status (Fisher and Griggs 1994; Trusty, Watts, and Erdman 1997). Parental support and guidance can include specific career or educational suggestions as well as experiences that indirectly support career development, such as family vacations, provision of resources such as books, and modeling of paid and nonpaid work roles (Altman 1997). The absence of support, guidance, and encouragement can lead to "floundering," the inability to develop and pursue a specific career focus. Lack of support can also take the form of conflict, when a parent pressures a child toward a particular career and may withdraw financial and emotional support for a career path not of the parent's choosing (ibid.). Family functioning also includes the response to circumstances such as poverty, alcoholism, marital instability, and illness or death of family members. Sometimes an individual may respond to a stressful or negative family environment by making hasty, unreflective career choices in an attempt to escape or survive (ibid.). On the other hand, critical life events can spur a transformative learning experience that may shape a career and life direction (Fisher and Griggs 1994).

Interactions between parents and children and among siblings are a powerful influence. Interactions can include positive behaviors such as showing support and interest and communicating openly, or negative behaviors such as pushing and controlling (Way and

Rossmann 1996a). By sharing workplace stories, expressing concern for children's future, and modeling work behaviors, parents serve as a context for interpreting the realities of work (ibid.). Parent-child connectedness facilitates risk taking and exploration, which are needed for identity formation in general as well as for the formation of vocational identity (Altman 1997; Blustein 1997). Siblings can be a source of challenge and competition and a basis for comparison of abilities, thus providing a context for identity formation (Altman 1997). Because career development is a lifelong process, "family of origin continues to have an influence through the life span" (ibid., p. 242). Understanding early family experiences and relationships can help adults identify barriers to their career progress.

Whiston (2004) suggested to students, perceived parental expectations had a stronger influence than socio-economic status, but the influence was indirect through the variables of student's occupational expectation, which in turn affected career choice. The findings of Endicott (1984) indicate that student perception of parental expectations is an important factor in career choice as a parental influence. Generally, this inquiry lends empirical support to the assertion that student perception of parental expectations may contribute significantly to career choice. Parenting style exerts a lot of influence on the educational attainment of the adolescent especially the socio-economic status of parents. The possibility of re- entry into school is enhanced if the adolescent girl comes from the high socio-economic status family among girl child drop out group (Alika & Egbochuku, 2009). Academic performance is positively correlated with parents who enforce rules at home (Ryan, 2005). Family influences the behavior or character of a child (Trost & Levin, 2000). Parents play a significant role in laying the foundation of their children's career (Tella, 2003).

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

This research is based on the influence of parenting style on the choice of career among secondary school students in Oye Local Government Area of Ekiti State. The parents may desire what they think is good or best for their ward. This may affect the child positively if the child can cope with it but negatively when such a child has other things in mind, which he/she wishes to do. The result of this is that the child may not concentrate on the parents needs and so may not adjust positively towards the career. This sometimes leads to student's waywardness, secrete cult involvement, armed robbery and so on. The child may not cope with the parents continual force against his/her will. Parents often known as the most important being who play a significant role on their child's development morally, educationally and psychologically.

The world is speedily making such drastic demand upon the coming workers every truthful man and woman, who teaches and reflecting parents is planning way to fit the students for the life and needs of this new century. This statement which is still relevant today was written by Mejer Bloomfield in his book 'finding ones place in life in (2007) since the early 2000 career development or vocational guidance at it was then known has increasingly gained more and more attention and respect in essence career counseling is a specialty within the profession of counseling one that fosters vocationally development and work adjustment of individual abilities interest and goals with the work roles structured by the community and occupation organized by companies and assist a developing and deciding individual to make suitable and viable choice why examine the factors affecting career choice on senior secondary school students, in the past and even now for many. It was assumed that an individual going through late adolescence would be developing their independence and slowly eliminating his or her family's constraints as he or she formed his or her own identity into the larger world, in effect the person would make career decision based

on his or her own interest and occupational goals with limited influence from others. In fact even when young adult move away from home, their family will likely still have a strong influence upon them on two significant life events marriage and their career. Parents often time disregard the ability of their children and choose career they feel is suitable.

The parenting style, thus creates different types of personalities for children for example, children whose parents adopts authoritative parenting style are more liable of personality traits such as assertiveness, self-control, self-regulation and self-dependence. The research question which the study attempt to verify are as follows

RQ1. Will authoritarian parenting style have significant relationship with student's career choice?

RQ2. Will authoritative parenting style have significant relationship with student career choice?

RQ3. Will permissive parenting style have significant relationships with student's career choice?

RQ4. Which parenting style authoritarian, authoritative, permissive is most significant in student's career choice.

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Therefore, the present study deems it imperative to investigate the extent to which parenting style will play an important part in career decision making among students. Generally, this inquiry lends empirical support to the assertion that student perception of parental expectations may contribute significantly to career choice. It will unveil possible ways, trying to find out to what extent, the influence of the parent will play on the student's choice of career, and whether the influence will always aid the students positively or negatively.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The importance of this research work is to find to what extent the influences of the parenting style will affect the student's choice of career.

- It will enable the researcher give recommendations to the parents about their children's response to their career.
- It will enable the researcher make concrete recommendations to the government about the choice of career among students especially now that the rate of unemployment is high.
- It will enable the researcher to make recommendation to school administrators.
- The findings will also enable the researcher made recommendations for further research on the issue of career prospects.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter contains the theoretical framework, theoretical conceptualization, related empirical studies, statement of hypothesis and the operational definition of terms. Attempts will be made in this chapter to critically examine views, opinions, and perceptions of past researcher as they ears in books, journals lectures, magazines newspapers and abstracts in doing this, those that are related to choice of career among students will be highlighted no two persons are born exactly alike each differs from the other in natural endowments, one being suited for one occupation and another for the other. All things will be produce of in superior quantify and quality and with greater ease, when each man works at a single occupation in accordance with his natural endowment.

2.1 THEORIES OF CAREER

The following section reviews the key psychological theories that was applied by the researcher during the course of this research, these arrays of theories were quite apt in explaining the constructs under study; they include,

- Parsons theory
- Donald Super theory
- Holland's Theory of Career Personalities in Work Environment
- Self-concept Theory of Career Development

- Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise
- Social Cognitive Career Theory
- Indigenization of Career Theories

2.1.1 Parsons' theory

Frank Parson developed the idea of matching careers to talents, skills and personality. Frank Parson is regarded as the founder of the vocational guidance movement. He developed the talent-matching approach, which was later developed into Trait and Factor Theory of Occupational Choice. At the center of Parsons' theory is the concept of matching.

Parson states that occupational decision making occurs when people have achieved:

- An accurate understanding of their individual traits (aptitudes, interests, personal abilities)
- A knowledge of jobs and the labor market
- Rational and objective judgment about the relationship between their individual traits, and labor market.

This three-part theory still governs most current practice.

The traits and factor theory operates under the premise that it is possible to mesasure both individual talents and the attributes required in particular jobs. It also assumes that people may be matched to occupation that's a good fit. Parson suggests that when individuals are in jobs best suited to their abilities they perform best and their productivity is at maximum.

'Choosing a Career', Parsons maintains that personal counsel is fundamental to the career search. In particular, he notes seven stages for a career counselor to work through with clients:

1. Personal data: create a statement of key facts about the person, remembering to include every fact that has bearing on the vocational problem.

2. Self-analysis: a self-examination is done in private and under the instruction of the counselor. Every tendency and interest that might impact on the choice of a work should be recorded.

3. The clients own choice and decision: this may show itself in the first two stages. The counselor must bear in mind that the choice of career should be made by the client, with the counselor acting as guide.

4. Counselor's analysis: the counselor tests the client's decision to see if it is in line with the "main quest".

5. Outlook on the career field: the counselor should be familiar with industrial knowledge such as lists and classifications of industries and career, in addition to location of training and apprenticeships.

6. Induction and advice: a broad-minded attitude coupled with logical and clear reasoning are critical at this stage.

7. General helpfulness: the counselor helps the client to fit into the chosen work, and to reflect on the decision.

Much of Parsons' work still guide's career counseling today, through it is not without criticism. Matching assumes a degree of stability within the labor market. However, the reality is that the market's volatility means individual must be prepared to change and to their circumstances.

2.1.2 Donald Super theory

Donald Super proposed that people are much more fluid than static nature assumed by Trait-And Factor theorist (Super, 1957). He posited that, the (Matching Model) assumes that the adolescents or adults who are assessed are all sufficiently mature vocationally to have mature stable traits (Super, 1983, p. 557). However various career counselors have noted that many students are unable to voice their true skills or sometimes even understand them from a lack of vocational maturity. Although still valid for career exploration purposes, matching assessments like Holland's should only be a small step in the counseling process to Super (1983). Donald Super went on to develop the concept of the *Life-Career Rainbow* (Super, 1980) as a visual picture of how a person plays multiple roles throughout his or her lifespan. These roles may overlap each other and vary by degrees of intensity, emphasizing that roles and perceptions change throughout ones life and, thereby so does ones values and career choices. For instance, a young college students may hold a variety of roles, including but not limited to: son/daughter, student, spouse, parent, worker, and citizen. Depending on the individual's goals and values, the persons views of his or her career choice(s) will vary as greatly as the roles he or she currently playing (Super 1980).

2.1.3 Holland's Theory of Career Personalities in Work Environment

In the past few decades, the theory by Holland (1985, 1997) has guided career interest assessment both in the USA and internationally. The theory by Holland offers a simple and easy-to-understand typology framework on career interest and environments that could be used in career counselling and guidance. Holland postulated that vocational interest is an expression of one's personality, and that vocational interests could be conceptualized into six typologies, which are Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C). If a person's degree of resemblance to the six vocational personality and interest types could be

assessed, then it is possible to generate a three-letter code (e.g., SIA, RIA) to denote and summarize one's career interest.

The first letter of the code is a person's primary interest type, which would likely play a major role in career choice and satisfaction. The second and third letters are secondary interest themes, and they would likely play a lesser but still significant role in the career choice process. Parallel to the classification of vocational interest types, Holland (1985, 1997) postulated that vocational environments could be arranged into similar typologies. In the career choice and development process, people search for environments that would allow them to exercise their skills and abilities, and to express their attitudes and values. In any given vocational environment, there is a tendency to shape its composition so that its characteristics are like the dominant persons in there, and those who are dissimilar to the dominant types are likely to feel unfulfilled and dis-satisfied. The concept of "congruence" is used by Holland to denote the status of person-environment interaction. A high degree of match between a person's personality and interest types and the dominant work environmental types (that is, high degree of congruence) is likely to result in vocational satisfaction and stability, and a low degree of match (that is, low congruence) is likely to result in vocational dissatisfaction and instability. The person-environment congruence perspective in Holland's theory is quite similar to TWA's concept of correspondence the six Holland interest typologies are arranged in a hexagon in the order of RIASEC, and the relationship between the types in terms of similarities and dis- similarities are portrayed by the distance between corresponding types in the hexagon.

The concept of consistency is used as "a measure of the internal harmony or coherence of an individual's type scores" (Spokane & Cruza-Guet, 2005, p. 24). Accordingly, types that are adjacent to each other in the hexagon have the highest degree of similarity in terms of their

personality characteristics and vocational orientations, types that are opposite in the hexagon have the least degree of similarity, and types that are separated by one interval have a moderate degree of similarity. A simple way to determine the consistency of an interest code is to look at the distance between the first two letters of the code in the Holland hexagon (high, moderate, or low consistency). In addition to congruence and consistency, another major concept in Holland's theory is differentiation. Differentiation refers to whether high interest and low interest types are clearly distinguishable in a person's interest profile. An interest profile that is low in differentiation resembles a relatively flat line in which high and low interest types are not distinctive. In contrast, a differentiated interest profile has clearly high and low scores, suggesting that the crystallization of interest might have occurred, and readiness for career choice specification and implementation. Holland's theory has an enormous impact on career interest assessment and research (Spokane, Meir, & Catalano, 2000).

In the 40 years since Holland's theory was proposed, hundreds of research studies have been published to examine Holland's propositions and the validity of interest instruments that were based on his theory, including some studies using international samples. A major area of investigation among cross-cultural studies was whether Holland's proposed structure of vocational interests was valid across cultures (e.g., Rounds & Tracey, 1996). For example, Tak (2004) administered the Strong Interest Inventory to Korean college students, and findings from multi-dimensional scaling and test of randomization suggested a good fit with Holland's circular model of interest, even though the shape of interest arrangement was not clearly hexagonal. In another study by Sverko and Babarovic (2006), a Croatian version of Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS) was administered to 15–19 years old Croatian adolescents. The general findings using randomization tests and factor-analytic techniques were supportive of Holland's circular

model, even though the degree of fit was higher for older age groups. However, findings from some other international studies suggested that the six interest types tended to cluster in forms that reflect idiosyncratic cultural values and occupational/ educational perceptions within a cultural context (e.g., Law, Wong, & Leong, 2001; Leung & Hou, 2005; du Toit & de Bruin, 2002). For example, Leung and Hou (2005) administered the SDS to Chinese high school students in Hong Kong and findings from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses suggested that there were six first- order factors clustered into three groups, which were Realistic-Investigative, Artistic-Social, and Social-Enterprising-Conventional. Leung and Hou (2005) suggested that the clustering might reflect characteristics of high school curriculum in Hong Kong (that is, the assignment of students into science, arts, and business curriculum), as well as the centrality of social relationships in Chinese culture.

In summary, there was mixed support for Holland's structure of vocational interests across cultures. The clustering of the types was affected by specific cultural values and perceptions. Given the increasing need for vocational interest assessment in different cul- tural contexts, there is a need to conduct more research studies to examine the cross-cultural validity of Holland's theory and the various interest assessment instruments developed. In addition to studies on vocational interest structure, research studies should examine other aspects of Holland's propositions, such as those related to type characteristics, work environment, and the predictive validity of career choice. Most important of all, the utility of an interest assessment tool is dependent on whether interest test scores obtained could help a test taker identify directions for occupational and educational exploration. In the USA, occupations and educational opportunities (e.g., college majors) have been translated into Holland codes (e.g., Holland, 1996), and test takers can conveniently locate these codes from readily available printed or internet sources. However,

occupational and educational classification resources developed in the USA cannot be adopted in full in another region without adaptation to match with local occupational and educational characteristics. Hence, the challenge for international scholars is not only to develop and adapt instruments so that they are consistent with their cultural contexts, but also to develop occupational and educational codes and resources that could benefit local users (Leung, 2004).

2.1.4 Self-concept Theory of Career Development

Among the many theories of career choice and development, the theory by Super has received much attention in the USA as well as in other parts of the world. Super (1969, 1980, 1990) suggested that career choice and development is essentially a process of developing and implementing a person's self-concept. According to Super (1990), self-concept is a product of complex interactions among a number of factors, including physical and mental growth, personal experiences, and environ- mental characteristics and stimulation. Whereas Super presumed that there is an organic mechanism acting behind the process of development and maturation, recent articulations (e.g., Herr, 1997; Savickas, 2002) of Super's theory have called for a stronger emphasis on the effects of social context and the reciprocal influence between the person and the environment. Building on Super's notion that self-concept theory was essentially a personal construct theory, Savickas (2002) took a constructivist perspective and postulated that "the process of career construction is essentially that of developing and implementing vocational self-concepts in work roles" (p. 155).

A relatively stable self-concept should emerge in late adolescence to serve as a guide to career choice and adjustment. However, self-concept is not a static entity and it would continue to evolve as the person encounters new experience and progresses through the developmental stages. Life and work satisfaction is a continual process of implementing the evolving self-concept

through work and other life roles. Super (1990) proposed a life stage developmental framework with the following stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance (or management), and disengagement. In each stage one has to successfully manage the vocational developmental tasks that are socially expected of persons in the given chronological age range. For example, in the stage of exploration (ages around 15 to 24), an adolescent has to cope with the vocational developmental tasks of crystallization (a cognitive process involving an understanding of one's interests, skills, and values, and to pursue career goals consistent with that understanding), specification (making tentative and specific career choices), and implementation (taking steps to actualize career choices through engaging in training and job positions). Examples of vocational developmental tasks in each of the developmental life stages are described in Super (1990).

Accordingly, the concept of "career maturity" was used to denote the degree that a person was able to fulfill the vocational developmental tasks required in each developmental stage. Partially due to the mixed results obtained in empirical research studies on career maturity, there have been suggestions to replace career maturity with the concept of adaptability (e.g., Herr, 1997; Savickas, 1997, 2002, 2005). Whereas the above vocational developmental stages are likely to progress as maxi- cycles in a person's life journey, Super (1990) postulated that a mini-cycle consisting of the same stages from growth to disengagement would likely take place within each of the stages, particularly when a person makes transition from one stage to the next. In addition, individuals would go through a mini-cycle of the stages whenever they have to make expected and unexpected career transitions such as loss of employment or due to personal or socioeconomic circumstances (Savickas, 2002). The contextual emphasis of Super's (1980, 1990) theory is most clearly depicted through his postulation of life roles and life space. Life at any moment is an

aggregate of roles that one is assuming, such as child, student, leis rite, citizen, worker, parent, and homemaker.

The salience of different life roles changes as one progress through life stages, yet at each single moment, two or three roles might take a more central place, while other roles remain on the peripheral. Life space is the constellation of different life roles that one is playing at a given time in different contexts or cultural "theatres", including home, community, school, and workplace. Role conflicts, role interference, and role confusions would likely happen when individuals are constrained in their ability to cope with the demands associated with their multiple roles. Super was instrumental in developing the international collaborative research work called Work Importance Study (WIS) aiming to study work role salience and work values across different cultures. The WIS involved multiple nations in North America, Europe, Africa, Australia and Asia, and resulted in measures of work roles and work values with similar structure and constructs (see Super & Sverko, 1995 for a summary of the WIS). Many aspects of Super's theory are attractive to international career guidance professional and researchers, including concepts such as vocational developmental tasks, developmental stages, and career maturity and life roles. It offers a comprehensive framework to describe and explain the process of vocational development that could guide career interventions and research. The recent anchoring of the theory on developmental contextualize takes into consideration the reciprocal influence between the person and his/her social ecology, including one's culture. Likewise, the conceptualization of career choice and development as a process of personal and career construction recognizes the effects of subjective cultural values and beliefs in shaping vocational self-concepts and preferences. A good portion of the international research studies on Super's theory have used career maturity as one of

the major variables (see a review by Patton & Lokan, 2001). Career maturity was examined in two recent studies conducted in Australia.

Patton, Creed, and Muller (2002) administered to Grade 12 students the Australian version of the Career Development Inventory (CDI-A) (Lokan, 1984) and a measure of psychological well-being. These students were surveyed on their educational and occupational status 9 months after they graduated. Findings supported the hypotheses that students who proceeded to full-time study would have higher levels of career maturity (operationally defined as having high CDI-A scores), school achievement and psychological well-being while still at school, in compared to students who did not make a smooth transition to work or education after high school. The authors suggested that there was a strong need for school-based intervention to assist students who might not be transitioning to full-time studies after high school. In a different study by Creed and Patton (2003), CDI-A was administered to high school students from Grade 8 to Grade 12, along with several other career-related measures including career decision-making self-efficacy, career decidedness, and work value, self-esteem and work commitment. Regression analyses were conducted and it was found that self-efficacy, age, career decidedness and work commitment were the main predictors of career maturity attitudes (CDI-A attitude scales), whereas age, gender, career certainty, work commitment, and career indecision were the main predictors of career maturity knowledge (CDI-A knowledge scales).

Differences in career maturity scores were also found among students in different grade levels. These findings were consistent with the developmental assumptions of career maturity. Repetto (2001) reported a study using a Spanish version of the Career Development Inventory (CDI) to measure the career maturity of high school students (7th grade to 12th grade) enrolled in a career intervention program called Tu Futuro Professional (TFP, meaning Your Future Career).

The intervention was designed according to Super's conceptualization of career maturity, with the following components: self-awareness, decision-making, career exploration, and career planning and management.

A pretest-posttest design was used, and findings from treatment groups were compared to those from control groups. The results suggested that the intervention was highly effective in elevating the career maturity of students in all the grade levels. In addition to career maturity, there are other aspects of Super's theory that need to be examined across cultures. For example, self-concept is a prominent feature of Super's theory, and the implementation of one's interests, values, and skills in a work role is instrumental to vocational development and satisfaction. However, there are cultural variations in the importance of self in decision-making, and in some cultures important life decisions such as career choices are also subjected to considerations that are familial and collective in nature. In order to maximize self- fulfilment and social approval, one has to negotiate with the environment to locate the most acceptable solutions and option (Leung & Chen, 2007). Consequently, career choice and development is not a linear process of self-concept implementation, but a process of negotiations and compromises in which both the self and one's environment have to be consulted.

The concept of life role can also be useful in understanding the cultural dynamics involved the career choice process. Values such filial piety, family harmony, and loyalty might influence how the personal self is constructed, and the salience and importance of different life and work roles as well as their dynamic interactions. Even though international research on Super's theory is still very much needed, Super's theory will continue to play an important role in career development practice internationally (e.g., Leong & Serafica, 2001; Patton & Lokan, 2001). Super's influence is best illustrated by an article by Watanabe-Muraoka, Senzaki, and Herr (2001)

who commented that Super's theory "has received wide attention by Japanese practitioners, not only in academic settings but also in business, as a source of key notions in the reconsideration of the human being and work relation- ship in the rapidly changing work environment in contemporary Japan" (p. 100).

2.1.5 Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise

In compared to the more established career development frameworks such as Super's and Holland's theories, Gottfredson's theory of career development is a more recent contribution. Gottfredson (1981, 1996, 2002, and 2005) assumed that career choice is a process requiring a high level of cognitive proficiency. A child's ability to synthesize and organize complex occupational information is a function of chronological age progression as well as general intelligence. Cognitive growth and development is instrumental to the development of a cognitive map of occupation and conceptions of self that are used to evaluate the appropriateness of various occupational alternatives. In recent revisions of her theory, Gottfredson's (2002, 2005) elaborated on the dynamic interplay between genetic makeup and the environment. Genetic characteristics play a crucial role in shaping the basic characteristics of a person, such as interests, skills, and values, yet their expression is moderated by the environment that one is exposed to. Even though genetic makeup and environment play a crucial role in shaping the person, Gottfredson maintained that the person is still an active agent who could influence or mould their own environment. Hence, career development is viewed as a self-creation process in which individuals looked for avenues or niches to express their genetic proclivities within the boundaries of their own cultural environment.

In contrast to the established notion that choice is a process of selection, Gottfredson's (1981, 1996, 2002) theorized that career choice and development could instead be viewed as a

process of elimination or circumscription in which a person progressively eliminates certain occupational alternatives from further consideration. Circumscription is guided by salient aspects of self-concept emerging at different developmental stages. Gottfredson maintained that the career aspirations of children are influenced more by the public (e.g., gender, social class) than private aspects of their self-concept (e.g., skills, interests). A developmental model was proposed consisting of four stages of circumscription. The first is called "orientation to size and power" (ages 3–5), and the child perceives occupations as roles taken up by big people (adults). The second stage is called "orientation to s ex-roles" (ages 6–8), and in this stage sex-role norms and attitudes emerge as defining aspect of a child's self-concept. The child evaluates occupations according to whether they are appropriate to one's sex, and eliminates from further consideration alternatives that are perceived to be gender inappropriate (i.e., the wrong sex-type). The third stage is called "orientation to social valuation" (ages 9–13) as social class and status become salient to a child's developing self-concept.

Accordingly, the emerging adolescent eliminates from further consideration occupations that are too low (i.e., occupations with unacceptable prestige levels) or too high (i.e., high prestige occupations beyond one's efficacy level) in prestige. The fourth stage is called "orientation to the internal, unique self" (ages 14 and above), in which internal and private aspects of the adolescent's self-concept, such as personality, interests, skills, and values, become prominent. The young adolescent considers occupations from the remaining pool of acceptable occupations according to their suitability or degree of match with one's internal self. Another career development process is compromise. In response to external realities and constraints such as changes in the structure of the labor market, economic depression, unfair hiring practices, and family obligations, individuals have to accommodate their occupational preferences so that their eventual choices are achievable

in the real world. Compromise is a complex process in which compatibility with one's interest is often compromised first so as to maintain a greater degree of correspondence with one's preference for prestige and sex-type. Since its inception in 1981, Gottfredson's theory has only received limited attention in the empirical literature. Almost all the published research studies examining Gottfredson's theory have used samples in the USA, and a search of the literature using PSYINFO yielded no research studies with international samples. Gottfredson's theory is difficult to test empirically mainly because (a) most of the hypothesized variables, such as sex-type, prestige, circumscription, and compromise, are difficult to operationalize, and (b) the hypothesized developmental process should ideally be tested via longitudinal research design requiring substantial time and resources.

In a review article of major career development theories, Swanson and Gore (2000) commented that Gottfredson theory "is one of the few attempts to study specifically the period corresponding to Super's growth stage. However, it essentially remains quite difficult to test the theoretical propositions, and unfortunately, an untestable theory is not particularly useful" (p. 243). Nevertheless, the theory by Gottfredson still offers unique perspectives to career guidance professionals internationally. For instance, in many cultures life accomplishment is measured by successes in education and public examinations and attainment in career positions that have high social status and influence. Likewise, gender stereo- type is also a part of many cultures (e.g., Asian cultures), and individuals are encour- aged to pursue occupations that are perceived to be compatible to their gender (Leung, 2002). Hence, Gottfredson's theory offers a framework in which the influence of prestige and sex-type could be understood in diverse cultural contexts. Meanwhile, as career guidance interventions are becoming more central in primary and secondary schools around the world (Gysbers, 2000), the theory by Gottfredson could be used as a conceptual

guide to program development. Gottfredson (2005) outlined a model of career guidance interventions aiming to reduce risk and enhance development, encouraging positive adaptation in relation to cognitive growth, self-creation, circumscription, and compromise.

The model consisted of counselor strategies and tools that could be used to optimize (a) learning and the use of complex occupational information, (b) experience and activities that allow children and adolescents to understand their career-related personal traits, (c) self-insight to construct and conceptualize a future career path that is realistic and feasible, and (d) wisdom in self-investment to elevate the odds of successfully implementing preferred career options. These broad strategies are applicable to a variety of cultural contexts in which opportunities exist for career interventions in school settings.

2.1.6 Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002; Lent, 2005) is anchored in Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1977, 1997), which postulated a mutually influencing relationship between people and the environment. SCCT offers three segmental, yet interlocking process models of career development seeking to explain (a) the development of academic and vocational interest, (b) how individuals make educational and career choices, and (c) educational and career performance and stability. The three segmental models have different emphasis centering around three core variables, which are self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals. Lent (2005) defined self-efficacy as "a dynamic set of beliefs that are linked to particular performance domains and activities" (p. 104). Self-efficacy expectations influence the initiation of specific behavior and the maintenance of behavior in response to barriers and difficulties. Consistent with early formulation by Bandura (1977) and others (e.g., Hackett & Betz, 1981; Betz, Borgen, & Harmon, 1996), SCCT theorized that self-efficacy expectations are shaped by four

primary information sources or learning experiences, which are personal performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological and affective states. Lent (2005) suggested that of the four sources of information or learning experience, personal performance accomplishments have the most powerful influence on the status of self-efficacy. Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2002) defined outcome expectations as "personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behavior" (p. 262). Outcome expectations include beliefs about extrinsic reward associating with performing the target behavior, self-directed consequences, and outcomes derived from task performance. Overall, it is hypothesized that an individual's out- come expectations are formed by the same information or learning experiences shaping self-efficacy beliefs. Personal goals refer to one's intention to engage in certain activity or to generate a particular outcome (Lent, 2005). SCCT distinguished between choice content goals, referring to the choice of activities to pursue, and performance goals, referring to the level of accomplishment or performance one aims to attain. Through setting personal goals, individuals could persist in tasks and sustain their behavior for a long time in the absence of tangible external rewards or reinforcement. Self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals served as core variables in the interest, choice, and performance models of SCCT. The interest model specifies that individuals would likely develop interest in activities that (a) they feel efficacious and (b) anticipate that there would be positive outcomes associated with the activities. The dynamic interaction among interest, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations would lead to the formation of goals and intentions that serve to sustain behavior over time, leading to the formation of a stable pattern of interest in adolescence or early adulthood. The SCCT choice model views the development of career goals and choices as functions of the interaction among self-efficacy, outcome expectations and interest over time.

Career choice is an unfolding process in which the person and his/ her environment mutually influence each other. It involves the specification of primary career choice or goal, actions aiming to achieve one's goal, and performance experience providing feedback to the individual on the suitability of goal. In addition, SCCT posited that compromises in personal interests might be required in the career choice process due to contextual immediate to the person (e.g., cultural beliefs, social barriers, lack of support). An "ability" factor, defined as one's achievement, aptitude, and past performance, was highlighted in the performance model of SCCT. Ability serves as feedback from reality to inform one's self-efficacy and outcome expectation, which in turn would influence performance goals and levels.

Lent (2005) suggested that incongruence between efficacy and objective ability (e.g., over-confidence, under-confidence) would likely lead to undesirable performance (e.g., ill-prepared for task, performance anxiety). An optimal point is a slightly overshot self-efficacy which would promote further skills utilization and development. SCCT offers a comprehensive framework to understand the development of career interest, career choice, and performance that is grounded in self-efficacy theory. In the past decade, SCCT has generated a large number of research studies, including some studies conducted with international samples (e.g., Arulmani, Van Laar, & Easton, 2003; Hampton, 2005; Patton, Bartrum, & Creed, 2004). For example, a study by Nota, Ferrari, Solberg, and Soresi (2007) used a SCCT framework to examine the career development of Italian youths attending a university preparation program in Padua Province. The authors found a positive relationship between the career search self-efficacy of participants and family support, and a negative relationship between career search self-efficacy and career indecision. For male students, the relationship between family support and career indecision was partially mediated by career search self-efficacy. These findings were consistent with the general SCCT career choice models,

and illustrated the importance of social support to career decision and efficacy. Findings from a study by Creed, Patton, and Prideaux (2006) on high school students in Australia were less supportive of the process model of SCCT.

Eighth graders were administered measures of career decision-making self-efficacy and career decision and then again on Grade 10. Contrary to theoretical expectations, changes in career decision-making self-efficacy over time were not associated with similar changes in career indecision, and vice versa. The authors suggested that a causal linkage between the two variables as hypothesized by the SCCT process model might not exist and that early self-efficacy status might not buffer a person from future career decision-making conflicts. Overall, SCCT offers international career guidance practitioners and researchers an overarching framework to guide practice, as well as tangible propositions and hypotheses that could be tested empirically. In addition to hypotheses testing, efforts are needed to develop or adapt existing instruments so that variables associated with SCCT could be tested via measures that are valid and reliable across cultures.

2.1.7 Indigenization of Career Theories

The big five career theories are all developed in the USA but as evident from the review above, they have served to guides career guidance practice and research internationally. Even though the big five theories have been revised and updated in response to emerging research evidence and social changes, they are still conceptually and empirically anchored in the social and occupational contexts of the USA, and career guidance practitioners and researchers should be careful not to transport these theories to their own contexts without cultural adaptation and modifications (Leung, 1995). A review of the conceptual literature in career development suggested that very few career development theories have emerged from regions outside the USA.

In order to advance the career guidance discipline worldwide, there should be more "indigenous" efforts to develop theories and practice that would meet the idiosyncratic needs in diverse geographic regions. Indigenization of career and guidance theory and practice should aim to identify the universals as well as the unique experience, constructs and practice that are specific to particular culture groups.

The conceptualization on indigenization by Enriquez (1993) could be used to guide the indigenization of career development theories. Indigenization of the career guidance discipline could take the route of indigenization from within and indigenization from without. Indigenization from within refers to the derivation of career theories, concepts, and methods from within a specific culture, relying on indigenous sources of information as the primary source of knowledge. This process would result in career development concepts that have specific meanings within a culture (e.g., the effects of filial piety on career choice in Asian cultures), and career guidance and counselling methods that are grounded on specific cultural features, practice, and beliefs (e.g., application of instruments with culture-specific dimensions). On the other hand, indigenization from without involves modifying existing career theories and practice (e.g., big five career theories) to maximize their degree of fit with local cultural contexts. Hence, the main objectives would be to identify aspects of these theories that are relevant/irrelevant and valid/invalid for specific cultures, and to articulate on necessary cultural adaptations both conceptually and in practice.

Three steps can be identified that should be taken to indigenize career development theories from without. First, international scholars in career guidance should examine how culture might intervene, moderate, or mediate the hypothesized career development and choice process. This would involve critically evaluating these respective theories to determine (a) how the target variables (e.g., work adjustment, interest, compromise, life roles, and self-efficacy) are being

understood in a particular cultural context, and how such understanding is similar to or different from those proposed by the theory, (b) if the relationship among the hypothesized variables are valid in that cultural context, and how cultural beliefs, values, and practices might influence the process, yielding a different set of propositions or configuration among the variables, and (c) if there are indigenous, culture-specific variables that could be integrated into the career development frameworks that would increase the explanatory power and comprehensiveness of theories.

In conducting research studies related to the above themes, divergent research methodologies should be considered, including quantitative and qualitative methods. Qualitative methods are particularly meaningful as they would likely yield rich, comprehensive, and in- depth data that could lead to theory building and the development of indigenous conceptual frameworks (e.g., Morrow, Rakhsha, & Castaneda, 2001). Second, career guidance scholars should develop instruments and measures that are reliable and valid for diverse cultures. The big five career theories were developed in the USA and naturally most of the measures associated with these theories were based on the US cultural, social, and occupational characteristics. In order to examine the validity of career theories across cultures, as a first step, cross-cultural researchers should develop instruments that are valid in their social and vocational contexts. Cross-cultural researchers have to make a choice between developing their own measures from scratch, or to adapt existing measures developed in the West (Leung, 2002). Developing a measure from scratch is often an expensive and time-consuming endeavor, and adapting existing measures seems a most viable option.

The goal of adaptation is to eliminate culture-based biases that might threaten the validity of instruments (Van de Vijver & K. Leung, 1997), including biases related to how vocational constructs are expressed and defined, response style, and item-content (Leung, 2004). Essentially,

the adaptation of career measures for a particular cultural group should involve one of the following levels of modifications: (a) adopt an established measure with only minimal modification, mainly to establish language equivalence through using a back-translation strategy to translate the items into the language of the target culture (e.g., Goh & Yu, 2001), (b) conduct psychometric evaluation of the target measures to decide if the structure and properties of the instrument correspond to those reported in the literature so that cross-cultural equivalence of scales could be established (e.g., Creed, Patton, & Watson, 2002; Tien, 2005), and if necessary, the content and structure of the measure would be modified based on empirical findings, and (c) revise and adapt the target measure, incorporating key cultural elements into the measure that are core to the concepts being measured in the local context, and conduct psychometric evaluation of the modified measure.

The development of culturally valid measures is an important pre-requisite toward cross-cultural testing of career development theories. The third step to indigenize career theories from within is the development of theory-based career guidance interventions in cross-cultural settings, incorporating cultural adaptations that are based on local social, cultural, and occupational features (e.g., Repetto, 2001). It is important for the adaptations to be clearly documented so that further refinements and modifications could be done in future cycles of interventions and evaluation. The outcomes of these interventions would shed light on the usefulness and relevance of various cultural adaptations, and would provide important clues to the cross-cultural validity of career theories.

2.1.8 PARENTING STYLE THEORY

DIANA BAUMRINDS THEORY OF PARENTING STYLE

Diana Baumrind, was able to develop four (3) kinds of parenting style, they are follows:

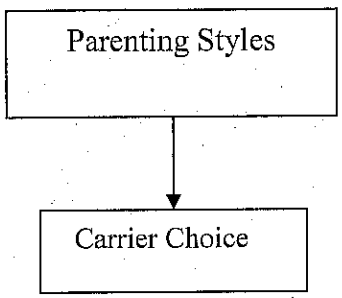
- The authoritative style is considered the "ideal" parenting style and seems to produce children with high levels of self-reliance and self-esteem, who are socially responsible, independent and achievement-oriented, according to Education.com. Authoritative parents set clear expectations and have high standards. They monitor their children's behavior, use discipline based on reasoning and encourage their children to make decisions and learn from their mistakes. They are also warm and nurturing, treating their children with kindness, respect and affection.

- Although the word sounds similar, authoritarian parenting is different in many ways from authoritative parenting. The authoritarian parent tends to set rigid rules, demand obedience and use strategies such as the withdrawal of love or approval to force a child to conform. These parents are more likely to use physical punishment or verbal insults to elicit the desired behavior. They lack the warmth of the authoritative parent and may seem aloof to their children. Children with authoritarian parents may be well-behaved, but they are also likely to be moody and anxious; they tend to be followers rather than leaders, according to Education.com.

- The permissive-indulgent parent is overflowing in parental warmth. This parent may be openly affectionate and loving but sets few or no limits, even when the child's safety may be at risk. Permissive-indulgent parents make few demands for maturity or performance, and there are often no consequences for misbehavior. Children of permissive parents often have problems with controlling their impulses; they may display immaturity and be reluctant to accept responsibility,

according to Dr. Anita Gurian, clinical assistant professor of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry at the NYU School of Medicine.

2.2 THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION



2.3 RELATED EMPIRICALSTUDIES

Empirical Related Studies

Research Issues in Career Choices

As previous studies have demonstrated, parents tend to hold the strongest influence on their adolescent or young adult's career choice. However, even while examining the context of the family, there are other agents that also play a part in how that influence may shape the individual's career decision-making process. Again, there are only a small number of studies that have investigated the larger context of an individual's career development but the three most often cited variables on a family's influence are: socioeconomic status, gender, and race.

Socioeconomic Status If one were permitted only a single variable with which to predict an individual's occupational status,‖ according to Schulenberg, Vondracek, and Crouter (1984), it surely would be the socioeconomic status of that individual's family of orientation (p. 130). This statement is based on the concept that parents from different social classes develop their own social and cultural values based on their current social class. The parents subsequently pass on these

social class values to their children preparing them for a similar occupational roles within that particular class structure (Wright & Wright, 1976). Socioeconomic status is defined as a family's current income, the parent's current occupation(s), the status associated with their occupation, and the parent's highest educational level (Brown, Fukunaga, Umemoto, & Wicker, 1996).

As Brown and his team (1996) pointed out, social class affects occupational choices by providing tangible resources (money, transportation, higher quality schools, etc.), as well as the values and expectations, of that social strata on their children's career choices. Carrying this concept even further, whereas middle-class parents generally emphasize initiative and autonomy, those parents from the lower economic classes tend to encourage conformity. These lessons translate into what early work experiences the youth may have, what skills they develop, and eventually the kinds of work they will do as an adult (Bryant, Zvonkovic, & Reynolds, 2006; Hill, Ramirez, & Dumka, 2003; Wright & Wright, 1976). In a study focused on social class white collar workers (non manual labor) were found to aspire for and maintain white collar jobs, while a parallel result was found for those identified as blue collar (manual labor)—they too sought to maintain their blue collar statuses (Jacobs, Karen & McClelland,1991). An additional variable that occurs as a result of a family's socioeconomic status is the financial stress that parents will feel more often in a working-class or lower-class environment, which may translate into more conflicts about careers between the adults and the adolescents (Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz, & Simons, 1994). Analyzing the responses of 5-14 year old students from families that were classified as middle-class or poor, Weinger (2000) found that those from middle class valued their parent's income, felt it would help them obtain their professional career, and saw themselves in similar professional roles as their parents. However, the low income students did not feel their parents would naturally finance their education, nor did they have high-level, professional careers images of their parents

after which they could model themselves. Although this study is not directly focused on young adults, it does convey the early messages that children adopt about their career options, based on their parent's influence from a socioeconomic viewpoint.

Unfortunately, the research concerning the impact of a family's social economic status is ultimately divided. This lack of consensus is partially due to the limited research in this particular area, as it is rarely the main focus of a study (Brown, et al., 1996), but also because of the lack of details given by researchers about their participants' social class when they are taken into account (Whiston & Keller, 2004b). Although most researchers agree that there is an impact on vocational choice based on parental income and status (Mau & Bikos, 2000), there are likely many other psychological and social elements that are subsets of a family's class standing that also affect their influence, such as community and school influences (Brown, et al., 1996;Teachman & Paasch, 1998). Heppner and Scott (2004) argued that this significant omission on the part of researchers may be due to classism. Although in the United States, racism and sexism has been vilified, classism tends to still be acceptable. This ideology may be the product of the values and beliefs in the American culture that state all people are free to achieve as much as they desire. Consequently, social class is considered to be a choice and not an intrinsic position. As Blustein noted (2004), career development research has tended to limit itself to studying, the working lives of people who have some choice in their education, training, and vocational options (p. 608), which may also help explain the much larger body of research with middle-class participants. In the end, social economic status affects an individual's identity development which then, subsequently, affects his or her perception of the world (and vice versa) and the choices he or she eventually makes, regarding their career (Heppner & Scott, 2004).

2.3.1 Gender and Career Choice Issues

The word gender‖ is defined as the behavioral, cultural, or psychological traits typically associated with one sex according to the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (2009) and provides the foundation for this section on gender related studies within the career development field. Gender role socialization is one of the earliest, and thus potentially one of the most powerful, forms of socialization. The effect of gender role socialization is far reaching; a significant consequence is that young people may only perceive a narrow gender-based range of future options, particularly in relation to education and career opportunities,‖ (McMahon & Patton, 1997, p. 368). For instance, Mothers advising daughters that _It's important to establish yourself in a career before you raise a family'both constitutes and perpetuates particular gendered understandings between paid work and childrearing, (Medved & Brogan, 2006, p. 162). These types of powerful messages, that start within the family, help lay the foundation of how young people will view their future career options, especially when the messages contain either overt or covert biases based on one's gender (Medved & Brogan, 2006). Such messages, communicated from adults to children, which focus on a person's ability due to their gender, may also increase or decrease a child's perception of his or her own skills or aptitude in certain areas (Kurtz-Costes, Rowley, Harris-Britt, & Woods, 2008). This section will review the research conducted on how one's gender possibly affects their career aspirations, relations with parents, as well as how real or perceived gender stereotypes affect career decision-making. Subsequently, this section will also address how racial identification affects the choice of careers.

Regarding career aspirations, Wilson and Wilson (1992) found male adolescents aspire to higher level careers than female adolescents, which was consistent with much of the findings completed around similar studies over the past few decades (Fortner, 1970; Herzog, 1982; O'Brien, Friedman,

Tipton, & Linn, 2000). This may be due to early socialization where boys, generally perceived that school activities were beneficial in relation to career planning, engaged in career planning earlier than did girls, and were more active in it than girls. This difference may be related to young women's continuing perceptions that a job is an interim activity between school and marriage and motherhood, (McMahon's & Patton's, 1997, p. 373). Part of this perspective may come from the routine socialization of women who are constantly and consistently exposed to messages that her life should revolve around caring for a family and her career plans are secondary (Cook, Heppner, & O'Brien, 2002). Although women's career choices have increased dramatically since the 1960's and 1970's (Betz, Heesacker, & Shuttleworth, 1990; Hakim, 2006), women still find their occupational choices limited, in comparison to men's choices (Gadassi & Gati, 2009). In fact, various occupations are still very much dominated by one sex (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Using the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2008) information on occupations held by sex of respondent, in this case the percentage of women in the labor force, one can see that certain occupations, such as Landscapers (8.6% female) and Auto Mechanics (10.6% female), are almost totally filled by males. In contrast, such as Child Care Services (95.3% female) and Nursing Care Facilities (87% female) are dominated by female workers. From a career counseling perspective, as well as data from the BLS, may demonstrate how large numbers of college students continue to choose majors and occupations incongruent with their measured interests...it appears that women who make traditionally female career choices continue to be underutilizing their abilities in comparison to other women‖ (Betz, Heesacker, & Shuttleworth, 1990, p.275). Using a sample from pre-school aged students to high school seniors, McMahon and Patton (1997) surveyed 55 young people on their perceptions of work and their knowledge about influences and gender differences. They found that both males and females, from 4 years to 18 years old, consistently presented gender-

stereotypical perceptions of occupations in certain industries. Boys were found to be especially critical of other boys who were working in stereotypical female jobs (e.g. a male cook or male nurse) (McMahon & Patton, 1997).

Lauver and Jones (1991) found similar results in their earlier study of 467 females and 426 males from 9th and 11th grades in rural high schools in Arizona. The young girls picked occupations of both traditionally male and traditionally female roles, whereas the boys picked positions predominantly of the traditional male variety (such as an electrician or probation officer). Because the occupations were controlled for status/prestige (a possible factor in why males may not choose traditionally female-type roles), Lauver and Jones proposed that recent pushes for gender equality may have been a factor in the diversity of adolescent female's choices(1991) but that career stereotypes still exist for males. Potentially, young females are being influenced by their mothers (who may now hold less traditionally female'jobs), their education (recent pushes to decrease gender stereotyping in schools in both lectures and in books), and by the media (positive female characters performing more traditionally male'jobs like doctors, detectives, and even superheroes) may all be contributing to the broadening of female's career aspirations. However, males are not receiving a similar message influencing their career choices of taking on traditionally female 'occupations. This may account for some young women's feeling more empowered to try various occupational roles, while still leaving young men to pursue the same types of jobs they were pursuing 20 to 40 years ago.

Kniveton, in his 2004 research, discussed how parents are the ones providing the strongest influences on their children's career development through support and advice related to their own experiences. Citing previous studies (Creed & Patton, 2003; Spitze & Logan, 1990), Kniveton believed in the theory that not all people feel they have free choice when it comes to choosing a

career (i.e. a lack of direct control over their lives). He used a relatively short questionnaire. The items were all measured with Likert type scale responses to interview 348 young people (174 males/174 females; ages 14-18 with a mean of 16.7 years) to help explore who these young adults felt were helping them with their career exploration. The data were examined, first, through the whole sample and, later, were subdivided to examine the results through birth order and gender. The study demonstrated that males, more than females, were interested in obtaining a job but that most other considerations were about equal between the two groups However, males prioritized the money aspect of working while females prioritized the enjoyment of work as opposed to other possible responses for working (e.g. doing something you are good at, helping others, or working conditionsl) that were all ranked much lower by both males and females. The results of Kniveton's study also showed that parents had a much larger influence than that of the teachers, with the same sex parent being the most influential over the adolescent. In a similar vein, Rainey and Borders (1997) demonstrated through their study of 276 seventh- and eighth-grade female students that the mother-daughter relationship (specifically the separation and attachment aspects) in early adolescence is significant —based on a variety of measures, that mothers strongly influence the development of daughters' attitudes towards women's rights and roles in society (p. 167).

Additional studies of females in later adolescence have generated similar findings amongst the mother-daughter relationship and career exploration (Blustein, et al., 1991; Paa & McWhirter, 2000) including Rollins and White (1982) who stated from their study that the mothers are significant influences in developing the socialization and attitudes of their daughters. Based on their five year longitudinal study of 207 women (who were high school students during the first phase of the study), O'Brien, Friedman, Tipton, and Linn (2000) found that attachment to mother had a significant direct effect on career self-efficacy, and career self-efficacy again influenced

career aspiration, (p. 309). Additionally, they speculated that a young woman's attachment to her mother during her high school years may likely be significant since the mother is usually the primary caretaker who is more involved with the daughter than the father, giving the mother more opportunity to verbally encourage the daughter to explore career possibilities (O'Brien, et al., 2000).

If females are primarily influenced by their mothers, which parent assumes therole of primary influencer of the male children? According to researchers Boatwright, Ching, and Paar, (1992), they discovered that not only is the mother the most influential parent for their daughters but the mother is also the most influential for their sons, too. Although much previous research has demonstrated the significant effects of parental socialization, Smith (1981) concluded that parental influence needs to be divided between the mother and father, in order to avoid any muddled data and to gain a more defined picture of who is the primary influencer. In fact, Smith's results were similar to Kniveton (2004) and Boatwright's et al. (1992) in that adolescents tended to agree more with their mother than their father on future goals and other beliefs. Smith also believed that the majority of time a mother spent with the children may play a large role in why the mother carries such a large influence in the eyes of the children (1981). In Otto's (2000) sample survey research of 362 high school juniors (of various schools in North Carolina), he found that, even though females have more conversations with their parents than their male counterparts, both sexes view their mother as the most aware of their career abilities and aspirations. Otto also found that 79% of the adolescent women and 73% of the adolescent men identified their mothers as being the most helpful when providing career advice. In contrast, fathers were identified as being helpful 60% of the time for males and only 53% helpful to females.

2.3.2 Race and Career Choice Issues

Arbona and Novy (1991) examined the issue of career aspirations for White, Black, and Mexican-American students and how racial socialization, instead of gender socialization, may play a part in their exploration. They studied 866 students who were incoming freshman to a predominantly White university in the southwest. The sample breakdown was as follows: 126 Black students (29 males/97 females), 107 Mexican-American students (52 males/55 females), and 633 White students (328 males, 305 females), with the ages between 16-19 years old and the mean age being 17.8. Arbona and Novy used a chi-square analysis to determine the association between students'ethnicity and gender and their career aspirations and expectations. Results suggested that there were few differences in career aspirations and expectations among Black, Mexican, and White students. Changes in society from earlier studies (Melgoza, Harris, Baker & Roll, 1980; Sewell & Martin, 1976) may be demonstrating a break-down in previous ethnic stereotyping for freshmen. Interestingly, although minority youth have been shown to have similar career aspirations as in the Arbona and Novy (1991) study (and some studies even finding that Black adolescents have higher aspirations than White adolescents. Wilson & Wilson, 1992), many ethnic youth have been shown to have decreased expectations of achieving their goals, in comparison to their White counterparts (Constantine, Erickson, Banks, & Timberlake, 1998; Fouad & Byars-Winston, 2005; Lauver & Jones, 1991; Weinstein, Madison, & Kuklinski, 1995). For these minority youth, who desired similar high-status occupations, many did not believe that they are realistically achievable due to particular barriers that face the youth. However, this belief may be the outcome of more structural influences (socioeconomic status, quality of school attended, etc.) rather than cultural influences (Constantine, et al., 1998).

Studying the contemporary parent-youth relationships, relative to career development (from the perspective of the youth), was Otto's (2000) intention in his study of 362 juniors in a cross sectional group of six high schools in North Carolina. The breakdown of the students who completed the survey was as follows: 159 (44%) were male, while 203 (56%) were female, and 94 (26%), were African-American, and 208 (74%) were White. Most responses provided on the survey were completed using a four-point Likert-type scale (e.g. response items could be very different, mostly different, mostly similar, or very similar or the responses could be never, rarely, sometimes, or often [p. 113]). Results of Otto's study indicated that many of these youth not only agreed with their parent's viewpoints on careers and goals (81% feel they are similar) but that the parents were the primary source for career-related information.

After separating the groups by race; Otto found that 80% of both African-American and White youth said their ideas of what career they should enter was similar to their parent's ideas. Both groups were also very similar in terms of discussing their career plans with their parents most often (56% African-Americans vs. 46% of Whites), as well as primarily speaking with their respective mothers first (83% African-American and 81% White). Keisha Love (2008) discussed how researchers have shown young adult African-Americans report much more intimate, secure and closer relationships with their parents than do Whites, which equated to stronger attached relationships for Blacks, and may be indicative of Otto's (2000) findings where African-American youth discussed their career aspirations on a more frequent basis with their parents than did the White respondents. Smith's (1981) study found that previous research, that did not separate the mother and father, were, in fact, masking some of the effects of familial influence upon the child's career choices. In his study, Smith examined the rates at which adolescents agreed with each

parent's career and educational goals. Data was collected through a questionnaire from 6th, 8th, 10th, and 12th grade students in South Carolina and Georgia.

In total, there were 2, 321 students supplying all information, with 14% of those participating from South Carolina were Black, while 68% of those participants in Georgia were also Black. A full-range of socio-economic status was accounted for with both Black and White students in both states. Smith found that that 51% of the Blacks and 58% of the Whites agreed with the maternal perceptions of their career goals. However, sixth and eighth grade students did have somewhat higher levels of agreement with their mothers than did tenth and twelfth grade students, possibly indicating the adolescent's growth and autonomy from his or her parents as the student matures. Extending the focus on parental relationships, Whiston and Keller (2004a) stated that, there are some preliminary findings that parental support may play an even more critical role in the career development of African-American and Latino/Latina adolescents and young adults than it does in Caucasian or European American's career development (p. 556).

2.3.3 Parent's Role in Promoting Career Choices by Gender

In one international study (Galambos & Silbereisen, 1987) completed in [West] Germany, found that because parents have lowered expectations for the success of their daughters than for their sons, the females in their study also tended to carry these lowered expectations. The researchers also noted that fathers tended to treat their children in a more sex-differentiated way than the mothers did. For example, fathers would encourage their sons to be more independent, to compete harder, and to achieve more challenging goals, whereas the fathers would not encourage similar behaviors in their daughters. This type of gender biased socialization was similarly discovered in Kniveton's (2004) study, where he found a large percentage of students stated that their parents often gave advice in a gender-stereotyped way (e.g. females were advised into

stereotyped female roles such as nursing or clerical positions while males were encouraged to obtain more typically masculine roles such as a doctor or police officer). Gender-socialization of this nature has been the subject of numerous studies over the years but has only recently been examined with regards to adolescents and their career development (McMahon & Patton, 1997). Primarily, the majority of research that focused on the socialization of males versus females generally did not examine its direct impact on the career development of the children. Among those studies that did focus on career development, they typically centered on older adolescents (high school graduates and older), often missing the impact socialization may have on career choices from a much earlier age. Phipps (1995) in her study found that children, as young as five years old, could identify specific career aspirations. Phipps believes a new focus on the gender socialization and the career orientation of adolescent and younger subjects will give career counselors a much clearer picture of the issues and complexity around their client's career aspirations. When Middleton and Loughead (1993) examined how parents were influencing their children, they classified parents into three main categories: positive involvement; non-involvement; and negative involvement.

Parents, who were positively involved with their children's career development and career choice, were enthusiastic about their children's career exploration and were emotionally and/or verbally supportive of the young adult's individual goals. Non-supportive parents, on the other hand, were unaware of what to do, how to help, or that their involvement is desired at all according to Middleton and Loughead (1993, p. 166). A negatively involved parent was in a much more precarious situation where the adolescent felt anxiety or resentment, regarding career decisions based on parental attitudes. Parents in this category may have overtly pressured their son or daughter to focus on a particular career path which went against what the child believed was best

for themselves. For many counselors, it was the parent's intentions that were important, when working with clients, as these are the ways in which parents communicate to their children (Young & Friesen, 1992). In Young and Friesen's study (1992), they found that parents (even though many stated they were not intentionally directing their children's career choices) implicitly suggested and actually implemented goals of their own as parents (1992, p. 204).

Although parents might not consider some of their actions as intentional, there are many examples of parents' suggesting their children try out for athletic teams, academic organizations, or even bringing an adolescent to a local university campus to have the child consider possible future careers or educational pursuits (Young & Friesen, 1992). Again, it is up to the counselor to help the client determine and label these outside influences, while simultaneously figuring out if they are helpful or harmful to the young adult's development and make adjustments as necessary.

By using a systems based approach with clients, a counselor will be much more effective at finding the various pressure points around a client's career indecision. Consequently, the counselor is in a better position to assist the client with understanding the true nature of the choices being considered, while reducing some of the emotional anxiety that may be coming from various systems in the client's life. It is also important to note that as children grow into young adults the gendered advice and expectations that they have learned from parents and teachers helps to influence the male and female child's expectations of themselves (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). By helping young people think critically, examine multiple pieces of information (not just listening to one source), and helping them develop contacts outside their immediate family/close friend network, young adults will have a more diverse set of experiences from which they can draw when considering career options. The added advantage of such an approach may also help to diminish the power of career stereotypes (Creamer & Laughlin, 2005). In a similar fashion, Boatwright,

Ching, and Paar (1992) offered some tips for the parents of minority youth. There were two important tips: (1) placing their children into college-prep courses while in high school thereby setting higher expectations for these youth; and (2) to begin career and/or higher education discussions with their son or daughter at a much earlier time (e.g. junior high) to also help set parental expectations.

2. 3.4 Parenting style

Parenting styles, according to Fogel and Melson (1988) is the tendency to behave in consistent fashion in disciplining or relating to the child. Darling and Steinberg (1993) have differentiated parenting style from parenting behavior. According to them parenting style is a kind of basic climate in the family including a set of attitudes and values rather than a set of specific: parenting behaviors.

2.3.5 Classification of Parenting Styles

Researchers like Baumrind (1975), Conger (1977) and Elder (1980) agree that an important dimension of parental behavior is authority and control, versus autonomy, and the parents' behavioral patterns vary widely across this range. Mussen, et al. (1984) have identified the following six parental behavior patterns which vary across the two extremes: parental authority/control versus autonomy. They are "autocratic" (parents simply instruct their young what to do), "authoritarian" (the child or adolescent can participate in discussions but has no voice in decision making), "democratic" or "authoritative" (the young person contributes freely to the discussions of issues relevant to &/her behavior and may even make decisions, but the ultimate authority is retained by parents), "equilitarian" (there is minimal role differentiation between parent and child), "permissive" (the balance in decision making tilts in favor of the child or

adolescent) and "laissez faire" (the young person is free to subscribe to or disregard parental wishes). Baumrind in a series of studies of pre-school children and their families (Uaumrind and Black, 1967) and in later studies with somewhat older children (Baumrind, 1971; 1973; 1978) delineated three modes of family interaction. The three parenting styles identified by Baumrind are "authoritarian", "authoritative" and "permissive". These three family types differ in the values, behaviours, and standards which children are expected to adopt, in the ways these values, behaviours, and standards are transmitted, and in parental expectation of the behaviour of children. Baumrind's view is, widely accepted and has been reformulated for use by Dornbusch et al. (1987) in the study of adolescents and their parents. Their study has rnade it clear that Baumrind's typology of parenting styles can be successfully applied to adolescents and is related to their academic performance. Santrock (1994) recognizes three prototypic patterns of parenting identified by Baumrind and explains the forms of parenting as follows:

"Authoritarian parenting" is a restrictive, punitive style that exhorts the child to follow the parent's directions and to respect work and effort. 'The authoritarian parent places firm limits and controls on the child. Baumrind's studies (1971, 1973) have found that authoritarian pattern is high in demanding and low in parental responsiveness. "Authoritative parenting" encourages children to be independent but still places control on their actions. Extensive verbal give-and-take is allowed and parents are warm and nurturing towards the child.

Authoritative parenting is multi-faceted. Maccoby and Martin (1983) for example, describe authoritative parenting as combining both parental responsiveness and demand. Steinberg and his colleagues (Steinberg, 1990; Steinberg, Ehnen, and Mounts, 1989; Steinberg et al., 1991) have suggested that in adolescence, three specific components of authoritativeness contribute to healthy psychological development and success in school and they are (1) parental acceptance or warmth,

(2) Behavioral supervision and strictness, and (3) psychological autonomy granting or democracy. This suggestion parallels the three central dimensions of parenting identified by Schafer (:1965) in his pioneering work on the assessment of parenting practices through children's reports. Likewise, they are conceptually similar to the dimensions of parental control discussed by Baumrind (1991a, 1991b) namely, supportive control (similar to warmth), assertive control (similar to behavioral supervision and strictness), and directive/conventional control (similar to antithesis of psychological autonomy granting).

"Permissive parenting" comes in two forms: permissive-indifferent and permissive-indulgent (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). Permissive- indifferent parenting is a style in which the parent is much uninvolved in the child's life; it is associated with children's social incompetence especially a lack of self-control. Permissive-indulgent parenting is a style of parenting in which parents are highly involved with their children but place only a few demands or controls on them. Permissive-indulgent parenting is also associated with children's social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control.

The four classifications of parenting explained by Santrock (1994) involve combinations of acceptance and responsiveness on the one hand, and demand and control on the other and all these dimensions combine to produce authoritarian, authoritative, permissive-indifferent, and Permissive-indulgent parenting.

2.3.6 Parental Involvement in Studies

Researchers have recently focused on parental involvement as a key mediator between background factors, such as parent education and academic achievement. For example, Stevenson

and Baker (1987) found that the relation between parent education and school performance was mediated almost entirely by parents' level of involvement.

2.3.7 Types of Involvement

There are three types of parental involvement as assessed by Grolnick and Sloiaczek (1994) in their study. They are named as behavioral, personal, and cognitive/intellectual involvement. In the first category of involvement, the parent overtly manifest involvement through his or her behavior by going to school, and participating in activities such as open houses. Support for the importance of this resource is provided in a study by Epstein and Becker (1982). The second type, namely, personal involvement includes the child's affective experience that the parent cares about school, and has and enjoys interactions with them around school. Such a perception may convey a positive feeling towards school and the child. 'The third category of involvement, namely, cognitive/intellectual which involves exposing the child to cognitively stimulating activities and materials such as books, and current events, represents a historically new role for parents in promoting their children's cognitive development (Lareau, 1987).

2.3.8 The Parenting Environment promoting inner Resources

Grolnick et all. (1991) have proposed two dimensions of parenting environment for facilitating inner resources in children. The two dimensions are: (1) autonomy support versus control and (2) Involvement versus non-involvement. Autonomy support versus control is the degree to which parents encourage children to initiate and make their own choices rather than apply pressure and inducements to control the children's behavior; and involvement versus non-involvement is the degree to which parents are interested in, and spend time relating to their children concerning their activities and experiences such as school work. The results of their study

indicated that perceived parental autonomy support and involvement were positively associated with perceived competence, control understanding, and perceptions of autonomy.

There are a number of studies that have provided support for the utility of these two dimensions as predictors of developmental outcomes. Studies examining variables related to autonomy support (most typically focusing on control, which is the absence of autonomy support) have found that parental emphasis on obedience, compliance, and the use of power assertive techniques lead children to be less social (Baldwin, 1955), more hostile (Hoffman, 1960), more dysphoric and disaffiliated (Baumrind, 1967), and less adjusted (Schaefer,1965).

Several researchers have also provided evidence about the effects of the second dimension, involvement. For example, high levels of involvement were found to be associated with competence and achievement motivation (Pulkkinen, 1982) and low levels of involvement were related to disobedience and aggression (Hat-field, Ferguson and Alpert, 1967) Furthermore, Gordon, Nowicki and Wickern (1981) related maternal involvement to the development of an internal locus of control, and Stevenson and Baker (1987) reported a positive association between parent involvement. In school activities and children's school performance in the basis of these findings, it is clear that children of highly involved parents will feel more competent, display greater control understanding, and have more autonomous academic motivational orientations than the children of less involved parents.

An interview study of mothers and fathers by Grolnick and Ryan (1989) assessed both the autonomy support and involvement dimensions. The researchers found that children of parents rated by the interviewers as highly autonomy supportive, had higher self-reported and other-reported competence, showed more independent self-regulation, and evidenced fewer school adjustment problems than did children of parents rated highly controlling. Additionally, the

researchers found maternal involvement to be related to greater control understanding and teacher-rated competence and to fewer adjustment problems.

A recent study by Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) on 300, 11- 14- year-old children found that children's motivational resources are mediators between parent involvement and children's school performance The study by Hoover-Uempsey and Sandler (1995) found that the major educational outcomes of the involvement process are children's development of skills and knowledge, as well as a personal sense of efficacy for succeeding in school. (The results of a cornprehensive study on 500,000 students from 41 Countries by the Third international Mathematics and Science study released in 1996, found that Asian children (Indian children excluded) outrank their peers in America and Western Europe. One of the reasons for top performance of Asian children in Mathematics and Science Test was found to be parental involvement (Wingert and Greenberg, 1996).

The review of literature on parental involvement in studies indicates that, in adolescent's parental involvement in the context of an authoritative environment promote the development of motivational inner resources which in turn facilitates academic success.

2.3.9 Parenting Behaviors

Much research has been conducted relating parenting to self- esteem. A brief review of the extensive literature is presented below. An important context for the evolution of one's self-esteem is the family and the kinds of interactions that occur among family members. Wylie (1961) points out that all personality theorists who are concerned with the study of the self, give great importance to parent-child interaction in the development of self-perception. The extensive studies by Coopersmith (1967) on American pre-adolescent children have indicated that there are three

important parental treatments which act as antecedents to children's self-esteem. They are total or nearly total acceptance of the children by their parents, clearly defined and enforced limits, and respect and latitude for individual action (freedom from restriction) that exist within the defined limits.

The major conclusions of the studies conducted by Rosenberg (1965), Coopersmith (1967), Bachman (1970), and Thomas et al., (1974) were that parental support of and parental willingness to grant autonomy and freedom to their children are positively related to high self-esteem among the children. The above kind of behaviour, according to Gecas and Schwalbe, (1986) conveys to the cluld information about his or her inherent worth and suggests to the child that the parent trusts the child and considers him or her to be a responsible person. This too has favourable consequences for the child's self-esteem. 'The parents of low self-esteem boys are critical and rejective of their children (Hanson and Maynard, 1973). According to Baumrind (1975) high self-esteem adolescent boys have parents who are democratic but also less permissive than those of low self-esteem boys. Low self- esteem boys have parents who are sometimes permissive but occasionally harsh when their children go beyond the limits they will tolerate. Sometimes the parents are too restrictive and inconsistent in their discipline (Ilamacheck, 1976). Miller (1976) in a study of 203 eighth graders and their mothers, found that mothers, who are empathetic, genuine, and possessing positive regard, have children with high levels of self-esteem compared to mothers lacking in these qualities. Modell's (1978) study on 30 boys and 30 girls (age 10-11 years) indicated that the permissiveness of mothers is associated with high self-esteem of daughter: Also, the relation between maternal restrictiveness and self-esteem of sons is found to be non-significant. The results further indicate that, with fathers, permissiveness is related to high self-esteem and restrictiveness to low self-esteem in both sons and daughters.

The study undertaken by Soavedra (1978) on a sample of 60 adolescent males indicated that there exists a linear relationship between adolescent's reported perception of parental warmth or acceptance and the feelings of self-esteem. According to Kokenes (1978) high self-esteem adolescents report that their parents accept, understand and like them; those with low self- esteem have parents who use psychological pressure techniques such as withdrawal of love, guilt, or self-pity to control them. Students whose parents give supportive responses and other positive behavior have higher self-esteem than those who report indifferent or critical responses.

Their parents are strict but consistent and they demand high standards, although they are also flexible enough to allow deviations from rules under special circumstances (Graybill, 1978).

Adolescents who are physically abused by parents develop a low self-esteem (fijroth, 1982). Another study has shown that maternal loving and demanding dimensions (actions that communicate acceptance and approval towards children) exhibited positive relationships with children's self-esteem, while maternal punishment (use of arbitrary force or restrictiveness) showed a negative relationship (Peterson, Southworth, Peters, 1983). Children who have a good relation with parents tend to show better social adjustment and self-esteem development (Mac Donald and Parke, 1984; Demo, Small, and Savin-Williams, 1987).

In a Chinese study, Cheung and Lau (1985) showed that a good relationship with parents is associated most noticeably with higher self- esteem in adolescents. They also found that relationship with parents was a stronger predictor of self-esteem than that with school and Schwalbe (1986) obtained significant correlation between adolescents' self-esteem and their perception of parental support, autonomy control, and participation, but they found little correspondence between parent's reports of the same behavior and adolescent self-esteem.

An Indian study by Singh and Singh (1986) on 200, 17-21-year-old students examined whether self-concept of the subjects was affected by the type of family discipline. The results indicated that general self-concept is more positive in normal discipline (ND) than in harsh discipline group; self-confidence, worthiness, feelings of shame and guilt, sociability, and emotional stability were more positive in the ND group than in the harsh discipline group. Numerous investigators have demonstrated relationships between adolescents' self-esteem and their perception of their parents' supporting and controlling behavior (Openshaw, Thomas, and Rollins, 1981; Barber and Thomas, 1986; Felson and Zielinski, 1989; Barber, 1990). All of these

Studies have found that parental supportive behavior is positively related to self-esteem and various types of negative controlling behaviors have been found to be negatively related to self-esteem.

The study by Kinney and Emilie (1989) focused on parental beliefs about child rearing and children's perception of parental behavior on self-esteem. The study showed that the higher the degree of democracy in maternal behavior, the greater the likelihood for higher achievement, academic self-esteem and general self-esteem in children. The study conducted by Joubert(1991) on 50 male and 84 female college students, revealed that sons with higher scores in self-esteem reported that their mothers were fairer and less likely to use verbal abuse, and daughters with high self-esteem reported both of their parents were more interested in their activities and refrained from verbal abuse. Barber et al. (1992) have found that parenting behaviors (e.g. Support and control) were significantly related to self-esteem in U.S. adolescents, while the same parenting behaviors were not related to self- esteem in German adolescents. Buri et al. (1992) investigated the stability of parental nurturance as a salient predictor of self-esteem for seven distinct adolescent and early adulthood age groups (N= 784). The analysis showed that even though mother's and

father's nurturance together were more strongly related to self-esteem during the junior school years than during the high school and college years, parental nurturanee still remained a robust predictor of self-esteem during these latter years.

Lau and Leung (1992) conducted a study on 1668 Chinese secondary school students and the results showed that better relation with parents was associated with higher general, academic, appearance, social and physical ability self-concepts. f-lopkins and Klein (1993) found a positive relation between parental nurturance and global self-worth. Nurturance also showed a positive relationship with several dimensions of self-perception. This research underscored the importance of nurturance in the development of self-esteem and the usefulness of a multidimensional construct of self-perception.

Nielsen and Metha (1994) investigated the relationships between multiple dimensions of self-esteem and adolescent's perceptions of parental behaviors using non-clinical (N=119) and clinical (N=30) samples of adolescents. Perceptions of parental behaviors were consistently unrelated to dimensions of self-esteem among adolescents in the clinical sample. Among adolescents in the non-clinical sample, perception of parental support and autonomy granting were related to multiple dimensions of self-esteem. Perceptions of parental discipline were inconsistently related to dimensions of non-clinical self-esteem. Behamdouni (1996) found that mother's acceptance was significantly and positively associated with adolescent's self-esteem and was also found to be the most powerful predictor of adolescent self- esteem. Other significant predictors of self-esteem were mother's use of firm discipline and psychological control and father's authoritativeness.

From the Literature reviewed relating parenting behaviors and self-esteem, it is seen that most of the studies have focused on adolescents as subjects and many investigators have used

adolescents' perception of - their parents' supporting and controlling behavior as an important study variable (Openshaw et al., 1981; Barber and Thomas, 1986; Gecas and Schwalbe, 1986,;F elson and Zielinski, 1989; Kinney, and Emilie, 1989; Barber, 1990; Joubert, 1991; Nielsen and Metha, 1994). This may be because, many early theorists like Mead (1934) and Sullivan (1953) have asserted that perceived parental behaviors are reliably predictive of self-esteem.

To summarize, all the studies reviewed here have shown that there is consensus among researchers that parental nurturance, support, participation and allowance of freedom within well-prescribed hits have a positive effect on adolescents' self-esteem, and severe controlling behaviors have been found to be negatively related to self-esteem. Indian studies relating parenting behavior and self-esteem are not available except that of Singh and Singh (1986) relating type of family discipline and late adolescents' self-concept.

2.3.10 Parent-Child Relationship and Creativity

There are a few recent studies revealing the relation between parenting variables and creativity in children. Studies of precocious children (scientific discoveries, athletic accomplishments, musical compositions, inventions, and the like) reveal parental support in addition to extensive training by talented teachers (Feldman, 1980). Moglia (1989) investigated the relationship between ten family environmental factors including 'pressure to achieve' and creativity in subjects (10-22 year-olds) The factor negatively associated with creativity was the degree families had cast work, school, and recreational activities into an achievement oriented and competitive frame work. Hussain and Sajid (1990) investigated the relationship between creativity and Parent's Interest in Creative Activities (PICA) and traditional/non-traditional living conditions (TLC) among 400, 8th - 10th grade males in India and found that PICA and TLC are significantly associated only with non-verbal creativity, and joint family is positively associated with verbal

and non-verbal creativity Michael and Dudek (1991) interviewed the mothers of 15 high- creative and 15 low-creative 8-year-olds and found that mothers of high- creative were less emotionally involved with their children and less likely to be perceived as over-protective. They were more self-confident and self-realized in their homes and had higher occupational level.

Raw and Marjoriebanks (1991) examined the relationships between 312 Australian 16-, year-old children's perception of their family and school environments, and measures of their creativity, and found that adolescents' creativity has modest associations with their perception of both family and school environments. From the literature reviewed, it is seen that empirical literature suggesting a positive relation between parenting environment and creativity is only few, even though there is a good amount of theoretical literature regarding the significance of parental attitudes in fostering creativity in children.

2.3.11 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON CAREER CHOICE

Parental dynamic and interaction (e.g. attachment enmeshment etc) have long been assumed to play a significant role on their children's career development. Bratcher (2000), Roe (2001), Zingaro (2004). A plethora of research investigation and articles related to parental influence have been published on those topics, however, there is still this articles or provide the empirical research and analysis needed to understand the depth of a family influence upon a sons or daughters vocational choice. Wiston and Keller (2004) regrettable less than two hundred empirical studies have been conducted since Roe first advanced the idea that the family play a part in individual career choice over 50 years ago Keller &Whiston (2008) thinks lack of conclusive evidence has led to vocational psychologist and career counselor to function with the underlying belief that people could make decision that reflected their own dreams.

Passion and talents in the world of work. Unencumbered by family issues, cultural roles racism classicism and sexism. Blustein (2004) since the year 2000 family therapist and career counsellor have unearthed more information about the significant influence parents have on their children's development of vocational choice late in life. Kinnier Brigman&Wobel (2006), Andres (2007) even though adolescent actively began demonstrating their independence from their parents in their high school years, these young adults are still very much dependent on their parents for their career growth.

2.4 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

H1. Parents who adopt authoritarian parenting style will have significant influence on children embracing careers that are investigative, realistic and conventional.

H2. Parents who adopt authoritative parenting style will have significant influence on children embracing career that is more of enterprising.

H3. Parents who adopt permissive parenting style will have significant influence children embracing career that is more artistic.

H4. Parenting styles will have significant influence on their children career choice.

2.5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Career - A chosen pursuit or course of business activity or enterprise, especially one's professional life or employment that offers advancement and honor.
- Choice: An act of choosing between two or more possibility. The right to choose or the possibility of choosing.

3.2.1 SOURCE OF DATA

The source of collecting data was the questionnaires.

3.3 STUDY SAMPLE

During the course of this research the target population of interest were secondary school students of Oye Local government in Ekiti State, the selected samples were male and female students from the five secondary schools, which totaled 200 participants in all. Though 220 questionnaires were admitted, 215 were recovered and 200 which was used for the initial purpose. They were sampled using convenience sampling method. Of those who reported their gender, 58 were males and 142 were females totaling 29% and 71% respectively. 116 respondents fell on the age spectrum of 13-15yrs, 65 fell on the age spectrum of 16-19yrs, and 19 respondents were of the age range of 10-12yrs, with 58%, 9% and 10% respectively. Report shows that the, 142 were science students, 23 were commercial students while 32 were art students. Of those who reported their levels, 60 were SS1 students, 78 were SS2 students, and 62 were SS3 level students, with a percentage of 30, 39 and 31 respectively. Lastly, of those who reported their various career choice, 52 reported their choice with science, 29 reported their choice with Engineering, 27 reported their choice with Social Science, 65 reported their choice with Arts and 27 reported choice with Artisans, with a percentage of 26, 15, 13, 33, and 13 respectively.

3.3.1 POPULATION OF STUDY

The population from which the sample of the study was drawn are students of secondary classes, using the random sampling procedures to select the five secondary schools from Oye Local Government Area of Ekiti State.

3.3.2 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

In this study, five secondary schools were randomly selected for effective analysis. The schools are:

S/N	*SCHOOLS*
1	St. Augustine Comprehensive High School
2	Oye Egbo School
3	Isan Secondary School
4	Ilupeju High School
5	Ekiti State Government College

3.4. INSTRUMENT

The psychological instruments that were utilized during the course of this research were categorized into three sections; they are delineated as follows;

3.4.1 SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

It consists of items social-demographics information's of participants such as sex, age, level (SS1, SS2 and SS3) and class: science, commercial and art.

3.4.2 SECTION B: 30 items

(PARENTAL AUTHORITY QUESTIONNAIRE)

The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) is designed to measure parental authority, or disciplinary Practices, from the point of view of the child (of any age). The PAQ has three

subscales: Permissive (P: items 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28), authoritarian (A: items 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29), and authoritative/flexible (F: items 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27, and 30). Mother and father forms of the assessment are identical except for references to gender. It comprises of thirty (30) items reflecting the influence of the parenting styles. Author, Dr. John R. Buri, Department of Psychology, University of St. Thomas, 2115 Summit Avenue, St. Paul, MN 55105. All items were answered using a 5-point Likert scale format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

3.4.3 SECTION C: 57 items

(CAREER CHOICE SCALE)

Holland's theory of career choice was quite helpful, that is, it reflected the personalities of children through the influence of parenting style on their career choice. Most people are one of the six personality types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional some refer to these as Holland codes or RIASEC, are attributed to the parenting styles. Authoritative style (enterprising), Permissive style (artistic), Authoritarian (investigative, realistic and conventional). This section is made up of fifty seven (57) items. All items were answered by ticking in front of the listed career, each participant desired.

3.5 PROCEDURE

Questionnaires were administered to the respondents, using random method. After the introduction of the research work to the principals of the selected schools, permission was taken to address the students. Few minutes was spent in explaining the aims and objectives of the research to the respondents highlighting the advantages of honesty in answering the questions.

3.6 STATISTICAL METHODS

The multinomial logistic regression analysis is the statistical method applied to the research work. Like all linear regressions, the multinomial regression is a predictive analysis. Multinomial regression is used to describe data and to explain the relationship between one dependent nominal variable and one or more continuous-level (interval or ratio scale) independent variables

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Ethical issues need to be anticipated and dealt with by the researcher (Creswell, 2009). Thus, this study took into account possible and potential ethical issues. The measures undertaken to ensure compliance with ethical issues included seeking permission from all Principals of the five schools which were sampled. In the same view, measures were taken to ensure that identities of respondents were kept confidentially. As rightly identified by Wimmer and Dominick (1995), the principle of confidentiality and respect are the most important ethical issues requiring compliance on the part of the researcher. The basic ethical requirements demanded that the researcher respects the rights, values and decisions of the respondents. In addition, during research, the respondents' responses were neither interfered nor contested by the researcher. Furthermore, informed consent was obtained from respondents and all the people in charge of places where the study was done from. While carrying out the research, the right of self-determination was highly upheld to allow the respondents to decide will free whether to participate in the study or not.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1 RESULTS

This chapter is concern with the analysis and interpretation of result getting from the questionnaires. The data collected were scored and analysed. The following are the results:

Table 1: Distribution of Social-demographics

N = 200	n	%	N = 200	n	%
Sex			Class		
Male	58	29	Science	142	73
Female	142	71	Commercial	23	11
Age			Arts	32	16
10-12yrs	19	10	Career choice		
13-15yrs	116	58	Science	52	26
16-19yrs	65	9	Engineering	29	15
Religion			Social Sciences	27	13
SS1	60	30	Arts	65	33
SS2	78	39	Artisans	27	13
SS3	62	31			

Table 2: Mean score and standard deviations of study variables

Variables	M	SD	Range
Age	14.75	1.56	10-19
Permissive	34.06	6.11	19-50
Authoritarian	37.60	5.25	23-50
Authoritative	37.78	5.43	17-50

Hypothesis 1

Authoritarian parental style will significantly predict career choice.

Table 3: Multinomial logistic regression analysis testing the influence of authoritarian style of parenting on career choice

Career		B	Std. Error	Df	Sig.	e^{β} (odds ratio)
Science	Intercept	-2.028	1.71	1	.24	
	Authoritarian	.072	.05	1	.12	1.08
Engineering	Intercept	.298	1.83	1	.87	
	Authoritarian	-.006	.05	1	.90	.99
Social Sciences	Intercept	-5.313	2.14	1	.01	
	Authoritarian	.140	.06	1	.01	1.15
Arts	Intercept	-1.481	1.63	1	.36	
	Authoritarian	.064	.04	1	.15	1.07

Overall model evaluation

Model $\square^2$ = 10.26 p = .036

Pseudo R^2 = .05

N = 200

The reference category is: Artisan

The model in table 3 contains one independent variable (authoritarian parental style). The model was statistically significant, $\chi 2$ (4) = 10.26, p = .036, indicating that the authoritarian parental style predicted career choice. The model explained 5% (Cox and Snell R square) of the variance in career choice, and correctly classified 32.5% of cases. However, the model only showed that authoritarian style parenting significantly predicted choosing a career in the social sciences than being an artisan with an odd ratio 1.15.

Therefore hypothesis one is supported.

Hypothesis 2

Permissive parental style will significantly predict career choice.

Table 4: Multinomial logistic regression analysis testing the influence of permissive style of parenting on career choice

Career		B	Std. Error	Df	Sig.	e^{β} (odds ratio)
Science	Intercept	2.60	1.42	1	.07	
	Permissive	-.06	.04	1	.16	.95
Engineering	Intercept	.13	1.63	1	.94	

	Permissive	-.002	.05	1	.97	.99
Social Sciences	Intercept	-.04	1.67	1	.98	
	Permissive	.001	.05	1	.98	1.001
Arts	Intercept	3.07	1.38	1	.03	
	Permissive	-.06	.039	1	.10	.94
Overall model evaluation						
Model $\square^2$	= 6.35		p = .17			
Pseudo R^2	= .03					
N = 200						

The reference category is: Artisan

The model in table 4 contains one independent variable (permissive parental style). The model was not significant, $\chi 2$ (4) = 6.35, p = .18, indicating that the permissive parental style did not predict career choice. Therefore hypothesis two is not supported.

Hypothesis 3

Authoritative parental style will significantly predict career choice.

Table 5: Multinomial logistic regression analysis testing the influence of authoritative style of parenting on career choice

Career1[a]		B	Std. Error	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Science	Intercept	-1.778	1.691	1	.293	

	Authoritative	.064	.044	1	.148	1.066
Engineering	Intercept	.738	1.758	1	.675	
	Authoritative	-.018	.047	1	.701	.982
Social Science	Intercept	-1.468	1.913	1	.443	
	Authoritative	.039	.050	1	.438	1.040
Arts	Intercept	-.323	1.574	1	.838	
	Authoritative	.032	.042	1	.443	1.033

Overall model evaluation

Model $\square^2$ = 4.48 p = .35

Pseudo R^2 = .02

N = 200

The reference category is: Artisan

The model in table 5 contains one independent variable (authoritative parental style). The model was not statistically significant, $\chi 2$ (4) = 4.48, p = .34, indicating that the authoritative parenting style did not predict career choice. Therefore, hypothesis three is not supported.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATION AND LIMITATION OF STUDY

5.1 DISCUSSION

Research indicates that the adoption and quality of parenting style directly affects their children personality and identifies the parents as the single most important factor that impacts a child's career. Hypotheses 1 has showed that authoritarian style parenting significantly predicted choosing a career in the social sciences than being an artisan with an odd ratio 1.15. Whereas hypotheses 2 and 3 do not significant relationship. Most of the students in Oye local government secondary school parents are often use to the authoritarian parenting style.

5.2 CONCLUSION

The main conclusion of this research may be summarized as follows:

- The styles of parenting adopted by parents of students in Oye local government Ekiti have no little or no influence on the career choice of such students
- Authoritarian parenting style is the most popular (among the types which the study was able to identify) as being adopted by parents.
- The type of parenting is not an adequate predictor of measures in career choice. Other factors such as peers, school etc, may be considered when issues of career choice in students is on the focus.
- Gender is not an important predictor of career choice. It failed to predict a difference in career choice of students on styles of parenting.

CHAPTER FIVE

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- Gender is not an important predictor of career choice. It failed to predict a difference in career choice of students on styles of parenting.

- Parenting styles does not really matter at children as much as it may be from prenatal period, infancy, and childhood stages of development.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS

Based on the findings of the research, the implications suggested are:

- The **implications** for career counselors, armed with this knowledge about family systems and parental influence in particular are multifaceted.
- The traditional view of career counseling has been to meet with the client, conduct a skills or personality assessment, and discuss the implications of those results with the idea that the client can then make a more informed decision. This type of counseling (which is still very much active in the U.S.), assumes that individual knowledge of one's skills and preferences is the most critical basis for making a career decision, with a relative absence of consideration as to the individual's other roles and/or environment such as his or her family dynamics, race, gender, etc. (Cook, Heppner, & O'Brien, 2002).
- As a career counselor, obtaining at least a general understanding of family systems therapy will provide a much broader picture of the client's abilities, supports, and barriers when examining career choice with clients. Choices are not isolated; choices are embedded within an ongoing pattern of living, (Savickas, 1995, p. 366). Instead, they are linked to how a career counselor views his or her client's presenting vocational issue as a part of their overall life pattern and merely another decision this person needs to make within a continuum of decisions. Using the entire context of the client's life to create an overall picture of where this particular decision fits, as well as who else this may affect helps to illuminate the client's current issue and assists in reducing the anxiety surrounding it

- Research has continuously demonstrated that parents have been the largest influence on their children, typically the primary source for career-related information for adolescents, and a child's first role model for the world of work, as he or she observes his or her parent's behavior around their occupation (Morrow, 1995).
- As regards to the study parents may not always be a positive influence on their children or have positive interactions with a counselor. It is important for a counselor to realize that there will occasionally be parents who do not allow their son or daughter the freedom of career choice and/or will not be fully supportive of those who are encouraging them to follow their own path. Understanding the sensitive nature of this issue and discussing it with the youth is paramount.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Parenting is not a matter of employing a sure fire set of recipes or formulas. Parents differ and children differ. For many years, psychologists and psychiatrists stressed the parent's role in shaping children personalities and behaviors. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- Professional school counsellors should provide collaborative support and training to parents on career guidance. This is because their education, skills, and position within the school community, are in a unique position to assess the needs of adolescents, and the skills and stressors of their parents.
- School counsellors can assist parents in learning how to provide emotional support by helping them understand the emotions that adolescents experience when faced with

difficult educational and vocational challenges, by helping parents talk to their adolescents about what fun their future job could be.

- School counsellors should assist parents in providing career-related modelling for their adolescents by showing them how to talk to their adolescents about their own occupations as well as about other occupations that are available in the world of work.
- Parents should imbibe the development of basic work attitudes as promptness, respect, dedication, expression of positive regard to constituted authority, and responsibility. This is necessary considering the fact that their attitude to work will have significant effect on children 'career choice.
- School counsellors in alliance with parents should provide opportunities that would nurture interests in vocational subject matter, and create environments that would nurture the discovery of aptitudes for vocational content.
- Parents, generally, should be cautioned against imposing their own goals onto their children, they can act as a guide. This is because adolescents need to discover who they are on their own.
- Parents should respect their children 'differences. Family environments that show respect for differences and independence would enormously be helpful to the child's career development.
- Parents should show genuine interest in and support for their children 'career plans.
- Parents should encourage their children to explore career options. This could be done through job shadowing, volunteering, and part – time jobs.
- Parents should be mindful of careless comments they make about careers, and even of theirs. This is because children are susceptible to careless comments parents make about

good and bad professions. Beside all these, each secondary school student should be guided to have an idea of what he would want to become in life. Therefore, according to Olusakin and Ubangha (1996) students in consultation with their parents, class teacher, and school counsellor should plan for his future academic career.

5.5 LIMITATION OF STUDY

The findings of this study are limited to investigation of the influence of parenting style within students in Oye local government alone and not including students with other religion like Ikole local government.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI, EKITI STATE

My name is OJO ADEBANJO, I am a final year student of the Department of Psychology, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, conducting a research in the area of "Psychology and Behavior".

Your name is not required and any information provided will be taken with utmost confidentiality. Please give immediate impression about the question on the survey. There is no right or wrong answer

Please express interest to participate by ticking "Yes" or "No"

SECTION A

i. SEX: MALE { } FEMALE { }

ii. AGE..... (AS AT LAST BIRTHDAY)

iii. LEVEL: SS1 { } SS2 { } SS3 { }

iv. CLASS: SCIENCE { } COMMERCIAL { } ART { }

SCETION B

Please in the level of your agreement with the following items by choosing the option that best express your view. SA= STRONGLY AGREE, A=AGREE, D= DISAGREE, N=NEUTRAL, D=DISAGREE, SD=STRONGLY DISAGREE

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	N	D	SD
1.	While I was growing up my mother felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.					
2.	Even if her children didn't agree with her, my mother felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was right.					
3.	Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.					
4.	As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my mother discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.					
5.	My mother has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.					
6.	My mother has always felt that what her children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.					
7	As I was growing up my mother did not allow me to question any decision she had made.					
8.	As I was growing up my mother directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.					

9.	My mother has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.					
10.	As I was growing up my mother did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them.					
11.	As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my mother when I felt that they were unreasonable.					
12.	My mother felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.					
13.	As I was growing up, my mother seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behavior.					
14.	Most of the time as I was growing up my mother did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.					
15.	As the children in my family were growing up, my mother consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.					
16.	As I was growing up my mother would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her.					
17.	My mother feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.					
18.	As I was growing up my mother let me know what behavior she expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, she punished me.					
19.	As I was growing up my mother allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her.					

20.	As I was growing up my mother took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.					
21.	My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up.					
22.	My mother had clear standards of behavior for the children in our home as I was growing up, but she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.					
23.	My mother gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and she expected me to follow her direction, but she was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.					
24.	As I was growing up my mother allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.					
25	My mother has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.					
26.	As I was growing up my mother often told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how she expected me to do it.					
27.	As I was growing up my mother gave me clear direction for my behaviors and activities, but she was also understanding when I disagreed with her.					
28.	As I was growing up my mother did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in the family.					

29.	As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in the family and she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her authority.					
30.	As I was growing up, if my mother made a decision in the family that hurt me, she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if she had made a mistake.					

SECTION C

Please indicate your desired career, by ticking only one career in front of the listed careers.

Automobile mechanic		Aircraft controller		Electrician		Surveyor	
Farmer		Carpenter		Baker		Cook	
Truck driver		Composer		Musician		Stage director	
Writer		Actor/Actress		Interior decorator		Biologists	
Chemist		Physicist		Geologist		Economist	
Sociologist		Psychologist		Veterinarian		Pharmacist	
Pediatrician		Psychiatrist		Mathematician		Computer programmer	
Mechanical engineer		Civil engineer		Chemical engineer		Political scientist	
Archeologist		Medical doctor		Lawyer		Barber	
Hairstylist		Accountant		Sales manager		Travel agent	
Teacher		Counselor		Banker		Lecturer	

Book keeper		Tax expert		Business administration		Nurse	
Caterer		Politician		Footballer		Microbiologists	
Biochemistry		Physiotherapy		Philosophy		anatomist	
Mining engineering							

APPENDIX B

SPSS OUTPUT

```
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=SEX Age1 LEVEL CLASS Career1
 /ORDER=ANALYSIS.
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Frequencies

Statistics

		SEX	Age1	LEVEL	CLASS	Career1
N	Valid	200	200	200	200	200
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0

Frequency Table

SEX

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	58	29.0	29.0	29.0
	Female	142	71.0	71.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Age1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10-12yrs	19	9.5	9.5	9.5
	13-15yrs	116	58.0	58.0	67.5
	16-19yrs	65	32.5	32.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

LEVEL

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	SS1	60	30.0	30.0	30.0
	SS2	78	39.0	39.0	69.0
	SS3	62	31.0	31.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

CLASS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Science	145	72.5	72.5	72.5
	Commercial	23	11.5	11.5	84.0
	Arts	32	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

Career1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Science	52	26.0	26.0	26.0
	Engineering	29	14.5	14.5	40.5
	Social Sci,	27	13.5	13.5	54.0
	Arts	65	32.5	32.5	86.5
	Artisan	27	13.5	13.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

```
DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=AGE Permissive Authoritarian Authoritative
/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.
```

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AGE	200	10	19	14.75	1.559
Permissive	200	19	50	34.06	6.107
Authoritarian	200	23	50	37.60	5.252
Authoritative	200	17	50	37.78	5.430
Valid N (listwise)	200				

```
NOMREG Career1 (BASE=LAST ORDER=ASCENDING) WITH Authoritarian
 /CRITERIA CIN(95) DELTA(0) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(5) CHKSEP(20) LCONVERGE(0) PCONVERGE(0.000001) SINGULAR(0.00000001)
 /MODEL
 /STEPWISE=PIN(.05) POUT(0.1) MINEFFECT(0) RULE(SINGLE) ENTRYMETHOD(LR) REMOVALMETHOD(LR)
 /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
 /PRINT=CLASSTABLE FIT PARAMETER SUMMARY LRT CPS STEP MFI.
```

Nominal Regression

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Career1	Science	52	26.0%
	Engineering	29	14.5%
	Social Sci,	27	13.5%
	Arts	65	32.5%
	Artisan	27	13.5%
Valid		200	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		200	
Subpopulation		26[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 4 (15.4%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	248.331			
Final	238.075	10.256	4	.036

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.

Pearson	111.908	96	.128
Deviance	113.421	96	.108

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.050
Nagelkerke	.052
McFadden	.017

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	247.538	9.463	4	.051
Authoritarian	248.331	10.256	4	.036

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Career1[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C
								Lower
Science	Intercept	-2.028	1.711	1.404	1	.236		
	Authoritarian	.072	.046	2.472	1	.116	1.075	
Engineering	Intercept	.298	1.832	.026	1	.871		
	Authoritarian	-.006	.050	.016	1	.901	.994	
Social Sci,	Intercept	-5.313	2.138	6.174	1	.013		
	Authoritarian	.140	.056	6.325	1	.012	1.150	
Arts	Intercept	-1.481	1.634	.822	1	.365		
	Authoritarian	.064	.044	2.090	1	.148	1.066	

a. The reference category is: Artisan.

Classification

Observed	Predicted					
	Science	Engineering	Social Sci,	Arts	Artisan	Percent Correct
Science	0	2	0	50	0	0.0%
Engineering	0	1	0	28	0	3.4%
Social Sci,	0	0	0	27	0	0.0%
Arts	0	1	0	64	0	98.5%
Artisan	0	1	0	26	0	0.0%
Overall Percentage	0.0%	2.5%	0.0%	97.5%	0.0%	32.5%

```
NOMREG Career1 (BASE=LAST ORDER=ASCENDING) WITH Authoritative
 /CRITERIA CIN(95) DELTA(0) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(5) CHKSEP(20) LCONVERGE(0) PCONVERGE(0.000001) SINGULAR(0.00000001)
 /MODEL
 /STEPWISE=PIN(.05) POUT(0.1) MINEFFECT(0) RULE(SINGLE) ENTRYMETHOD(LR) REMOVALMETHOD(LR)
 /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
 /PRINT=CLASSTABLE FIT PARAMETER SUMMARY LRT CPS STEP MFI.
```

Nominal Regression

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Career1	Science	52	26.0%
	Engineering	29	14.5%
	Social Sci,	27	13.5%
	Arts	65	32.5%
	Artisan	27	13.5%
Valid		200	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		200	
Subpopulation		28[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 9 (32.1%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	233.119			
Final	228.641	4.477	4	.345

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Pearson	99.518	104	.606
Deviance	100.035	104	.592

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.022
Nagelkerke	.023
McFadden	.007

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	231.765	3.124	4	.537
Authoritative	233.119	4.477	4	.345

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Career1[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C
								Lower
Science	Intercept	-1.778	1.691	1.106	1	.293		
	Authoritative	.064	.044	2.088	1	.148	1.066	
Engineering	Intercept	.738	1.758	.176	1	.675		
	Authoritative	-.018	.047	.147	1	.701	.982	
Social Sci,	Intercept	-1.468	1.913	.589	1	.443		

	Authoritative	.039	.050	.602	1	.438	1.040
Arts	Intercept	-.323	1.574	.042	1	.838	
	Authoritative	.032	.042	.589	1	.443	1.033

a. The reference category is: Artisan.

Classification

Observed	Predicted					
	Science	Engineering	Social Sci,	Arts	Artisan	Percent Correct
Science	5	0	0	47	0	9.6%
Engineering	0	0	0	29	0	0.0%
Social Sci,	1	0	0	26	0	0.0%
Arts	4	1	0	60	0	92.3%
Artisan	3	1	0	23	0	0.0%
Overall Percentage	6.5%	1.0%	0.0%	92.5%	0.0%	32.5%

```
NOMREG Career1 (BASE=LAST ORDER=ASCENDING) WITH Permissive
 /CRITERIA CIN(95) DELTA(0) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(5) CHKSEP(20) LCONVERGE(0) PCONVERGE(0.000001) SINGULAR(0.00000001)
 /MODEL
 /STEPWISE=PIN(.05) POUT(0.1) MINEFFECT(0) RULE(SINGLE) ENTRYMETHOD(LR) REMOVALMETHOD(LR)
 /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
 /PRINT=CLASSTABLE FIT PARAMETER SUMMARY LRT CPS STEP MFI.
```

Nominal Regression

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Career1	Science	52	26.0%

	Engineering	29	14.5%
	Social Sci,	27	13.5%
	Arts	65	32.5%
	Artisan	27	13.5%
Valid		200	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		200	
Subpopulation		30[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 5 (16.7%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	263.406			
Final	257.060	6.346	4	.175

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	110.227	112	.530
Deviance	125.515	112	.181

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.031
Nagelkerke	.033
McFadden	.010

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	268.758	11.698	4	.020
Permissive	263.406	6.346	4	.175

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Career1[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Co
								Lower B
Science	Intercept	2.601	1.419	3.360	1	.067		
	Permissive	-.057	.040	1.974	1	.160	.945	
Engineering	Intercept	.131	1.634	.006	1	.936		
	Permissive	-.002	.046	.001	1	.971	.998	
Social Sci,	Intercept	-.038	1.667	.001	1	.982		
	Permissive	.001	.047	.001	1	.981	1.001	
Arts	Intercept	3.072	1.376	4.986	1	.026		
	Permissive	-.064	.039	2.692	1	.101	.938	

a. The reference category is: Artisan.

Classification

Observed	Predicted					
	Science	Engineering	Social Sci,	Arts	Artisan	Percent Correct
Science	0	0	0	52	0	0.0%
Engineering	0	1	0	28	0	3.4%
Social Sci,	0	0	0	27	0	0.0%
Arts	0	0	0	65	0	100.0%
Artisan	0	0	0	27	0	0.0%
Overall Percentage	0.0%	0.5%	0.0%	99.5%	0.0%	33.0%