CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF UNDERGRADUATE ECONOMIC STUDENTS

by

EMMANUEL RAJUGOPAL GANGIA NAIDOO

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EMMANUEL RAJUGOPAL GANGIA NAIDOO

B.Com., B.Com.(Hons)(UNISA), B.Ed.(UZ), JSED(SCE), M.Ed.(UZ)

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION IN FULFILMENT

OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

IN THE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

DURBAN - UMLAZI CAMPUS

PROMOTER: **PROF G URBANI**

DATE SUBMITTED: **January, 1999**

DECLARATION

CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF UNDERGRADUATE ECONOMICS STUDENTS

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION 1999

I, ***Emmanuel Rajugopal Gangia Naidoo***, do hereby declare that this thesis which is submitted to the University of Zululand for the degree of Doctor of Education has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at any other university, that it represents my own work both in conception and in execution, and that all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete reference.

Signed by me ERGNaidoo on this 3rd day of January, 1999

DEDICATION

This work is humbly dedicated to

my mother, Rita Naidoo, for her vision

that saw me through school,

and to my children,

Vanessa and Valdene Jenise Naidoo.

May this piece of work be a source

of encouragement and inspiration

throughout their lifetime

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to the following people for their tireless support, indispensable help and contribution in the completion of this study.

To my promoter, Professor G Urbani, Senior Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Zululand, who inspired and motivated me with his enthusiasm and dedication, for the many sacrifices he made, his friendship and trust in my abilities. His promptness in marking and giving constructive criticism has been gratefully appreciated.

Special appreciation must be made to the CSD for their contribution to this study in the form of a research grant.

I also wish to extend my thanks to all my students at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus who so willingly, openly and honestly participated in this study by responding to the research questionnaire.

A special 'Thank you' goes to my friend, L Moodley, for being my support, encouragement, typist and editor. I would not have been able to present this study timeously without her help.

My sincerest and heart-felt gratitude goes to my mother, Rita Naidoo, for having provided me with my education amid difficult and trying times, and my daughters, Vanessa and Valdene Jenise, for their patience and encouragement during the long hours of this research. They have remarkably learnt to accept and understand all the strange habits and demands of a researcher.

Lastly, I humbly record my sincere gratitude to Jehova Jirah, the provider of all love, health and perseverance, who gave me the strength and determination to

continue in this rather lonely, yet highly rewarding, road of discovery of educational truths.

E.R.G. NAIDOO

DURBAN

JANUARY, 1999

LANGUAGE EDITING

EXCELLENT DESIGNS, PUBLISHING & EDITING
SUITE 2
WOOD STREET BUILDING
ESCOMBE STREET
PORT SHEPSTONE
4240
Tel: 039-6824 628
Fax: 039-6824 648

15 December 1998

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I have, in my personal capacity, on a freelance basis and given the constraint of a very short period of time, edited the D.Ed. thesis of **Emmanuel Rajugopal Gangia Naidoo** based on a study of **Career aspirations of undergraduate economic students.**

To the best of my knowledge I declare it free from grammatical errors. The changes I have indicated concerning the thesis have been made by the researcher.

JSG Naidoo

Jonathan Naidoo
JSED(SCE) BA (UNISA) BA (Hons)(UNISA) MA(UND)

(Director: Publishing and Editing)

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SUMMARY

Since the emergence of the new democratic dispensation in the South African political arena, promises of more work opportunities, and hence a better life-style for the previously deprived citizens, inundate the media. The financial staff of the Sunday Tribune (February 9, 1997 :1) state that the government has committed itself to a coherent market-oriented economic growth plan in its Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy (Gear). There appears to be tremendous shortages of personnel skilled in the economic sciences and as a result more students have undertaken to study economics so that they may have the necessary qualifications to gain access to these economically-linked careers. By directing this research specifically at the career aspirations of undergraduate economic students, much could possibly be done in teaching, and guiding them toward the realisation of their aspirations.

The aims of this study were:

* To pursue a study of relevant literature on achievement motivation, career choice and the self-concept.
* To undertake an empirical investigation into the career aspirations of a group of undergraduate economic students at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus.
* To provide certain guidelines and recommendations regarding the inclusion of economics in a university curriculum that may help the student realise his career aspirations.

Research with regard to this study was conducted as follows:

* A literature study of available, relevant literature.
* An empirical study comprising self-structured questionnaires completed by 304 undergraduate economic students of the University of Zululand (Durban-Umlazi Campus).

The findings revealed, *inter alia,* that there are more female students engaged in further tertiary education; some students find it difficult to obtain career information; great difficulty is experienced by some students in getting to *'know themselves';* some students are not adequately trained in decision-making skills, and there is a limited number of trained vocational guidance counsellors to help them with career related problems.

In the light of the aims and findings of the study, the following were recommended to tertiary educational institutions: provision of career resource centres; availability of trained vocational and subject advisors; establishment of employment contact offices, and an active mechanism should be set in motion to assist students to '*know themselves'* and to develop their decision-making skills.

This investigation has the following value:

* It provides information on necessary prerequisites to enter economic-related careers.
* The research served as an indicator of the relevance of economics in certain career aspirations.

OPSOMMING

Sedert die ontstaan van die nuwe demokratiese bedeling in die Suid-Afrikaanse politiek, word die media bestook met beloftes van meer werksgeleenthede en dus 'n beter lewenstyl vir die voorheen minder bevooregte burgers. Die finansiele personeel van die Sunday Tribune (Februarie 9, 1997 : 1) verklaar dat die regering hom verbind het tot 'n duidelike mark-georiënteerde ekonomiese groei plan d.m.v. sy Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategie (GEAR). Dit lyk asof daar 'n groot tekort aan personeel is wat bekwaam is in die ekonomiese wetenskappe en daarom het meer studente onderneem om ekonomie te bestudeer sodat hulle die nodige kwalifikasies kan bekom om ekonomie-verwante beroepe te betree. Deur hierdie navorsing spesifiek toe te spits op die beroepsaspirasies van ongegradueerde ekonomie-studente kan baie moontlik gedoen word om hulle te leer en te lei om hulle aspirasies te bereik.

Die doelwitte van hierdie studie is:

* Om toepaslike leesstof oor prestasie motivering, beroepskeuses en selfkonsep te bestudeer.
* Om 'n empiriese ondersoek van die beroepsaspirasies van ongegradueerde ekonomie-studente te onderneem.
* Om sekere riglyne en aanbevelings te voorsien m.b.t. die insluiting van ekonomie in 'n universiteit kurrikulum wat die student kan help om sy beroepsaspirasies te bekom.

Navorsing vir hierdie studie is soos volg gedoen:

* 'n Literatuur studie van beskikbare, toepaslike bronne.
* 'n Empiriese ondersoek wat bestaan uit self-saamgestelde vraelyste wat deur 304 ongegradueerde ekonomie-studente van die Universiteit van Zululand (Durban-Umlazi Kampus) voltooi is.

Die feite bewys dat daar meer dames in tersiëre onderwys is. Sommige studente ondervind probleme om loopbaan informasie te verkry. Groot probleme word deur studente ondervind om hulleself te 'leer ken.' Somige studente is nie goed genoeg onderrig in besluitnemings vaardighede nie. Daar is n beperkte aantal opgeleide beroepsvoorligters om hulle met beroepsverwante probleme te help.

Na aanleiding van die doelstellings en bevindings van die studie, word die volgende aanbeveel vir tersiëre onderwysinstansies: die daarstel van beroepshulpsentrums; die beskikbaarheid van opgeleide beroeps – en vakadviseurs; die instelling van werkskontakkantore; n aktiewe meganisme moet in werking gestel word om studente by te staan 'om hulleself te ken' en om hulle besluitnemingsvaardighede te ontwikkel.

Hierdie ondersoek het die volgende waarde:

* Dit voorsien inligting aangaande die nodige voorvereistes om ekonomie-verwante beroepe te betree.
* Die navorsing dien as 'n aanwyser van die toepaslikheid van ekonomie as vak in sekere beroepsaspirasies.

CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION

CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Garbers (1991 : 32) states that financial problems and unemployment pose a problem for many South Africans. In surveys conducted by the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) in 1985 and 1986, 10% of whites, Indians and coloureds and 32% of urban blacks suffered serious problems from unemployment. Of the whites, Indians and coloureds 39% and 61% of urban blacks experienced severe financial problems. Correct career placement and anticipation of supply and demand of job opportunities can alleviate these problems. Rapid technological development has also led to a diversity of careers as well as an emphasis on specialisation. Well-defined career aspirations and planned career study paths could prepare the individual for meaningful employment.

Naidoo (1997 : 3-4) mentions that South Africa faces massive unemployment. The two major employers are the government and commercial enterprises of the private sector. Owing to restrictive fiscal policies, government has little leeway to create major employment opportunities. Greater emphasis is being placed on the commercial sector to fulfil this need. As a result, more job opportunities will probably emerge from commerce than any other employment sector of the South African economy.

The student is now entrusted with the responsibility of weaving these two fabrics of society i.e. to choose the correct subject package that will enhance his chances of being gainfully employed, and simultaneously making a positive contribution towards the provision of manpower together with the economic development of the country. Many teachers of economics are of the opinion that the importance of economics in any study package cannot be overstated. It is claimed that the majority of careers are impacted upon by an understanding of the principles of economics and that by studying the subject, a student's career opportunities are enhanced. This research is targeted at undergraduate economics students and how they foresee the study of the subject in the realisation of their career aspirations.

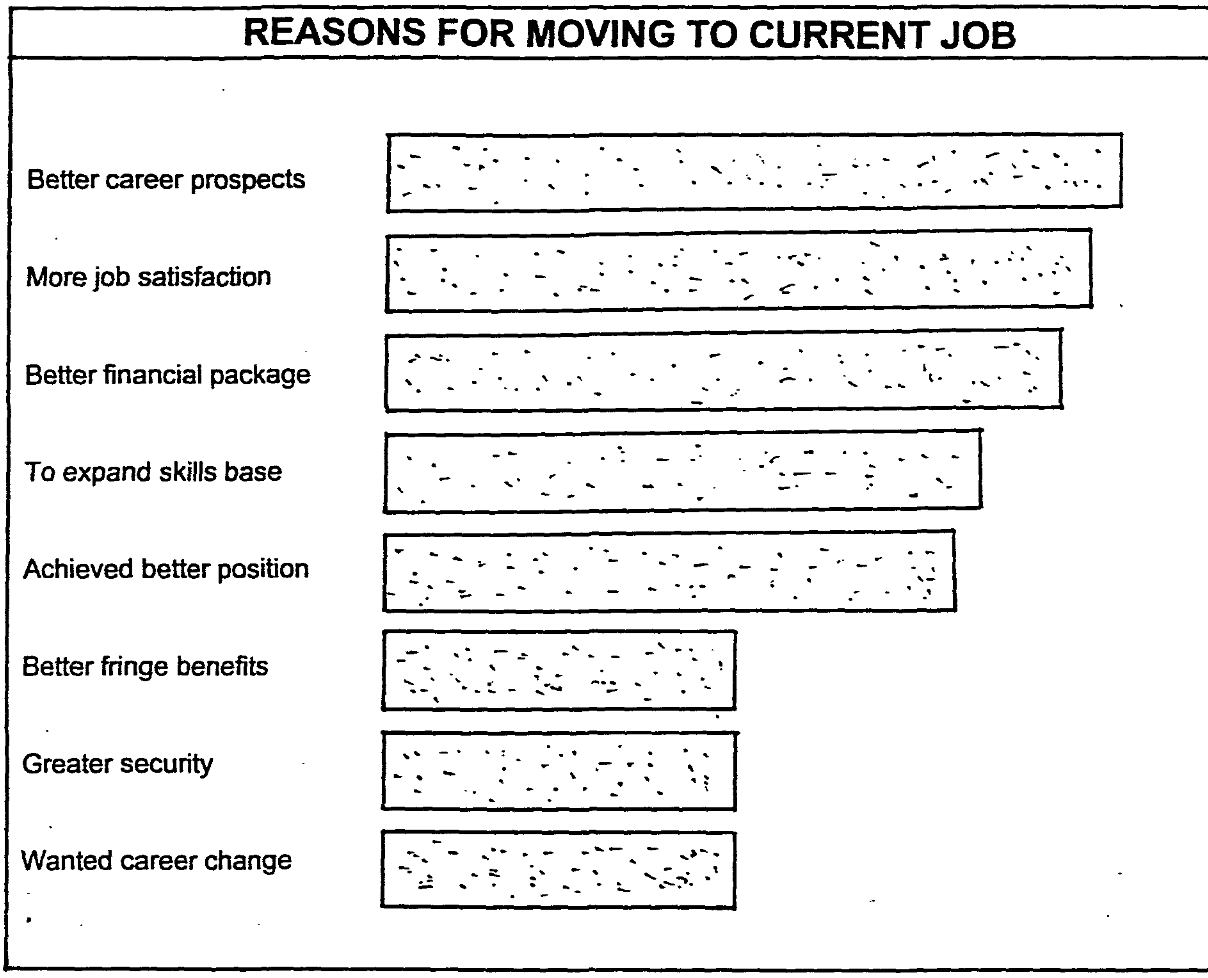
1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Gill (1998 : 1) revealed that a major survey of potential job seekers has found that skilled South African workers are a highly mobile, well-educated and often mercenary set.

The 'Work-in-Life' survey, conducted among readers of the appointments section of Business Times (September 13, 1998 : 1), reveals some home truths about workers' views of their employers and the recruitment industry. It points to high levels of job insecurity in some industries and raises concerns about sexism, racism and ageism in the South African working environment. The study, undertaken in March 1998, received 11 000 responses, 10000 of which were captured and analysed. The key findings were presented to the recruitment industry in Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban. Apart from the alarming number (nearly three quarters of the respondents) of highly skilled South Africans - many of them owners and managers of businesses - considering emigrating because of crime and violence, the survey shows that company loyalty is limited in industries drawing on an increasingly scarce skills base in the country. A large percentage of people over the age of 45 believe that job prospects are limited and feel unhappy about affirmative action in the workplace reducing their career prospects. Most respondents still feel that racism is evident in the workplace. This is most strongly expressed by blacks - who make up 30% of the respondents of the survey. Reflecting a shortage of skills in some industries, nearly 75% of people rate their jobs as very or fairly secure, while the 25% who are insecure about their positions regard retrenchment, industry shrinkage, restructuring and affirmative action as their biggest threats. The most insecurity was evident in education, mining and government.

The above survey, the first of its kind in South Africa, is modelled on one undertaken in Britain by the Daily and Sunday Telegraph (Business Times, September 13, 1998 :1). Of the 85% of respondents who are working, nearly 20% are self-employed, and a further 60% are in professional and management jobs. The survey reveals different attitudes to job seeking between men and women. Men are most likely to move jobs in the interests of better career prospects and financial packages, while women rank job satisfaction and skills expansion as their greatest motivators. More than 60% of the sample had been with the same company for less than five years and over 30% for less than three years. Over 50% of the sample say they will change companies to further their careers.

The findings of the research survey is represented diagrammatically below:



Source : Business Times Work-in-life survey (September 13, 1998 : 1)

Fig. 1

Despite fairly high levels of job satisfaction, 43% of respondents say they plan to look to move to another company in the next two years. The most likely to be looking for a move in the next six months tend to be black (26%), female (21%) and under 34 (28%). But despite an often mercenary slant to the 90's worker, two-thirds of respondents say they will not work for some companies on moral grounds.

Almost half of the respondents feel that males and females will not be equally considered when applying for a position, with women most strongly identifying with the issue. As for financial planning, 76% of the respondents hope to retire before 65, but predictably 57% realise that they have not made sufficient plans to achieve this.

Skills training is an area where South Africa appears to be making some ground, with a high percentage of respondents having developed or gained new skills in the previous 12 months - the highest going to management training at 36%. Benefits were also looked at, and medical aid was the benefit most widely received as part of the employment package (63%), followed by pension (59%), a housing subsidy (29%), a car allowance (27%) and a bonus or incentive scheme (26%) (Business Times, 13 September, 1998 : 1).

The survey also looked at attitudes to recruitment agencies. What emerges is an even balance of positive and negative views. Some respondents are critical of agencies, saying agencies merely put them on a data base and ignore them, but a high percentage of respondents believe agencies are experts, matching applicants to jobs and treating the information supplied confidentially. Respondents say the most important criteria they look for in a recruitment advertisement are the location of the company, name of company, job requirements and experience, job title, remuneration and key performance areas.

With such diverse and varied criticism existing in the employment arena, a study on the career aspirations of undergraduate economic students is a timely and vital field of educational research.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Since the emergence of the new democratic dispensation in the South African political arena, promises of more work opportunities, and hence a better life-style for the previously deprived citizens, inundate the media.

The financial staff of the Sunday Tribune (February 9, 1997 : 1) stated that the government has committed itself to a coherent market-oriented economic growth plan by embarking on its Growth, Employment and Redistribution (Gear) strategy. There appears to be tremendous shortages of personnel skilled in the economic sciences and as a result more students have undertaken to study economics so that they may have the necessary qualifications to gain access to these economically-linked careers. The problem arises: Is the teaching of economics supportive of the career aspirations of undergraduate economic students, and if not, what can be done to make economics a facilitator of their aspirations?

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

Dobie (1981 : 3) claims that there is little uniformity in the terminology generally used in research and that different researchers assigned various meanings to similar concepts and terminology. This results in confusing concepts, causing different bodies to interpret and use such concepts differently. This difference is detrimental to uniformity and singleness of the research in question and hence, certain concepts are subsequently explained to illustrate the context in which they are used in this research study.

1.4.1 Career

Erwee (1986 : 153) states that *career* refers to a course or progress in life or history, an occupation or profession engaged in as a life-work, a way of making a livelihood and advancing oneself. Swannell (1990 : 77) defines *career* as a course through life especially in a profession or occupation.

1.4.2 Aspirations

Sykes (1983 : 51) called *aspirations* 'earnest desires'. However, numerous psychologists agree that the concept *aspirations* may be used synonymously with the concept *motivation*. It is therefore inferred that Robbins (1991 : 192) defines *aspirations* as 'the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need.' Aspiration can be viewed in terms of the intensity and quality of effort directed towards organisational goals. According to Orpen (1981 : 149), aspirations are 'whatever incites or induces an employee to action and gives direction to action once the employee has been aroused.' He further states that aspirations are underpinned by motives which refer to 'the inner states that activate the direct behaviour towards certain goals and are responsible for this goal-seeking behaviour being persistent for at least a certain length of time,' and the goal of the motives are the object, conditions, or activity toward which the motive is directed.

1.4.3 Undergraduate economics students

Undergraduate economics students refer to students who have registered to study economics at 1st, 2nd and 3rd year levels and have not as yet completed their first academic degree. In this research study, the students in question are those who have enrolled for undergraduate levels of economics at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus for the academic years 1997 and 1998.

1.4.4 Achievement motivation

(*cf.* Chapter two)

1.4.5 Self-concept

(*cf.* Chapter four)

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

The overall aim of the study is to draw attention to and initiate debate on the importance of the inclusion of the study of economics in a subject package aimed at creating career opportunities of aspiring students.

The specific aims of the study are:

- To pursue a study of relevant literature on :
  achievement motivation,
  career choice, and
  the self-concept.
- To undertake an empirical investigation into the career aspiration of undergraduate economic students.
- To provide certain guidelines and recommendations regarding the inclusion of economics in university curriculums so that it may assist students in the realisation of their career aspirations.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.6.1 Research methods

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- A literature study of available, relevant literature on achievement motivation, career choice and the self-concept.
- An empirical study comprising self-structured questionnaires to be completed by undergraduate economic students of the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi Campus. A Likert type scaled questionnaire with three response categories; viz. Agree, Uncertain and Disagree, will be constructed. The three response categories will ensure that the respondents' selections fall into one of the categories enabling the measurement of the direction and intensity of their perceptions related to their career aspirations.

1.6.2 Sampling method

All students registered for economics 1, 11 and 111 at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi Campus were selected as respondents. As the sample size was inadequate, it was decided to select all undergraduate economics over a two-year period. The periods under observation were the 1997 and 1998 academic years which resulted in 304 students being chosen as the target sample.

1.6.3 Analysis of data

The primary data will be in the form of a response to one of the three response categories (Agree, Uncertain and Disagree). Scores of the responses to each of the three categories will be calculated (secondary data) by quantifying the number of responses to each response category of the completed questionnaires. The descriptive technique will be employed for the analysis of the data.

1.7 CHAPTER DELIMITATION

Chapter two will provide the conceptual framework regarding achievement motivation. A review of literature relating to career choice and the theories upon which the discussions are based will be discussed in chapter three. Chapter four will be based on the exposition of the self-concept. The planning of the research will be described in chapter five. Research methodology and research issues will be clarified in this chapter. Chapter six will present the data which involves analysis of the data from the empirical study through questionnaires. A summary, findings and recommendations will be given in chapter seven.

CHAPTER TWO

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

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CHAPTER TWO

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The central aim of this chapter is to provide an analysis of the literature available on achievement motivation. It is also to determine whether the respondents' achievement motivation has a determining effect on their occupational choice or mobility. If the respondent has lower levels of achievement motivation to those he competes against for occupational procurement, this achievement motivation may function as a barrier to any progress or change in occupational status.

Achievement motivation is a special type of motivation. In order to discuss achievement motivation, it is necessary to begin by considering the nature of motivation (McGough, 1995 : 102). This will be done by focusing on both process and content theories of motivation. Thereafter, the nature of achievement will be discussed. Once this essential background has been established, the achievement motivation construct itself will be considered, and various theories will be presented in terms of which the construct can be viewed.

In keeping with the new dispensation in South Africa, gender issues in terms of achievement motivation will then be discussed including a comparison between the achievement motivation of males and females. Occupational level issues on achievement motivation will be discussed thereafter. This will involve a consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees.

From the literature discussion, it will be shown that traditional males have higher levels of achievement motivation than females and that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial personnel. It will also be evident that managerial women have levels of achievement motivation which are similar to those of males and higher than those of non-managerial or clerical women. It is argued that managerial women have adapted to the culture of male-dominated organisations which is at least partially responsible for these women breaking though the 'glass ceiling' into management positions (McGough, 1995 : 103).

2.2 THE NATURE OF MOTIVATION

Robbins (1991 : 192) defines motivation as 'the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need.' Motivation can be viewed in terms of the intensity and quality of effort directed towards organisational goals. According to Orpen (1981 : 149), motivation is 'whatever incites or induces an employee to action and gives direction to action once the employee has been aroused.'

Orpen identifies three basic aspects of motivated behaviour: an activational aspect, a directional aspect and a persistence aspect. The activational aspect refers to the tendency for motives to produce a 'state of readiness for behaviour', the directional aspect refers to the tendency for motives to set off behaviour on a particular path, and the persistence aspect refers to the tendency of motives to differ in their force and power (Orpen, 1981 : 149).

Motives refer to 'the inner states that activate the direct behaviour towards certain goals and are responsible for this goal-seeking behaviour being persisted with for at least a certain length of time', and the goal of motives are the object, conditions, or activity toward which the motive is directed (Orpen, 1981 : 149).

According to Robbins (1991 : 191), motivation is a need-satisfying process. This is a confirmation of Erikson (1965 : 242) definition of motivation as 'a psychologically determined need or drive, the satisfaction of which will enable the individual to move towards a state of equilibrium, which will be gratifying to his well-being.' A need is 'some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive' (Robbins, 1991 : 192). An unsatisfied need leads to tension which stimulates drives within the individual towards search behaviour in order to satisfy the need and reduce the tension. Tension-reduction effort must be exerted according to the intensity of the need and must be in accordance with organisational goals.

There are essentially two theories of motivation, namely, process and content. Process theories aim to explain how 'behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped', while content theories seek to find 'the specific things within individuals which initiate, direct, sustain and stop behaviour' (Landy & Trumbo, 1976 : 296). These will be considered here briefly, but the focus will be on content theories as the achievement motivation theory falls into this category.

2.2.1 Five Process Theories of Motivation

The process theories of motivation which include the theories of Deci, Locke, Skinner, Adams and Vroom will be discussed below.

(1) Deci : *Cognitive Evaluation Theory*

Cognitive evaluation theory, developed by Deci, maintains that the overall level of motivation is decreased by the allocation of extrinsic rewards for behaviour that has been previously intrinsically motivated (Robbins, 1991 : 192). This change is possibly caused by a loss of control by the individual over his or her behaviour which results in a decrease in intrinsic motivation.

De Charms (1968) distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to 'an internal state resulting from knowledge of having accomplished something by individual effort, whereas extrinsic motivation refers to an internal state brought about by the occurrence of external rewards' (Scott, 1975 : 119).

Boal and Cummings (1981 : 288) set out the three propositions of Deci's cognitive evaluation theory.

These are as follows (Deci, 1975 : 139-143):

- 'One process by which intrinsic motivation can be affected is a change in perceived locus of causality from internal to external. This will cause a decrease in intrinsic motivation, and will occur under certain circumstances when someone receives extrinsic rewards for engaging in intrinsically motivated activities.

- The second process by which intrinsic motivation can be affected is a change in feelings of competence and self-determinations. If a person's feelings of competence and self-determination are diminished, his intrinsic motivation will decrease.

- Every reward (including feedback) has two aspects, a controlling aspect and an informational aspect, which provide the recipient with information about his competence and self-determination. The relative salience of the two aspects determines which process will be operative. If the controlling aspect is more salient, it will initiate the change in perceived locus of causality process. If the informational aspect is more salient, the change in feelings of competence and self-determination process will be initiated.'

(2) Locke : Goal-setting Theory

Locke (1968) developed a theory known as goal-setting theory in terms of which he emphasised the role of cognitive processes and intentional behaviour in motivation (Landy & Trumbo, 1976 : 298). Locke advocated that task performance is affected by goals (Argyle, 1989), and stated that specific and difficult goals result in higher performance (Robbins, 1991: 192). Wexley and Yukl (1977 : 94) propose that goal theory 'explains behaviour in terms of the influence of conscious goals and interventions.'

Locke (1970) focused on four main categories of motivation: money, goal-setting, participation and job-enrichment (Smith, Beck, Cooper, Cox, Ottaway & Talbot, 1982 : 56). Money was found to be the most effective motivator, then goal-setting, while job-enrichment was the most difficult. Participation in goal-setting means that individuals are more likely to accept even difficult goals more readily than if they are merely given a goal (Robbins, 1991: 192). Argyle (1989 : 43) refers to a study by Tubbs (1986) which found that goal-setting was most effective in improving performance when specific goals and difficult goals were set, and feedback was given. Feedback is beneficial as it guides future behaviour, and self-generated feedback is a stronger motivator than externally-generated feedback (Robbins, 1991 : 193).

(3) Skinner : Reinforcement Theory

Skinner's reinforcement theory forms part of the behaviourist tradition which holds that reinforcement conditions behaviour. The premise of this theory is essentially that 'behaviour depends on contingent reinforcement' (Landy & Trumbo, 1976 : 311), and Skinner believes that everything related to an individual can be understood in terms of behaviour (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1981 : 28). The focus here is not on the inner state of a person and what initiates behaviour, but on what happens to a person once action is taken. Despite the fact that this is not a true theory of motivation, it is included here as it provides a framework for analysing what controls behaviour.

According to Landy and Trumbo (1976 : 312), reinforcement theory holds that people are shaped or manipulated by the environment. Robbins (1991 : 194) criticises the theory for this sole focus on the role of the environment to the neglect of internal factors such as feelings, attitudes, expectations, and other cognitive variables which also effect behaviour.

(4) Adams : Equity Theory

Stacey Adams (1965) developed what is known as equity theory which is based on the assumption that equity is an important construct in people's thoughts (Smith *et al.*, 1982 : 57). Equity theory is a type of balance theory which is based on the premise that 'behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained by the attempts of the individual to maintain some internal balance of psychological tension' (Landy & Trumbo, 1976 : 316).

Essentially, the theory holds that in particular situations people balance their output (what they contribute or put into the situation) and their input (what they receive from the situation), and then compare the result with that of other people in similar situations. Thus, individuals establish a ratio of inputs to outputs, and then compare the value of their ratio to that of significant others. Individuals are not so concerned with absolute rewards, as with rewards relative to others.

Perceived equity of ratios results in satisfaction, but if inequality is perceived, this produces tension (Landy & Trumbo, 1976 : 317). According to Smith *et al.* (1982 : 58), inequitable comparisons result in altered behaviour to reduce tension and bring about balance or equity. Robbins contends that when inequity exists in an organisational setting, people try to correct it according to one of four referent comparisons (Robbins, 1991 : 212):

- 'Self-inside: an employee's experience in a different position inside his/her current organisation,

- Self-outside: an employee's experience in a situation or position outside his/her current organisation,
- Other-inside: another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organisation, or,
- Other-outside: outside the employee's organisation.'

Equity theory holds that there are six choices available to an employee who perceives an inequality. These are: (i) change the input; (ii) change the output; (iii) distort perceptions of self; (iv) distort perceptions of others; (v) choose a different referent; and (vi) leave the field (Robbins, 1991 : 213).

(5) Vroom : Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory is a type of instrumentality theory in terms of which a person is motivated to engage in an activity if the activity is instrumental in achieving some outcome which is valued by the individual. Vroom (1964), who developed expectancy theory, defines motivation as 'a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity' (Crane, 1979 : 61). According to Wexley and Yukl (1977 : 94), expectancy theory 'explains behaviour in terms of conscious choices among alternative actions or levels of effort.'

According to Porter *et al.* (1981), the essence of Vroom's model is that the motivational force to engage in a behaviour is the multiplicative function of two factors, namely, the expectancies held by the person concerning the likely outcomes of the behaviour, and the valence of these outcomes. This can be stated as an equation (Porter *et al*, 1981 : 29):

$MF = E \times V$,

where:

MF = motivational forces,

E = expectancy, and,

V = valence.

Robbins (1991 : 214) defines *expectancy theory* as 'the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual.'

He asserts that the theory includes three variables:

- Attractiveness: the importance of the potential outcome or reward to the individual,
- Performance-reward linkage: the extent to which the individual believes that a certain level of performance will result in the attainment of the desired outcome, and
- Effort-performance linkage: the extent to which the individual expects effort-exertion to result in performance.

The above explanations of expectancy theory can be described as Vroom's VIE theory (Landy & Trumbo, 1976). The letters stand for 'valence', 'instrumentality', and 'expectancy' respectively. Valence describes the attracting or repelling capabilities of psychological objects, instrumentality means that the person evaluates a potential outcome in terms of his perception of the relationship between the outcome and other outcomes for which he has varying preferences or valences, and expectancy is the probability estimate of the relationship between an action and an outcome (Landy & Trumbo, 1976 : 318).

2.2.2 Five Content Theories of Motivation

The content theories of motivation which include the theories of Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, Alderfer and McClelland will be discussed here.

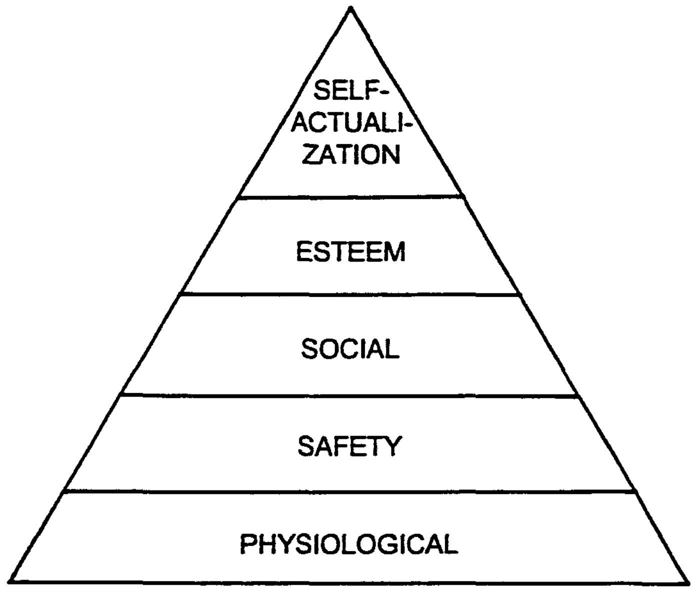
(1) Maslow : Five-level Need Hierarchy

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs is probably the most well known theory of motivation. According to this theory, each individual has a hierarchy of needs which are sequentially satisfied. These needs are (Robbins, 1991 : 193):

- Physiological: bodily needs e.g. hunger, thirst, shelter and sex
- Safety: physical and emotional needs e.g. security and protection
- Social: belongingness needs e.g. affection, acceptance and friendship
- Esteem: internal and external esteem needs e.g. self-respect, achievement and autonomy; and status, recognition and attention respectively
- Self-actualisation: defined as 'the drive to become what one is capable of becoming includes growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfilment.

These needs can be illustrated diagrammatically in hierarchical form as follows:

Figure 2 Maslow's hierarchy of needs



(Source: Nasser, Van Veijeren, Venter & Schmikl. 1977. Organisational Behaviour: Reading for Management. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill Co. p.29).

Once one need is substantially satisfied, it no longer has motivating power and the next need becomes dominant. In this way a satisfied need generates movement up the need hierarchy. Maslow differentiated between lower and higher-order needs: the former refers to physiological and safety needs which are mainly externally satisfied, while the later refers to social, esteem and self-actualisation which are internally satisfied.

Maslow (1970 : 382) refers to self-actualisation as 'the desire for self-fulfilment', namely, as the tendency for one to become actualised in what one is potentially. 'This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything one is capable of becoming' (Porter *et al.*, 1981 : 35). Maslow states that all needs, except the self-actualisation need, are basic needs as they are 'shared values' which all men experience, while self-actualisation is 'idiosyncratic since every person is different' (Huiziga, 1970 : 37). Despite this statement, however, Maslow identified six characteristics of self-actualising individuals. These are resolution of dichotomies, creativeness, more efficient perception of reality, problem centring, democratic character structure and 'gemeinschafsgefuhl' or being 'at on' with the world (Huiziga, 1970 : 39-45).

Neher (1991: 90-91) sets out Maslow's theory in four points:

- Each of us is endowed at birth with a full and, to an important extent, unique complement of needs that, allowed expression by our environment, will guide our growth in a healthy direction.
- These needs function in an hierarchical manner. The bottom step of Maslow's hierarchy, or pyramid, includes physiological needs. Then comes safety needs; next, needs for love and intimacy; then self-esteem needs; and finally, at the apex of the pyramid, self-actualisation. By hierarchy is meant that needs lower on the pyramid must generally be satisfied before needs at higher levels are 'activated.'
- Needs on the first four levels are called deficiency-needs (or D-needs) because they drive (one) to gratify the need, at which point the need lapses in its importance to (one) until deprivation again motivates (one) to take action to satisfy the need. Self-actualisation needs (on the fifth and higher level), on the other hand, are called being-needs (or B-needs) because, among other unique features, they sustain (one's) interest without (one) being

driven.by feelings of deprivation.

- The level of self-actualisation, the end-point of the process outlined above, constitutes the highest level of human experience.

(2) McGregor : Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X and theory Y are two contrasting views of human beings proposed by Douglas McGregor. Both of these theories contain assumptions as to the nature of human beings. According to theory X, which is essentially negative, managers make four assumptions, namely (Robbins, 1991 : 195):

- 'Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it,
- Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- Employees will shirk responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible, and,
- Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.'

Theory Y, however, is essentially positive and the assumptions it makes are as follows (Robbins, 1991 : 196):

- 'Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play,
- People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives,
- The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility, and,

- The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.'

Maslow's theory can be used to explain the motivational implications of this analysis. Theory X and theory Y assume that lower-order and higher-order needs respectively, dominate individuals. Although McGregor believes that theory Y has greater validity than theory X, there is no empirical evidence to support the assumptions of either theory or the correctness of theory Y over theory X.

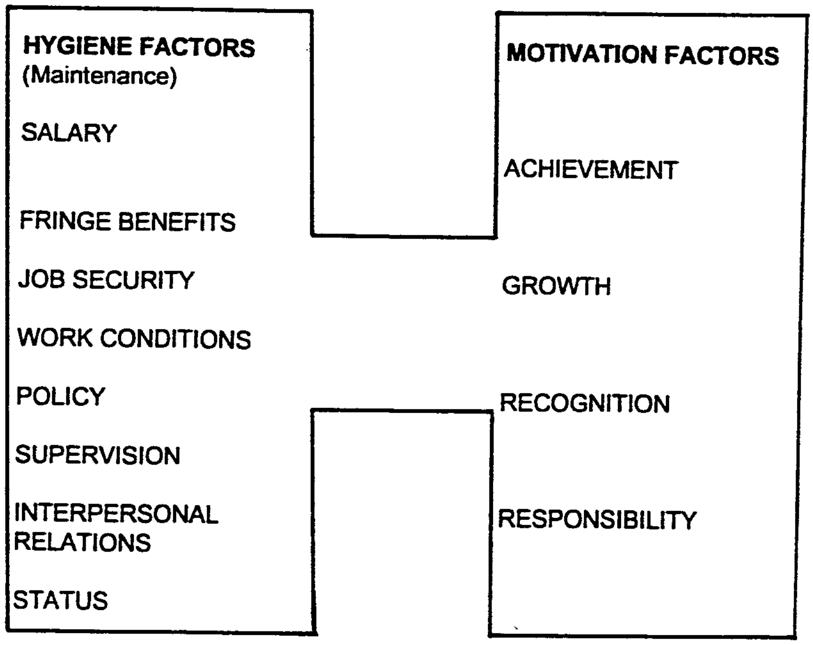
(3) <u>Herzberg : Motivation-Hygiene Theory</u>

Frederick Hertzberg proposed a fairly popular theory which is known as motivation-hygiene theory. According to this theory, if certain job factors, called hygiene factors, are present in a job, this will prevent the employees from being dissatisfied. Their absence results in dissatisfaction, while their presence does not lead to satisfaction or motivation.

Hygiene factors are external factors such as salary, company policy and supervision. Other factors, known as motivation factors, will lead to job satisfaction if present, while they are absent, they do not result in dissatisfaction, but merely no satisfaction. Motivating factors which are related to job satisfaction are intrinsic in nature.

Thus, 'the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction, and the opposite of dissatisfaction, is no dissatisfaction' (Robbins, 1991 : 196). This theory can be illustrated diagrammatically:

Figure 3 The Herzberg two factor model



(Source: Nasser et al.. 1977. Organisational Behaviour: Readings for Management. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill Co. p.31).

Orpen (1981 : 153) sets out the main features of Herzberg's theory. He insists that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction lie on different continua which range from feelings of neutrality to feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively. Job satisfaction arises from content or intrinsic work factors called motivators which are related to the nature of the work itself. They are able to generate satisfaction as they have the capacity to gratify higher-order needs. They do not, however, effect job dissatisfaction.

Job dissatisfaction is generated by content or extrinsic work factors, called hygiene factors which relate to the environment within which the work occurs and can neutralise dissatisfiers, but have no effect on job satisfaction. Hygiene needs are maintenance needs associated with the avoidance of pain and discomfort, while the motivator needs are linked to the desire to accomplish and be recognised, to develop and grow.

(4) Alderfer : ERG Theory

ERG theory, developed by Clayton Alderfer, is a revision of Maslow's need hierarchy. Robbins (1991 : 97) regards it as having greater validity than other versions of the need hierarchy, such as that of Maslow. Instead of five needs, he identifies three groups of core needs, namely, existence, relatedness and growth (ERG). According to McCormick and Ilgen (1981 : 267), ERG theory is 'the most promising version of the need hierarchy theory available at this time.'

Existence needs refer to the basic material requirements for existence, and include Maslow's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs refer to the social and status desires to maintain interpersonal relationships which are of importance to us. These include Maslow's social needs and the external component of his esteem category. Growth needs refer to an intrinsic desire for personal development and include the intrinsic component of Maslow's esteem classification, and self-actualisation characteristics. According to this theory, once lower-order needs are satisfied, the desire to satisfy higher-order needs arises. The theory recognises the fact that individual differences affect the emphasis which different individuals place on different needs (Robbins, 1991 : 198).

McCormick and Ilgen (1981 : 268) identified a number of improvements of ERG theory over Maslow's theory. Firstly, there is not as much emphasis on hierarchical order. Thus, multiple needs can function as motivators simultaneously, and satisfaction of a need does not necessarily mean upward progression. Secondly, regression to a lower-level need may occur as a result of frustration in trying to satisfaction higher-level needs. Certain needs may increase in strength when individuals have high conditions to meet the need.

(5) McClelland : Three Needs Theory

David McClelland proposes a three needs theory which views motivation in terms of three needs : the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation. Robbins (1991 : 200-201) defines the need for achievement as 'the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed', the power need as 'the desire to make others behave in a way that they would not otherwise have behaved', and the affiliation need as 'the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.'

The need for achievement (n Ach) refers to the desire to do something better than it has previously been done. People high on the need enjoy problem-solving and require feedback as to their performance. They tend to set goals which have an equal probability of success or failure, and avoid very easy and very difficult tasks. Thus they are prepared to take calculated risks, and accept responsibility for any success or failure which results. The desire to influence and control others is characteristic of the need for power (n Pow). Competition, status and prestige are concerns of people high in need for power (n Pow). The need for affiliation (n Aff) refers to the desire for acceptance by people, friendship, preference of co-operative situations over competitive ones, and preference for relationships with much mutual understanding (Nasser, 1984 : 106).

Robbins argues that fairly well-supported predictions can be based on the achievement need and job performance relationships.

This can be seen in various ways (Robbins , 1991 : 201) :

- People with a high n Ach show preference for jobs where they can exercise personal responsibility, obtain feedback and take calculated risks. Where these job characteristics are present, high achievers show motivation.
- People high in n Ach are concerned with personal excellence and not influencing others, and thus are not necessarily good managers.
- Managerial success occurs when an individual has a high n Pow and low n Aff.
- Training can stimulate the n Ach.

2.3 THE NATURE OF ACHIEVEMENT

The nature of motivation has been discussed above. As the focus of this chapter is on achievement motivation, it is necessary to also consider the nature of achievement. This is the topic of the following discussion.

2.3.1 The definition of Achievement

According to Smith (1969), achievement is 'task-oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion, that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence' (quoted in Spence, 1982 : 12). Spence (1982 : 13-15) highlights a number of benefits of using this definition. These will be considered here.

This definition includes both activities in the workplace, in school or in other formal training programs, and activities in a vocational and extracurricular contexts such as hobbies. Further, the individual's performance may be designated to be evaluated according to a particular standard of excellence and the standard specified either by him/herself or by an external agency.

The latter situation, where a standard is externally set, is common in the conventional areas where individuals are expected to perform according to some set standard and where rewards, both tangible and intangible, are established to encourage this performance. Although individuals are usually aware of the expectations on them to perform, they may not achieve, either their achievement is low, or because the activities they are expected to perform do not arouse their achievement motivation.

It is possible, however, to express achievement motivation in unconventional areas such as hobbies, and although there are no established performance standards and no obvious feedback from external sources, individuals are able to establish standards themselves and perform their own evaluations. Thus, the above definition chosen by Spence (1982 : 16) for her book entitled *Achievement and Achievement Motives,* is also selected for this thesis.

2.3.2 Types of Achievement-related Motives

According to Weiner (1990 : 617), studies of achievement motives are of central focus among contemporary motivation theorists. Achievement-related motives and goals can be divided into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. According to Spence (1982 : 27), 'intrinsic motivation implies that performance is self-initiated, self-sustained and self-rewarding: whereas extrinsic motivation implies that performance is externally driven...'

Achievement motivation has traditionally been considered to be an intrinsic form of motivation and thus the focus of this study of achievement motivation will concern intrinsic motivation. According to Deci (1975 : 145), there are two sources of intrinsic motivation, namely, White's (1959) notion of competence motivation and De Charm's (1968) notion of personal causation.

2.4 INTRINSIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Having considered both the nature of motivation and the nature of achievement, it is now imperative that the achievement motivation construct itself be discussed. This discussion begins with a consideration of the various theories of achievement, namely that of Murray, McClelland and Atkinson, and then the dynamic achievement motivation theory and the attributional theory of achievement motivation are discussed.

2.4.1 Henry Murray

Henry Murray was a key figure in research on achievement motivation and in the development of achievement theory. The essence of his theory of behaviour was the concept of 'need' which he defined as 'an organic potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under given conditions' or 'a latent attribute of an organism' (Weiner, 1972 : 170). Murray showed an interest in personality description. He viewed a person as 'an entity with a particular conjunction of distinguishable properties' and believed that each person was subject to an extensive number of needs which are derived from a physiological deficiency and yet are also enduring personality traits.

Included in his taxonomy of needs is the need for achievement. Murray describes this as 'the desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well as possible...to accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate and organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas.... To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard. To excel one's self. To rival and surpass others' (Spence, 1982 : 30). Weiner (1980 : 180) includes in this quote 'To increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent'.

Murray proposed a 'multiform' method of personality assessment whereby evaluations of an individual are made from a variety of theoretical viewpoints and by means of various techniques. The psychoanalytic school influenced Murray's conception of needs as mostly unconscious, and this led him to the development of what is known as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) towards need assessment.

Murray is regarded as the originator of the Thematic Apperception Test or TAT. This method of assessing needs involves a series of ambiguous pictures of one or more people about whom the respondent must write or relate a story. Murray states that 'the purpose of this procedure is to stimulate literary creativity and thereby evoke fantasies that reveal covert and unconscious complexes' (Spence, 1982 : 172). The TAT is regarded as the most extensively used instrument for the assessment of personality. David McClelland and John Atkinson have utilised this method for measuring the need for achievement or achievement motivation.

2.4.2 McClelland's Theory of Achievement Motivation

McClelland's theory of motivation is essentially concerned with predicting the behaviour of those who have either high or low needs for achievement (McCormick & Ilgen, 1981 : 28). According to McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1976 : 28), a motive is defined as 'the re-integration (previous learning) by a cue of a change in an affective situation.' McClelland (1985) defines motives as "non-conscious needs, wants, drives or 'recurrent concerns about goal states ...' (which) energise, orient and select behaviour ...they make one active in pursuing a goal, sensitive to cues relating to goals and quick to learn what is necessary to reach a goal" (Biernat, 1989 : 70).

McClelland (1980) also states that motives predict 'operant' behaviour as opposed to 'respondent' behaviour (Biernat, 1989 : 71). The former refers to people's spontaneous actions or behaviour, while the latter refers to people's cognitive decisions as to what should be done (Biernat, 1989 : 72).

According to Piedmont, DiPlacidon and Keller (1989 : 229), the TAT has traditionally been regarded as the best method of assessing operant processes, while self-report measures measure the respondent aspects of motivation.

In contrast to the three previous models, namely, the survival model proposed by Hull (1943) which considers motives as biologically defined survival needs, the stimulus intensity model of Miller and Dollard (1941) and the stimulus pattern model by Hebb (1949) and Brown and Farber (1951), McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1976) developed what is known as the effective arousal model (McClelland *et al.*, 1976 : 73).

This model differs from the other models as the drive conception is expanded to include behaviour undertaken for pleasure and not merely to avoid undesirable conditions. Further, motives, besides giving energy to behaviour, direct and guide individuals to achieve specific goals or end states. Another difference is that this model regards all motives as learned and even biological discomforts (hunger) or pleasure (sex) are only regarded as 'drives' once they are linked to cues which signal its presence or absence. Affective experiences then give rise to motives or 'affectively toned associative networks' which are arranged hierarchically according to the importance a person attributes to it (McClelland, 1965 : 321).

McClelland differentiates clearly between motives and values and between needs and values. In a study by Biernat (1989), it was established that motives and values are uncorrelated and are instead distinct, independent personality constructs. Values and motives predict different kinds of behaviour : motives predict 'operant' (spontaneous) behaviour and values predict 'respondent' (stimulus driven) behaviours. Finally, with regards to the interaction of these two constructs, it was found that subjects with high achievement values would perform better than those with low values, but only when their motives were also high. The study also found that each construct was useful in different cases : motives aided the prediction of 'real' activity and values served to predict self-report (thinking) responses.

A previous study by Ravan (1988) focuses on the importance McClelland placed on distinguishing between needs and values, and also between operant and respondent measures. Ravan (1988 : 281) proposes that other researchers have not been able to achieve the same results as he has. This is not because of their measurement of values instead of motives, or the use of respondent (instead of operant) measures, but rather, he claims it is due to a failure to understand that McCleland measured needs as indices of important competencies which people use to achieve valued goals. The indices were value based, and the scores required the summing of independent predictors of performance. Thus, the study presents a new understanding of psychometric principles that form the basis of McClelland's measures and this indicates the way in which the measures of needs can be developed, and provides a new approach to the development of indices of many important qualities.

An aspect of study conducted by Berndt and Miller (1990) focused on whether values affect achievement motivation. Using subjects from junior high school, these researchers set out to determine whether students' motivation to achieve in schools was dependent on the value they attached to success. Berndt and Miller (1990 : 319) found that values were distinct indicators *of achievement motivation.* This finding was supported by Platt (1988), who found that values were significantly related to achievement, and also by Eccles, Adler and Meece (1984) (Berndt & Miller, 1990 : 320). Berndt and Miller (1990) maintain that theorists need to focus on values in order to optimise the effectiveness of practical interventions to increase achievement motivation.

(1) Definition of Achievement Motivation

The achievement motive, also referred to as the need for achievement, is defined by Weiner (1972 : 175) as 'the positive *or negative anticipatory goal reactions aroused in situations that* involve competition with a standard of excellence, where performance may be evaluated as success or failure.' According to Korman (1977 : 53), the achievement motive is defined by McClelland (1961) as the 'desire to exceed some standard of behaviour.' In a journal article entitled *The Urge to Achieve*, McClelland asserts that it is the achievement motive which makes a person desire improvement in conduct and behaviour. He identifies three characteristics which are present in an achievement-motivated person (Kelly, 1974 : 283):

- They 'set moderately difficult, but potentially achievable goals for themselves.'
- They 'prefer to work at a problem rather than to leave the outcome to chance or to others.' That is, 'they are concerned with personal achievement rather than with the rewards for success *per se*.'
- They have 'a strong preference for work situations in which they get concrete feedback on how well they are doing.'

(2) Measurement and Assessment of Achievement Motivation

McClelland *et al.* (1953) made use of Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) which measures fantasy in order to measure achievement motivation (McClelland *et al.*, 1976 : 131).

This projective technique is necessary since motive strength cannot be directly stated because motives are non-conscious. According to McClelland (1985), projective motives such as TAT 'capture underlying, non-conscious motivational levels which are associated not so much with particular behaviours as with the direction one's life takes' (Biernat, 1989 : 70).

Biernat (1989) states that the TAT prevents conscious shaping of thoughts by subjects to meet expected desires, and renders the subject 'naively unconscious of himself and the scrutiny of others and, therefore, defensively less vigilant' (Biernat, 1989 : 71). In terms of their affective arousal model, attempts were made to experimentally alter the content of fantasy to assess individual differences in the strength of the achievement motive.

The pictures used for the TAT were especially chosen for their capacity to evoke imagery relating to achievement. McClelland *et al.* (1953) identified three imagery categories into which stories are placed according to achievement motivation content of the story (quoted in McClelland *et al.*, 1976 : 132). These are 1) achievement imagery 2) doubtful achievement imagery, and 3) unrelated imagery. To obtain an achievement motivation score (an Ach score), a subject's fantasies, as displayed in the story written or told about the given pictures, must be coded, and the strength of the achievement motive is measured by counting the number of associations which belong to this motive or '*affectively toned associative cluster*' (McClelland, 1965 : 322). According to Sorrentino and Higgins (1986), 'the projective measure of n- achievement continues to be the best predictor of actual performance in achievement-oriented activity' (Biernat, 1989 : 72).

Heinzen, Teevan and Britt (1988 : 443), in a study aimed at determining the correlation between achievement, dominance and creativity, utilised the TAT for the measurement of achievement motivation. The results from the TAT (which measures achievement in fantasy), however, did not correspond with those of the Adjective Check List, which is a self-descriptive mechanism, and it is clear that these instruments measure different processes. This finding shows that the TAT is able to identify underlying motives which cannot be discovered using other available methods such as self-report methods.

A study conducted by Koestner, Ramey, Kelner, Meenan and McClelland (1989 : 21) made use of the TAT for the measurement and assessment of achievement motivation. Both adults suffering from osteoarthritic and rheumatoid arthritis and a control group of non-arthritics were given the TAT, and when their imaginative stories were coded, the achievement motivation levels of the arthritics were lower than that of the controls. Self-report measures of achievement motivation, however, showed no differences between the experimental and the control groups. The results indicated that the TAT can reveal underlying motivational levels such as the achievement motivational deficit of the arthritic adults in the above study.

(3) Sources of Achievement Motivation

McCleland (1965 : 143) identifies various sources of achievement motivation. He claims that it is essentially the values and resultant child-rearing practices of the parents that are responsible for the development or lack of development of achievement motivation. McClelland (1965) refers to a study by Winterbottom (1958) in the USA where it was found that high achievement motivation is promoted by early mastery training provided this is not a reflection of generalised restrictiveness, authoritarianism or rejection on the part of the parents. Thus achievement-orientated values and child-rearing practices are essential to the development of achievement motivation.

McClelland (1965) also identifies four indirect influences on achievement motivation, namely, physique, the family structure, the economy, occupational status, and physical environment or climate. A study by McClelland and Winter (1969), however, found that achievement motivation can be learnt, and is not solely dependent on one's socialisation (quoted in McCormick & Ilgen, 1981 : 267)

2.4.3 Expectancy - Value Theory : Atkinson

Atkinson and Rietman (1956 : 361) define a motive as 'a latent disposition to strive for a particular goal-state or aim, achievement, affiliation, power.' Motivation is then described as 'the aroused state of the person that exists when a motive has been engaged by the appropriate expectancy, i.e. an expectancy that performance of some act is instrumental in the attainment of the goal of that motive.

Atkinson (1957 : 359) proposed a theory of achievement motivation known as expectancy - value theory which is based on the understanding of achievement motives as stable characteristics of personality. In order to understand motivational processes, Atkinson stresses that individual differences must be considered. The results of the study by Harackiewicz and Elliot (Spence, 1982 : 31) showed that individual differences in achievement orientation moderate the influence of achievement goals on intrinsic motivation.

The theory holds that the sum of two opposing tendencies determines the strength of an achievement motive, or the tendency to achieve (TA), aroused in an achievement-oriented situation. These tendencies are set out by Spence (1982 : 32) and are:

- The tendency to approach success (T_S), which is manifested by engaging in achievement oriented activities.
- The tendency to avoid failure (T_{AF}), which is manifested by not engaging in these tendencies'.

There are three components which determine the strength of these opposing tendencies (Spence, 1982 : 32):

- The motive to approach success (M_S) or the motive to avoid failure (M_F)
- The expectancy (probability) that an achievement-oriented act will result in success (P_S) or the probability that it will result in failure (P_F)
- The incentive value of success (I_S) or the incentive value of failure (I_F)

Thus both positive and negative affective anticipation's result from achievement-related activities: the former as a result of past achievements and resultant pride, and the latter from previous failures and resultant shame.

Component 1: The motive to approach success and the motive to approach failure.

This component essentially refers to the need for achievement, defined by Atkinson (1964) as a 'capacity to experience pride in accomplishment,' and the fear of failure described as a 'capacity to experience shame given non-attainment of a goal (failure)' (Weiner, 1980 : 194). The TAT is usually used to measure the motive to approach success, which is an individual difference variable. The motive to avoid failure or fear of failure is usually measured by objective self-report instruments, namely, the Mandler-Sarason Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) (Spence, 1982) or the Alpert-Haber Debilitating Anxiety Scale (Spence, 1982). M_S was measured by a projective instrument, while M_{AF} was measured by an objective self-report method leading to results which cannot be compared.

Heckhausen (1967) successfully attempted to assess fear of failure with a projective instrument, and Mehrabian (1968) attempted to measure the achievement need with an objective measure which was also successful (Mehrabian, 1968 : 493). Mehrabian constructed scales designed to distinguish high achievers, defined as those with a stronger motive to achieve success than to avoid failure, from low achievers, defined as those who have a stronger motive to avoid failure than to achieve success.

Moot, Teevan and Greenfeld (1988 : 459) conducted a study aimed at assessing the effect of the strength of the achievement motive (n Ach) and the strength of the fear-of-failure motive (FF) on recall of interrupted and completed tasks using the Hostile Press scoring system.

It was found that individuals high in n Ach (low on fear-of-failure) recalled more uncompleted tasks than low or mid-n Ach subjects (high on fear-of-failure). This study was a partial replication of Atkinson's (1953) study and the results paralleled those obtained by him.

The results also supported Zeigarnik's (1938) findings that recall of interrupted tasks is better than recall of completed tasks for motivated subjects, while unmotivated subjects tend to remember completed tasks more than interrupted tasks as this enabled them to avoid the negative feelings associated with failure (Atkinson, 1953 : 381).

Component 2: The expectancy or the probability of success and the expectancy of failure.

The expectancy or probability that success or failure will result from engaging in achievement-oriented activities forms the second component of the tendency to approach success or the tendency to avoid failure. According to Weiner (1972 : 195), it is mainly through the incorporation of 'expectancy' into his model that Atkinson became known as a cognitive theorist. Weiner further states that 'the theory of achievement motivation...calls attention to the fact that the concept of expectancy...serves to represent the associative link between performance of an act and the attainment of the goal' (Weiner, 1972 : 196).

Atkinson adopted a variety of methods to manipulate Ps or the probability of success to determine individuals beliefs about their chances of attaining their goals. These are identified by Weiner as supplying subjects with normative information about the difficulty of the attempted task, making subjects compete against a number of others or by varying the task difficulty. If one adds P_S and P_F the total will be one, as success and failure are all the possibilities. Therefore, since this can be expressed as an equation $P_S + P_F = 1$, the tendency to avoid failure can also be expressed as $P_F = 1 - P_S$.

Component 3: The incentive value of success and the incentive value of failure

Atkinson describes the third and final component as 'the degree of anticipated satisfaction or pride in succeeding at a task or the degree of anticipated shame in failing' (Spence, 1982 : 33). The incentive value of success is often operationally reduced to a property of probability of success (P_S), and, according to Escalona and Festinger's resultant valence theory, it is inversely related to P_S ($I_S = 1 - P_S$) such that the incentive value of success (I_S) increases with a decrease in probability of success (P_S). Task difficulty affects the degree of pride or shame experienced following success or failure on a task respectively. The more difficult the task, the greater the level of pride at success, while shame is greatest after failure at an easy task (Weiner, 1980 : 193).

2.4.4 Achievement Motivation

The strength of the tendency to approach success (T_s) and the tendency to avoid failure (T_F) is determined by multiplicatively combining the above-mentioned components, namely, motive, expectancy and incentive. Overall achievement motivation or the tendency to achieve is determined by an algebraic sum involving the two opposite tendencies ($T_A = T_S - T_{AF}$) or, alternatively, by including the assumptions about each component and then simplifying the formula algebraically. Achievement motivation or the tendency to approach success can be defined as : $T_A = (M_S - M_{AF})\ [P_S \times (1 - P_S)]$ (Spence, 1982 : 35).

The findings of Piedmont (1988 : 77), who examined the independent and interactive contributions of achievement motivation and anxiety to performance on a cognitive task, were reasonably consistent with Atkinson's (1965) tendency to achieve and its components. Arousal of personality variables was achieved by experimentally manipulating expectancy of success and rate of presentation, and it was found that, irrespective of situational manipulations, the positive effects of achievement motivation were constant, except in certain instances where the situation facilitated performance in an additive manner. Depending on the level of achievement motivation, anxiety had a differential effect on performance.

The expectancy-value theory has been the subject of much current research which has attempted to examine the theory's predictions for measures such as level of aspiration, task persistence and risk taking in task difficulty choices. According to Atkinson and Litwin (1960 : 58), individuals whose motive to achieve success is greater than their motive to avoid failure should prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty, show more persistence at achievement-related tasks, and show greater efficiency or a higher level of accomplishment than individuals whose motive to avoid failure is stronger than their motive to achieve success.

Research conducted by Atkinson and Litwin (1960) confirmed their hypotheses. Atkinson, Bastian, Earl and Litwin (1960 : 27) developed a model of risk taking in terms of which subjects will prefer tasks of intermediate probabilities of success when the motive to approach success is stronger than the motive to avoid failure, while tasks with very high or very low probabilities of success will be preferred where the motive to avoid failure is stronger. Research conducted by Atkinson and Litwin (1960) confirmed the usefulness of the model. This study confirmed an earlier study by Atkinson (1957 : 359).

Spence (1982 : 36) regards the predictions regarding individual's preferred task difficulty level as the most interesting part of Atkinson's theory. Spence further explains that the equation used to determine the tendency to achieve (T_A) implies that, where the probability of success is 1/2, the tendency to achieve is strongest for individuals who have a stronger motive to approach success than the motive to avoid failure ($M_S > M_{AF}$). Thus, these success oriented individuals tend to prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty and to persist at them longer than at tasks of high or low difficulty. Failure-avoidant individuals (those who are dominated by a motive to avoid failure) are least-likely to choose or persist at tasks of intermediate difficulty, but instead show the highest achievement tendency when the task difficulty is high or low. Weiner (1972 : 165), however, believes that irrespective of motive strength, people tend to prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty.

Task persistence was investigated by Kroll (1990 : 241). He examined the effect of failure (defined normatively) on subsequent persistence on an achievement task by giving subjects two successive unsolveable tasks described according to two levels of difficulty i.e. most subjects could solve the tasks or most could not solve the tasks. These tasks were also described as intelligence measures. He hypothesised that persistence on a target task would be greatest if both the prime and target tasks were described as moderately easy, while persistence on a target task will be least if both are described as highly difficult.

Kroll (1990 : 242) found that where both the tasks were described as moderately easy, persistence was greatest, while persistence was least where the primary and target tasks were described as highly difficult. Kroll relied on Atkinson's (1982) expectancy-value theory, particularly the motive, incentive and expectancy components of achievement motivation, to explain his findings. Kroll described failure at the primary task as moderately easy as a motive to strive for success.

Success and high effort were viewed as incentives as they can compensate for the disgrace of previous failure, and can facilitate success, provide positive self-affirmation and social approval. Expectancy mediates persistence in pursuit of incentives. It means that highly difficult tasks imply lower expectancies than moderately easy tasks. Thus persistence is greatest when a moderately easy task follows failure on a moderately easy primary task, while persistence is lowest when a highly difficult task follows failure on a highly difficult primary task. Atkinson's (1957) expectancy-value theory held that the relationship between achievement motivation and task difficulty choices is such that positively motivated subjects ($M_S < M_{AF}$) would show preference for tasks which are either very easy or very difficult. In 1979, Kuhl and Blankenship provided data indicating a systematic shifting of task difficulty choices by both positively and negatively motivated subjects towards more difficult tasks over time (Atkinson & Litwin, 1960 : 59).

2.5 DYNAMIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION THEORY

Atkinson and Birch (1970) in their dynamic achievement motivation theory provided a theoretical explanation for the finding of Kuhl and Blankenship (Slade & Rush, 1991 : 165). This theory alleges that there is an interaction between personality variables and motivational tendencies which determine achievement-related behaviour, and it assumes that motivation and action are dynamic processes. The main focus of this theory is on 'when (an) action will be initiated, how involved the individual will become in the activity, and how long it will continue' (Atkinson & Birch, 1970 : 326).

According to the principle of action of dynamic achievement motivation theory, people are constantly engaging in some form of behaviour which is an expression of the dominant behavioural tendency of the individual at a particular time.

According to Atkinson and Birch (1970), 'the behavioural life of an individual is a constant flux of activity' (Weiner, 1980 : 209). Any change of activity of an individual implies a change in the dominance relations of the behavioural tendencies. This is based on the assumption that 'tendencies would persist in their present state unless subjected to some external influence....' (Atkinson & Birch, 1970 : 329).

The inclusion of this persisting tendency, also known as the inertial tendency, means that this theory is one of the behaviour of an active organism which makes choices as opposed to merely being influenced by the environment. There are two kinds of motivational tendencies : action tendency which determines an individual's activity performance choice, and negation tendency which 'opposes, resists and dampens the effect of an action tendency' (Atkinson & Birch, 1970 : 204). The strength of the behavioural tendency of an individual is the algebraic result of the conflict between the action tendency and the negation tendency. The changes in the relative strength of these tendencies can be explained in terms of three interrelated dynamic processes : instigation, resistance and consummation. The relative strength of the behaviour tendencies is controlled by the simultaneous occurrence of these processes. The instigation of an action refers to the increased and sustained strength of an action tendency to stimulate an activity. Resistance to an action 'accounts for how the strength of a negation tendency is increased and sustained by the inhibitory force of the immediate stimulus situation, how the negation tendency functions to resist the behavioural expression of an action tendency, and how this resistance dissipates the strength of the negation tendency' (Atkinson & Birch, 1970 : 320). Consummation functions to reduce the strength of action tendencies.

Instigating and inhibitory or resistance forces relate the action and negation tendencies to personality. The motive to achieve success is related to instigating forces as highly achievement motivated people are more responsive to achievement cues, quicker to engage in achievement tasks, and show longer task persistence than individuals low in achievement motivation. In the same way, the motive to avoid failure is related to inhibitory forces leading to those people with a high fear of failure being slower to engage in achievement tasks and less likely to persist at such tasks.

A computer simulation of the mental processes affecting task difficulty choices which was developed by Kuhl and Blankenship (1979) demonstrates the interplay between the above-mentioned forces (Slade & Rush, 1991: 164). Thus, in their discussion of dynamic achievement motivation theory, Slade and Rush contended that the theory assumes that, regardless of achievement motivation level, people will show preference for successively more difficult tasks. The initial level of task difficulty choice and the rate of shift to more difficult tasks is, however, influenced by achievement motivation.

Slade and Rush's findings differed from the approach of Atkinson (1957) and Kuhl and Blankenship (1979) in that, while they did show that, irrespective of achievement motivation level, choices of task difficulty shift toward more difficult tasks with task experience, they also found non-linear trends in the task difficulty choices where individuals eventually shift back to easier tasks. They did not find any differences between positively and negatively motivated subjects in initial task difficult choices. However, they identified a delayed emergence of differences in task choice between positively and negatively motivated subjects. This linear trend interacted with the achievement motivation group such that positively motivated subjects shifted faster. This study provides an indication of the developments, both theoretical and empirical, since Atkinson's work in 1957.

A study by Halvari (1991 : 367) involved testing for achievement motives, future-time orientation, and perceived intrinsic instrumentality. The results were interpreted and discussed in terms of Atkinson *et al.'s* (1970) dynamic theory of action. The findings of the study showed that success-oriented individuals and those with high-future time orientation perceived goals as closer, planned the initiation of preparations for goals earlier, and planned to devote more preparation time to goal-achievement than failure-oriented individuals and those with low future-time orientation. Further, motives and future-time orientation appeared to interact with perception of goal proximity and planned time of initiating goal preparations. The findings also showed that individuals high in instrumentality would start preparations earlier, devote more time to goal preparations, and perceive greater worry for the goal closest in time than low-instrumentality individuals. Further, motives and instrumentality, as well as future-time orientation and instrumentality were shown to interact.

2.5.1 The Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation

According to Weiner (1986 : 190), literature on achievement motivation 'is assuming more and more of an attributional perspective,' and thus, it is necessary to include a section on what attribution theory is, and then to discuss the attributional theory of achievement motivation.

(1) The Nature of Attribution Theory

Attribution theory offers another method in terms of which achievement motivation can be considered. It focuses on the origin of achievement motivation, that is, whether achievement motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic. Attributions are explanations which people make for the causes of things which help them to understand and react to their social surroundings. According to Eiser (1986), there are three classical attribution theories based on social psychology, namely, Heider's Naive Psychology, Correspondent Theory, and Covariation and Configuration.

Fritz Heider (1959) is regarded as the father of attribution theory as he played a major role in making naive psychology a field of study. He regarded the lay person as a naive scientist who is searching for rational explanations for observed occurrences and relies on theories to understand, predict and control the environment (Eiser, 1986 : 122). Heider (1959 : 71) made a distinction between internal (disposition) attributions and external (situational) attributions. The former were personal forces including 'trying' - a motivational concept determined by intentions and exertion - and 'power' or ability. The latter refers to environmental forces such as task difficulty and luck.

This can also be understood as a distinction between personal and impersonal causality. Personal causality or intentionality refers to a situation where actions are intentional or purposeful. According to Heider (1959), the central factor in personal causality is intention (Eiser, 1986 : 123). Impersonal causality, however, refers to a situation where environmental factors are responsible, that is the actions or behaviour are unintended.

The second classical attribution theory is the Theory of Correspondent inferences by Jones and Davis (1965). Eiser (1986 : 124) advocates that the central proposition of this theory is that one infers a correspondence between the action (and the intention behind it) and a stable disposition or trait of the actor. Jones and Davis (1965 : 222) set this out in their Action-Attribute paradigm. This is as follows :

Figure 4 Action-Attribute Paradigm

Consensus	*Distinctiveness*	*Consistency*	*Causal Attribution*
Low *The actor is the only person who kicks this dog.*	*Low* *The actor also kicks other dogs.*	*High* *The actor has kicked this dog before.*	*Person* *The actor is cruel*
High *Numerous people kick this dog.*	*High* *This is the only dog that the actor kicks.*	*High* *The actor has kicked this dog before.*	*Entity* *The dog is a bad animal.*
Low *The actor is the only person who kicks this dog.*	*High* *This is the only dog that the actor kicks.*	*Low* *The actor has never kicked this dog before.*	*Circumstance* *Neighbours complained about the noise.*

(Source: Jones & Davis. 1965. From Acts to Dispositions : The Attribution Process in Social Perception. In Berkowitz, L (ed.). Advances in Experimental Social Psychology : Vol. 2. New York : Academic Press. pg. 222).

In terms of the above model, Jones and Davis (1965 : 223) explained how attributions are made. Firstly, the action and its effects are observed. Then, to determine whether the effects were intended, one must ascertain whether the actor knew that his action would produce the effect (knowledge), and whether he/she had the ability to perform the action (ability). If a decision was made that intention (knowledge and ability) was present, then the cause of the action was attributed to a disposition. Thus, a correspondence between the action and the disposition is inferred. An inference such as the above will only occur if the effects of the action are non-common or unique, or if the action was socially undesirable.

Jones and Davis (1965 : 224) identify three expectancy conditions where one would be least likely to make a correspondent inference. These are firstly, target-based expectancy (how an actor or target is expected to behave), secondly, category-based expectancy (how a member of the actor's social group or category is expected to behave), and finally, role-based expectancy (how anyone in the actor's role is expected to behave).

The Covariation and Configuration model of Kelley forms the third and final classical attribution theory considered by Eiser (1986 : 125). According to Eiser, this model rests on Heider's notion of the person as a naive scientist who searches for and uses information in a logical, systematic manner. There are two methods which can be used to explain a particular event, namely the co-variation method and the configuration method. The former is used when there is much information about the situation, while the latter is used when only small amounts of information are available.

Covariation refers to the tendency for two things to happen at the same time, and when two things co-vary, one concludes that one thing caused the other. The co-variation principle is as follows : 'An effect is attributed to one of its possible causes with which, over time, it co-varies' (Kelley, 1971 : 3). While correspondence inference theory only considered internal contributions in terms of dispositions and character traits, the co-variation method of Kelley's theory considers three types of attributions - personal, entity and circumstance. According to Finchilescu (1991), there are three tests of co-variation, namely, consensus, distinctiveness and consistency, which lead an observer to attribute the cause of behaviour to the entity, the person, or the circumstances. This process is similar to the statistical technique known as analysis of variance or ANOVA.

When there is only a little information available about a particular situation, one relies on what Kelley (1973 : 108) refers to a causal schema. According to Finchilescu (1991), these are 'existing beliefs, theories of how certain causes result in particular effects'. Kelley (1971) offered two principles to aid in making attributions with a small amount of data. The augmentation principle holds that the personal attribution will be augmented if the behaviour occurs when inhibiting environmental forces are present. The discounting principle proposes that when multiple plausible causes are present, the attribution is discounted such that the observer attributes the effect less to any one cause than he would if only that cause were plausible (Deci, 1975 : 294). Kelley (1971 : 8) defines this principle as 'the role of a given cause in producing a given effect is discounted if other plausible causes are also present.'

(2) The Attribution of Achievement Motivation

The attribution of motivation is concerned with how intrinsic or extrinsic motivation is attributed to a person. Deci (1975 : 248) defines intrinsically motivated behaviours as those 'for which the rewards are internal to the person,' while extrinsically motivated behaviours are those 'which the actor engages in to receive some extrinsic reward.'

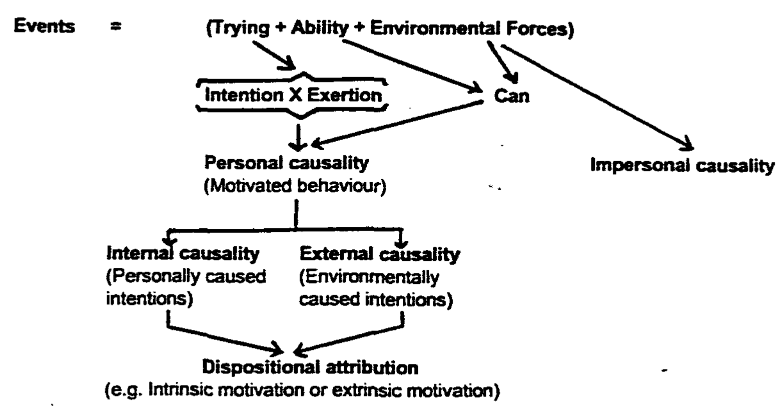
Deci further classifies causality into three types : internal (personally caused intentions), external (environmentally caused intentions, which still constitute personal causality), and impersonal - environment (where there are no intentions). Distinctiveness of behaviour differs between internal and external causality such that the former is low and the latter is high. Deci concludes that intrinsically motivated behaviours are characterised by internal causality, while extrinsically motivated behaviours are characterised by external causality. Both of these involve personal causation as there is intention present. When luck or environmental forces cause an event, it is impersonally caused.

Deci (1975 : 249) reviews a number of studies concerning the attribution of intrinsic motivation and then proposes a general model of attribution. This model advocates that when making attributions, people first look for impersonal causes, then for external causes, and finally, if these cannot be found, internal causality is inferred. The model shows that expectations, rewards, and effect motivate and influence the attributional process. Finally, people's attributions differ because of situational factors and individual differences.

According to Spence (1982 : 38), analyses of intrinsic motivation in terms of attribution theory have focused on the expectancy and intentional aspects of motivation and assume that behavioural intentions are affected by reinforcer salience. When a reward is given for performing an interesting task, this leads to expectancies of intentions in performance. The introduction of extrinsic reinforcers, thus, reduces intrinsic motivation.

The attributional theory of motivation is based on the work of Weiner and his associates (Duda and Allison, 1989 : 37). Weiner (1985 : 548) proposed that causal attributions for success and failure, such as ability, effort, task difficulty and luck can be categorised into a three - dimensional taxonomy : locus of causality, stability and controllability. Weiner (1985 : 549) also included intentionality and globality as other possible causal structures. Locus of causality refers to whether the attribution is internal or external to the individual, stability refers to whether it is stable or unstable over time, and controllability refers to whether the attribution is controllable or not. Thus each causal attribution can be classified as internal or external, stable or unstable, and controllable or non - controllable. Weiner's (1986) attributional theory of achievement motivation can best be explained in terms of a diagram.

Figure 5 Diagram to Explain Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation



(Source : Weiner, B. 1986. An Attributional Theory Of Motivation and Emotion. New York : Springer - Verlag. pg. 554)

A motivational sequence is initiated by an outcome that a person interprets as positive or negative according to whether a goal is attained or not. Outcome perceptions are linked with effects such that if an outcome is regarded as positive it results in happiness, while a negatively perceived outcome leads to frustration or sadness. If the outcome was unexpected, negative or important, a causal search is undertaken to determine the reason for the outcome (linkage two). On the basis of causal antecedents such as specific information and causal rules, causal ascription(s) are reached (linkage three). This causal decision may elicit a unique effective reaction (linkage four). The cause is then located in dimensional space (linkage five). The three main properties of causes are locus, stability and controllability. Globality and intentionality are also causal properties (Weiner, 1986 : 555).

There are psychological consequences of causal attributions. The stability of a cause affects the relative expectancy of future success (linkage six). By affecting expectancy of success, the stability of a cause also foster feelings of hopelessness or hopefulness (linkage eight). The locus of a cause influences self-esteem and pride - internal ascription's result in greater self - esteem for success and lower self - esteem for failure than do external attributions (linkage seven).

Finally, causal controllability affects social emotions: internal, controllable causes of personal failure promote guilty feelings, while internal, uncontrollable causes cause shame (linkage nine). Anger (given failure that is controllable by others), pity (given an uncontrollable cause of failure), and gratitude (given volitional benefit from others) are other emotions which result (linkage ten). Action is presumed to be determined by expectancy and affect (linkages 11, 12 and 13). The actions may be in any motivational domain, and can be described in terms of factors such as their intensity and their latency (Weiner, 1986 : 556).

Weiner (1986) used this diagram to explain or account for motivational enhancement following failure and motivational enhancement after success. Weiner holds that the attributional theory of achievement theory is superior to all other theories of achievement motivation as it 'is able to capture the complications of human motivation' (Weiner, 1986 : 566).

In terms of this theory of achievement motivation, perception of causality is regarded as the mediating factor of achievement motivation. This perception of causality further influences affective reactions to success and failure, and also the expectation of success in the future (Dalal & Sethi, 1988 : 55). These authors maintained, however, that this mediating role of achievement motivation had not been empirically supported and so, in their study entitled '*An Attributional Study of High and Low Need Achievers in India,*' they attempted to asses the causal attributions for repeated success and failure by individuals differing in their achievement need.

In this study, students were given anagram tasks on which they either succeeded or failed on all three trials. In comparison to low need achievers, high need achievers showed a greater tendency to attribute success to their own efforts and failure to both lack of effort and task difficulty. The study confirmed Weiner's theory that affective responses correlated with internal causes and expectations with stable causes. Highly achievement motivated students who failed showed stronger correlation's.

Weiner and Kukla (1970 : 2) conducted a number of studies relating achievement motivation to causal ascription. They found that achievement is positively related to effort expended. Firstly, achievement motivated individuals appeared more likely to approach achievement activities and attribute success to themselves and experience greater reward for goal attainment than those low on the construct. Secondly, persistence after failure is longer among highly achievement motivated individuals than those without this tendency, and failure is more likely to be attributed to lack of effort and less likely to be attributed to lack of ability. Finally, tasks of intermediate difficulty are chosen more often by those high in achievement motivation than those low in this motivational tendency.

A study by Gaeddert (1987) found that gender was not nearly as important as the subjects' achievement orientations in determining variance in attribution. This was achieved by obtaining descriptions by students of important accomplishments in their lives, and the attribution for the cause of their success. The subjects' attributions to effort, luck and ability were affected by the domains of their accomplishments, and their attributions to task difficulty, effort and ability were predicted by their achievement orientations.

2.5.2 Achievement Motivation : A Multidimensional Construct

Achievement motivation was initially conceived as a uni-dimensional construct. McClelland (1965) clearly held this view as he described achievement motivation as 'a striving for challenging and moderately difficulty goals supported by high personal standards of excellence,' and used projective tests to measure the construct (Erwee, 1986 : 1).

According to Erwee (1986), it was Heckhausen (1968) and Atkinson's research (Atkinson & Raynor, 1978) which led to the conceptualisation of achievement motivation as a multidimensional construct. Theorists such as Spence and Helmreich (1983), Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976), and Lynn, Hampson and Magee (1983) have incorporated more than one factor into their measures of achievement motivation

(Cassidy and Lynn, 1989 : 301). This concept of achievement motivation as a multidimensional construct is the currently accepted view of achievement motivation.

Neumann, Finaly and Reichel (1988 : 555), however, maintain that the conception of achievement motivation as multidimensional emerged from studies by McClelland (1960), Herman (1970) and Pottas, Erwee, Boshoff, and Lessing (1980). These studies showed achievement motivation as comprised of two dimensions, namely, goal- directedness and personal excellence.

Goal-directedness refers to a strong desire to accomplish important goals. According to Neumann *et al.* (1988 : 556), it consists of the personal skills of persistence, planning ability, timetable and action orientation. Persistence refers to overcoming obstacles and persevering in seeking solutions to problems despite adverse circumstances. Planning ability is the ability to plan ahead, take future consideration into account, and prepare well in advance for eventualities. timetable refers to working according to a time schedule and feeling uneasy when deviating from one's own timetable, while action orientation means using time efficiently, remaining active, energetic, and avoiding idleness.

Personal excellence is defined as 'the need to excel, the need to obtain a high standard of performance,' and includes aspiration level, an inclination to embark on demanding and challenging tasks, risk taking, a propensity to prefer some risks over the certainty of success and locus of control, a belief that control can be exerted on various life events, and that individual's initiatives can affect unfavourable circumstances

(Neumann *et al.*, 1988 : 557). It is this conception of achievement motivation which forms the basis for the achievement motivation questionnaire.

A number of questionnaires and projective techniques have been adopted in order to measure the various dimensions of achievement motivation. According to Fineman (1977), twenty two instruments were available but the correspondence between them was low (Erwee, 1986 : 2). Motivated by the lack of a comprehensive measure of achievement motivation, Cassidy *et al.* (1989 : 303) attempted to develop a comprehensive, multi-factorial approach to achievement motivation and produced a 49-item scale which measured the following seven factors : work-ethic (WE), acquisitiveness (for money) (Acq), dominance (Dom), excellence (the pursuit of) (Exc.), competitiveness (Com), status aspiration (SA), and mastery (Mast).

2.6 GENDER ISSUES ON ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Following the discussion of the nature of motivation and specifically the nature of the achievement motivation construct in the previous sections, it is now necessary to focus attention on the nature of women's achievement motivation. Despite the vast amount of research that has been conducted on achievement motivation, there are still a large number of issues which remain unanswered. Sutherland and Verloff (1985 : 358) highlight one issue which has been the subject of much study, but is still without any absolute solution, namely, gender or sex differences. Atkinson (1958) states that the question of sex differences is 'perhaps the most persistent unresolved problem in research on n Achievement' (Horner, 1968 : 222). There are many studies on this topic, but the results are often contradictory. Generally, however, it is assumed that there are differences between men and women in terms of achievement motivation. The literature reveals that traditionally men are more achievement motivated than women and possible explanations for these differences are presented.

2.6.1 Gender Differences on Achievement Motivation

According to Berndt and Miller (1990 : 320), most research has found sex differences in measures related to achievement. Women have been found to be lower on achievement motivation than men, and this is reflected in women's tendency to occupy lower status occupational positions and to be under-employed in professional careers (Fyans, 1980 : 72).

This sex differentiation an achievement motivation was confirmed by Raina and Vats (1990 : 57) who conducted an investigation on the life goals of Indian and American male and female students using the Life Goals Inventory. They found that males in both cultures showed greater concern for achievement than females, and they referred to studies by Reddy and Bhatt (1979) and Mead and Singh (1973) which supported this finding (Raina & Vats, 1990 : 58).

In another study designed to investigate the extent to which achievement motivation can be predicted from a range of personality and attitudinal variables, Heaven (1990) found gender differences in the personality correlates of achievement motivation. Females showed a significant correlation between high achievement motivation and positive attitudes to authority, internal locus of control and positive self-esteem, while for males positive attitudes to authority, extroversion, 'tender-mindedness,' and positive self-esteem were regarded as significant correlates (Heaven, 1990 : 705). These studies support the view of achievement motivation being stronger among males (Slade & Rush, 1991 : 168).

In a very early study by McClelland and his associates, achievement motivation was assessed using the TAT administered under two conditions - neutral and aroused. The arousal condition involved instructions emphasising the competitive nature of the tasks to be performed, which were used to engage the latent achievement motive. While males showed an increase in n Ach scores from the neutral to the aroused condition, females showed no such increase (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985 : 359).

Hoffman and Horner believed that the TAT was composed of solely male-oriented cues from imaginative stories and concluded that in order to measure need for achievement in females, it was necessary to develop cues on the TAT featuring females (Thomson, 1990). Further studies were conducted using female cues, but females' scores were still lower than those of males and the study results revealed that males showed longer persistence task failure and showed preference for moderate risks and consecutively more difficult tasks after success, while females did not (Thomson, 1990 : 63).

2.6.2 Explanations for Gender Differences

From the research it appears that differences do exist between males and females in terms of the achievement motivation construct such that males have higher levels of achievement motivation than women. Various explanations have been offered for this phenomena and these will be discussed here.

One of the main explanations for differences between males and females in terms of achievement motivation is primary socialisation and sex role training. All the other explanations essentially stem from this one. Primary socialisation was found to be the key to gender differences on achievement motivation for Stevens and Brenner (1990 : 879), who conducted an investigation using the Miner Sentence Completion Scale (MSCS). They proposed that female business students would achieve lower 'motivation to manage' scores than male business students based on the hypothesis that socialisation of females inhibits managerial motivation. The conclusion of the study was that the scores obtained by males showed a higher motivation to manage generally than the scores for females. Stevens and Brenner (1990 : 880) suggest that this is due to primary socialisation, and the view of a business career as temporary and secondary to the role of wife and mother.

Carr and Mednick (1988 : 169) studied the effect of sex role socialisation practices on achievement motivation (n Ach) of pre-school children of differing class levels using the Sex Role Socialisation Scale. The results they obtained supported their hypothesis that higher achievement motivation for girls results from non-traditional sex role training, while for boys, higher achievement motivation develops from traditional sex role training. Thus, differential treatment of girls and boys in terms of traditional sex role socialisation facilitates the development of achievement motivation in boys, but is antagonistic to such a development in girls. They argue that this is a reason why women exhibit lower levels of achievement motivation than men.

Clearly, the primary socialisation of the genders is different and normally results in women being socialised to value traditional role fulfilment above achievement, while men value achievement. Males are trained to need and want success largely because of their traditional sex role of the man as the primary bread winner. He is thus encouraged to be achievement motivated and is rewarded for related behaviour. Females, however, are socialised to avoid success as their traditional sex role is that of wife and mother and success outside of the home is considered to restrict this role fulfilment (Piedmont, 1988 : 177). Thus they are discouraged from exhibiting achievement motivation and are taught to fear social rejection for deviance from the norm. Fear of success is clearly a very real reason why women would repress their achievement motivation (Piedmont, 1988 : 178).

Horner's (1968) concept of fear of success or 'an expectancy held by some women that success in certain achievement-related situations will be followed by negative consequences' is a second explanation which is used in an attempt to explain the gender differences on the achievement motivation construct (Piedmont, 1988 : 179). This is a result of socialisation and sex role training. Fear of success is postulated to reduce achievement motivation or the tendency to achieve, and consequently or restrain achievement-related behaviour (Piedmont, 1988 : 180). This is confirmed by Sutherland and Verloff(1985 : 360) who state that females, more often than males, fear success, which inhibits the expression of achievement motivation in behaviour.

According to Piedmont (1989 : 863), males only experience fear of success as a 'negative success orientation' as they fear losing the recognition for success and have no fear in terms of losing gender identity. Spence (1982 : 36) describes this motive to avoid success as a 'stable dispositional tendency, acquired relatively early in life, to become anxious about achieving success.'

Horner (McClelland & Steel, 1973 : 224) confirms this by stating that the fear of success is 'a stable characteristic of the personality acquired early in life in conjunction with sex role standards' and can be viewed in two ways :

- *'As a predisposition to feel uncomfortable or expect negative consequences, that is, be anxious when successful in competitive achievement situations because such behaviour is inconsistent with one's internal 'sex role identity.' It is unfeminine to be successful in competitive and, by implication, aggressive achievement situations,* and,

- *As a predisposition to expect or be anxious about social rejection following success in such situations.'*

Sex-role socialisation in women results in 'a very personal conflict...(as) success would fulfil basic needs in their personality while simultaneously costing them a very high price - their gender identity'.(Piedmont, 1988 : 468-470). Thus, success or achievement is associated with loss of femininity and social penalties for violation of role expectations.

This was confirmed by Halvari's (1990) study on the effects of achievement motives and sex on wrestling ability and motor performance. What emerged from this study was that women tend to be more conflict-oriented than men. This refers to the fact that they strive for achievement, but simultaneously have a high fear of success. The conflicts which women experience are related to fear of losing femininity and self-esteem, and suffering social rejection as a result of achievement (Halvari, 1990 : 529).

Horner (McClelland & Steel,1973 : 225) conducted a study in which the relationship between fear of success and achievement motivation was considered. The results showed that females who have high ability, high achievement motivation and are competitively successful show a higher motive to avoid success than those with low ability, low achievement motivation, and who have no past success. A TAT-like method was used to measure fear of success in this study. This uses a verbal cue instead of a pictorial one, and depicts an individual of the same sex as the respondent who is successful in a competitive situation (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985 : 102). The results showed that females have complex, sometimes conflicting, responses to themes of women in achievement situations (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985 : 103). It was found that women who are high on fear of success tend to inhibit their expression of achievement motivation and it is suggested that this pattern may also exist beyond the experimental situation into the real world.

The results of a study by Thomson (1990 : 64) found no significant differences between men and women in terms of achievement motivation, but there was, however, a significant negative correlation between female n Ach and fear of success which supports Horner's findings that fear of success functions as an intervening inhibiting female achievement motivation scores. Thus, the conclusion of the study was that while the incidence of fear of success in South Africa appeared to be less than that of America (taken from the results of Horner), its effect seems to be similar. Both studies illustrate that women experience a sex role conflict when placed in achievement situations which results in a fear of success and consequently a reduced level of achievement motivation.

A third explanation offered for the difference between males and females in terms of achievement motivation is presented in Bakan's (1966) model of agency and communion (Bankart, Bankart & Franklin,1987 : 249). According to Bankart *et al.* (1987 : 250), agency is 'the existence of the organism as an individual,' while communion refers to 'the participation of the individual within a larger social entity of which the organism is a part.' Evidence indicates that, as a result of sex role socialisation, men tend to have an orientation towards agency and individualism which separates achievement and affiliation motives and needs, while women have an orientation towards communion or being in a group which integrates achievement and affiliation motives and values (Fyans, 1980 : 123).

Nasser (1984 : 106) focused on the need for affiliation and the need for achievement, and described the characteristics of the former as 'group minded, dependent, high on support, goals dictated by others, follower behaviour, evasion of obstacles, (and) lacks tenacity,' and the latter as 'individualistic, independent, self-starter, moderate risk-taker, problem-solver, high on decision-making, leader behaviour, (and) high tenacity.' As men emphasise their need for achievement independently of their for achievement of their need for affiliation, they tend to show higher levels of achievement motivation than women for whom the two needs are connected which dilutes the strength of their achievement motivation. Sutherland and Veroff (1985) states that females are motivated for achievement by social approval and the need for affiliation. According to Charoux, women appear to have 'a group-minded tendency....(which) has tended to keep dormant the need for achievement characteristic which may have otherwise emerged' (Charoux, 1985 : 25).

A fourth explanation for gender differences on achievement motivation relates to how men and women deal with competitiveness and relationships which results from the agency/communion difference between men and women and ultimately from their socialisation. For men relationships are not of primary importance which allows them to be free and fearless in competing with others, while for women relationships with others are very important and they experience a conflict between relationship and the competitive nature of achievement.

Griffin-Pierson (1986 : 313) states that women have lower levels of achievement motivation than men because of this conflict between relationships and the pursuit of achievement. Griffin-Pierson (1988) indicates that much literature on achievement motivation shows women as being less achievement motivated than men largely because women lack the attribute of competitiveness. Competitiveness is understood to mean performing better than others, but if one considers that women value relationships more highly than men, one can understand women's reluctance to 'beat' others (Griffin-Pierson, 1988 : 491).

Pollak and Gillian (1982) support this proposition that women do not fear success but competitiveness as they value interpersonal relationships (Griffin-Pierson, 1988 : 492). Ultimately they claim that there is no real difference between men and women on achievement motivation, but it has been the way the concept has been understood that has led to incorrect findings that women are less achievement motivated. This illustrates the need to include the communion perspective into the concept of achievement motivation.

Griffin-Pierson (1988 : 493) goes even further and proposes a new, multidimensional concept of competitiveness. The new definition thus includes achievement in both traditional and non-traditional settings, and allows the competitive nature of achievement motivation to be redefined as 'the striving toward performance excellence' (Griffin-Pierson, 1986 : 316) and not only the traditional understanding of achievement as competing to beat others. This concept incorporates both the traditional notion of competitiveness, interpersonal competitiveness (IC), defined by Helmreich and Spence (1978) as 'the desire to do better than others, the desire to win in interpersonal situations, the enjoyment of interpersonal competition' (Griffin-Pierson, 1988 : 494), and competitiveness in terms of some standard of excellence. Griffin-Pierson (1988) then suggests that while the former conception is a male notion of competitiveness, the latter is a female expression of the same.

A survey by Stockdale, Galejs and Wolins (1983) demonstrated that girls scored lower than boys when competitiveness is seen as the first concept only, while if goal-attainment is the focus, there are no sex differences (Griffin-Pierson, 1988 : 495). Jenkins (1987 : 922) found that highly achievement motivated women experienced job satisfaction from competition with a standard of excellence, which confirms the above understanding of competitiveness as related to women. When the traditional understanding of achievement motivation is considered, however, men usually appear more achievement motivated than women.

Piedmont *et al.* (1989 : 231) offer a fifth explanation for the gender differences. They state that men and women do differ in achievement motivation, but the differences are not in quantity or amount, but in the type of achievement motivation. They used two self-report measures of achievement motivation : the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and the Adjective Check List (ACL).

High scores on the EPPS relate to success-orientation, determination, assertiveness and independence. Accomplishment, recognition and social status are also important. These are all central to the traditional masculine concept of achievement motivation, and it is thus not unexpected that the instrument predicts better for men than for women. High scores on the ACL, however, show preference for items which are less goal-directed and which represent 'a consistent need to live up to high and socially commendable criteria of performance' (Piedmont *et al.*, 1989 : 236). They include items such as alertness, ambition, efficiency and conscientiousness, among others. The ACL is thus more sensitive to the internal motivation of women, and so predicts better for women than for men. Scores on both instruments are valid, and reveal meaningful gender related differences in achievement motivation (Piedmont *et al.*, 1989 : 237).

The above finding was consistent with research by Gaeddert (1987) and Gaeddert, Noelting and Littlefield (1984) who held that '...men were more likely than were women to define their success in terms of external referents (gaining prestige through accomplishment)...[and] women were more likely...to define success by referring to internal standards ('I did what I set out to do')' (Piedmont *et al.*, 1989 : 230).

Erwee (1981) confirmed this by stating that males and females define success and failure differently : males use more tangible, objective definitions, while those of females are more internal and subjective (Halvari, 1990 : 529). Both this and the above studies illustrate how achievement motivation has been considered from an agentic perspective as opposed to a communion perspective. It is essential to consider the latter as well in order to predict career aspirations, life goals and achievement motivation of both women and men.

Griffin-Pierson (1986) states that alternative expressions of achievement motivation exist. Traditionally, researchers of achievement motivation 'have tended to regard male behaviour as the "norm" and female behaviour as some kind of deviation from that norm' (Griffin-Pierson, 1986 : 313). The focus of research on achievement motivation in women has been on why women differ from men, and theorists have essentially tried to explain women's behaviour in terms of male models.

Gilligan (1982) and Spence (1983) have challenged this traditional approach and hold that is necessary to adopt a new approach to the study of achievement motivation among women (quoted in Griffin-Pierson, 1986). Helmreich and Spence (1978) suggest that achievement motivation should be redefined as '...task-oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence' (Griffin-Pierson, 1986 : 314).

According to Northcutt (1991), most of the research on the achievement motivation of women has used a male model of success or achievement in which high-status criteria such as income, position and power are most important. Other characteristics of success in terms of this model are high power and achievement needs, high self-esteem and high motivation to manage. It is necessary, however, to consider that this male model may not be appropriate to women who are late-comers into the employment world, have to combine work and home, have varied career developments and have a different socialisation process to men (Northcutt, 1991 : 33). According to Stein and Bailey (1973), the major problem in achievement motivation theory is that 'like much psychological theory, achievement motivation theory was developed to explain the behaviour of males. Then attempts were made to use the theory with females. Not surprisingly, it does not work as well for females' (Northcutt, 1991 : 34-35). The result is a lack of achievement needs defined appropriately for females.

The literature on gender differences on the achievement motivation concept presented above indicates that women have lower levels of achievement motivation than men and offers many explanations for this phenomena.

2.7 OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL ISSUES ON ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The occupational level issues on achievement motivation will be considered here. Firstly, the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees generally will be discussed, after which that of managerial women will be considered. Finally, the achievement motivation of non-managerial women will be discussed.

It will be shown that managerial women have achievement motivation levels which are more similar to those of males than to those of the typical female. It will be argued that these women have learnt to overcome gender-related suppression of achievement motivation which has facilitated their upward mobility within organisations. The non-managerial women, however, are restricted from upward mobility and so remain below the 'glass ceiling' by their lower achievement motivation levels. It is argued that non-managerial women suppress their achievement motivation as a result of primary socialisation and sex role training which teaches them to fear success and its consequences, and to have a high need for affiliation and relationship which leads them to fear competitiveness. Hence, achievement motivation does function as a barrier to upward mobility in non-managerial or clerical women.

2.7.1 Achievement Motivation of Managerial and Non-Managerial Employees

In a study conducted by Northcutt (1991) to determine whether there are differences in achievement motivation between the career levels of management and non-management, the result showed a significant difference between the two groups such that managerial employees have higher levels of achievement motivation than non-managerial employees.

Parker (1994 : 5) states that managers are 'marked by a lust for personal achievement, (are) fiercely competitive in pursuing the extremely high aims they set for themselves to the extent of being ruthless with anyone seen as standing in their way.'

According to Boldy, Jain and Northey (1993 : 157), managers are characterised by ambition, competitiveness, achievement and goal-orientation. This is confirmed by Bhargava (1993) who describes the role of a manager as that of a motivator who is a high achiever, a high performer and an innovator. Clearly, achievement motivation is high among managers (Boldy *et al.*, 1993 : 158).

Non-managerial employees, however, tend to lack assertiveness and have lower levels of achievement motivation (Koziara, Moskow & Tanner, 1987 : 362). Valli (1986 : 56) states that non-managerial employees lack ambition and competitiveness. The findings of a study by Stimpson, Narayanan and Shanthakumar (1993 : 64) revealed that managerial employees had higher scores on achievement, innovation and personal control than the non-managerial employees.

It is possible that the differences between these two groups are influenced by background and environment. McClelland developed a generalised model of the derivation of n Ach which assumes that individuals with high n Ach have grown up in environments where competence is expected, independence is granted, and fathers are not authoritarian and mothers are not dominant (Korman, 1977). Maehr and Nicholls (1980 : 221) describes McClelland's hypothesis regarding culture, personality and the 'Achieving Society' which is as follows : Achievement-orientated culture leads to achievement training of children. This in turn leads to the development of achievement-motivated persons, followed by the emergence of achievement-orientated societal leadership. The ultimate result is societal achievement. This is known as the 'Culture-Child Rearing-Personality-Achieving Society' hypothesis. In this way people served as carriers of the 'Spirit of Hermes' or an entrepreneurial restlessness (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980 : 222).

The literature shows that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial employees and suggests possible reasons for this phenomena.

2.7.2 Achievement Motivation of Managerial Women

According to Erwee (1987 : 152), managerial women are more achievement motivated than non-managerial women. A review of studies on female's achievement motivation by Bowen and Hisrich (1986) found that female managers scored higher than females in general on the achievement scale of the Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule, and higher than secretaries on the Mehrabian Achievement Questionnaire (Erwee, 1987 : 153). Clutterbuck and Devine (1987 : 231) also maintain that women in management are more achievement motivated than the traditional female. This is confirmed by Stimpson *et al.* (1993) who found that female managers scored higher than non-managerial women on achievement and innovation.

The results of a study by Lobel, Agami-Rozenblat and Bempechat (1993) showed that career and non-career women differed significantly in terms of achievement motivation among other personality characteristics. It was found that the career women were more independent and emotionally stable, and had a higher need for achievement and a higher self-esteem than the non-career women (Lobel *et al.*, 1993 : 359). Women entering male-dominated fields, such as management, are less affiliative than women entering female-dominated fields (McLean & Kalin, 1994 : 142).

In a study of graduated South African women, Van Rooyen (1981 : 121) found that masculine sex role identity subjects were significantly more independent, need-to-achieve orientated and had a greater interest in a career than their feminine sex role identity counterparts (irrespective of age or marital status) (Erwee, 1990 : 5). This was confirmed by Morinaga, Frieze and Ferligoj (1993 : 317) who found that women with less traditional gender-role attitudes are more career oriented.

According to Northcutt (1991), hard work, determination, perseverance, career commitment, direction for pursuit and lack of rigid goals are the characteristics of a successful career and managerial women. This indicated that in terms of achievement motivation, managerial women are more similar to the traditional 'male' than to the typical 'female.' This is significant as, according to Zeff , Fremgen & Martinel, good managers are 'higher in stereotypical masculine traits than stereotypical feminine traits.' This is confirmed by Brenner, Tomiewics and Schein (1989) who state that possessing 'male' characteristics is associated with a 'successful' manager (quoted in Zeff *et al.*, 1994 : 756).

A study by Harlan and Weiss to compare the achievement motivation of male and female managers, found that the achievement motivation levels between these two groups were very similar (Northcutt, 1991). According to Slade and Rush (1991), managerial women have the same level of achievement motivation as men due to an increase in achievement motivation in women which has occurred especially in recent years. In their study on achievement motivation, they found no effects of gender on the theoretical relationships. Slade and Rush (1991) refer to research by Veroff, Depner, Kukla and Douvan (1980) which showed a significant increase in achievement motivation levels in American women from 1957 to 1976, and a study by Jenkins (1987) which shows an increase from 1967 to 1981.

According to Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990 : 6), there has been a dramatic increase in recent years in the aspiration and achievement motivation of certain women to high-level management and professional occupations. This is confirmed by the results of a fairly recent study conducted by Erwee (1987) using the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire. Erwee (1987) found no significant sex differences in achievement motivation between male and female university students which reflects this increase in the achievement motivation levels of certain women (Erwee, 1987). This study affirmed the findings of an earlier study which also found females to be as achievement motivated as men (Erwee, 1981 : 48).

The achievement motivation of managerial women has been considered here. It is clear that managerial women have higher levels of achievement motivation than the traditional female, and are instead more similar to males. These women have become achievement motivated despite their traditional sex role socialisation and have thus learnt to overcome gender-related suppression of achievement motivation. This, it is postulated, has facilitated their upward mobility within organisations.

2.7.3 Achievement Motivation of Non-Managerial Women

The above consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial women reveals that this group is more similar to that of males than non-managerial women (Erwee, 1987 : 159). Women are socialised to have a need for affiliation and to shun and suppress the need for achievement out of fear of threatening their gender identity (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985).

Koziara *et al.* (1987) claims that non-managerial women have internalised this socialisation and the accompanying traditional stereotypes into their self-concepts. According to Koziara *et al.* (1987), non-managerial women tend to conform to the traditional stereotypes of women as evidenced by higher scores on need to affiliate, empathy for others, conformity to group pressures and lower assertiveness. As a result of primary socialisation and sex role training which teaches women to fear success and its consequences, and to have a high need for affiliation and relationship which leads them to fear competitiveness, these women have never developed their achievement motivation or suppress it out of fear (Koziara *et al.*, 1987 : 364).

According to Cassidy and Lynn (1991 : 2), it is through formal and informal socialisation that achievement motivation is developed. Fenn (1978) believes that low female achievement motivation is not natural or inherent, but reflects women's socialisation to believe that they are affiliative, passive, dependent and non-achievement motivated. This is confirmed by Elizur and Beck (1994 : 63) who maintain that gender differences in achievement motivation are actually rooted in socialisation processes rather than in basic differences between women and men. Clearly, the lower achievement motivation levels of non-managerial women do restrict their upward mobility.

2.8 SUMMARY

The above discussion concerns the nature of achievement motivation. The nature of motivation, in terms of both the process and the content theories, and the nature of achievement were considered in order to set the achievement motivation construct in its context. Thereafter, the various theories of achievement motivation were considered.

Gender issues in terms of achievement motivation were then discussed which involved discussion of the differences between the achievement motivation of males and females and possible explanations for these differences. Occupational level issues on achievement motivation were then considered including a consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees, followed by a discussion of the achievement motivation of managerial and then non-managerial women.

It has been shown that traditional males have higher levels of achievement motivation than females and that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial employees. Further, it has been found that managerial women have levels of achievement motivation which are similar to those of males and higher than those of non-managerial.

It has been argued that managerial women have adapted to the culture of the male-dominated workplace and overcome the traditional gender-related suppression of achievement motivation. Non-managerial women, however, display lower levels of achievement motivation possibly due to the effect of primary socialisation and sex role training. It seems that achievement motivation does play a role in the upward occupational mobility of women in the sense that higher achievement motivation levels of managerial women facilitate their upward mobility, while the lower levels of non-managerial women place a restriction on their upward mobility.

CHAPTER THREE

CAREER CHOICE

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3.1 INTRODUCTION

Although some job-seekers, particularly those in relatively undeveloped and traditional societies, have no problems in choosing a career as they simply follow in the footsteps of their parents, those from other cultures and modern societies find choosing a career very difficult. Choosing a career involves soul-searching and a thorough investigation of the various career possibilities.

The technical and scientific nature of certain careers requires a long period of education, therefore the young job-seeker who wants to follow such a career is required to make a career decision early. The candidate must, however, guard against making a decision too early and his decision should be flexible because in modern societies career possibilities are continually changing as a result of technological progress and increasing specialisation. The young adolescent's understanding of a career is often sketchy and his interests, needs and abilities are still developing and thus subject to change (Louw, 1995 : 431).

As technological society increases in complexity, the new job entrant needs help in choosing a career. A provisional career choice is often desirable in helping to choose the necessary subjects and training.

In order to make a realistic choice, Gerdes (Louw, 1995 : 431) states that several factors should be considered :

- the individual's abilities, interests, values and personality characteristics should be taken into account.
- information on various careers and on the necessary qualifications

should be obtained.

- the characteristics of the career should be congruent with the characteristics of the individual.
- besides the career that is chosen, alternative careers should also be considered.

3.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE CHOICE OF A CAREER

> *...theory provides counsellors with ideas about possible intervention strategies to use, when to use them, and how to use them. The use of theory in practice, then, provides counsellors and clients with direction and focus for the (career) counselling process, assisting clients to reach their goals or to resolve their problems* (McDaniels and Gysbers, 1992 : 64).

According to Harris (1997 : 10) theory provides a rationale for counsellor action that goes beyond personal experience and intuition. This review of the theories and literature relevant to the research investigation gives an overview of the developments in the fields of career education in general and of work experience in particular. The purpose is to sketch briefly how and to what extent educators in other parts of the world and in South Africa are including work experience in their career education programme. The first section is a discussion of the theoretical standpoints of Ginzberg and Blau, Super, Roe, Crites and Tiedeman. Each theory covers aspects of career decision making and presents a conceptual framework for aspects of the process. These theories form the philosophy underpinning the career education programme and the researcher's approach to the work experience programme to be described.

3.2.1 The Process Theories

In the 1950's Ginzberg and his colleagues analysed the process of occupational decision making in terms of three periods - first, *Fantasy* choices, then *Tentative* choices, and finally *Realistic* choices. Two of these stages were divided into sub-stages: the *Tentative* stage into the four sub-stages of *Interest, Capacity, Value* and *Transition,* and the *Realistic* stage into the three sub-stages of *Exploration, Crystallisation* and *Specification.* The theory suggests a process tending increasingly toward realism in career decision making as one becomes more mature (Watts, 1981 : 23-24, Lewis, Hayes & Lewis, 1986 : 188). This process is seen to be a developmental one, and by the time pupils are in their last two years of formal school, a goal of the guidance process is to assist them to move from the Tentative stage through to the Realistic stage.

Originally, Ginzberg and his colleagues suggested that the crystallisation of occupational choice had the quality of compromise between things such as the constraints of family income and situation, parental attitudes and values, opportunities in the world of work and value orientations. In the 1970's, their modified theory suggested that the process of career choice and development is life-long and open-ended.

In conclusion, there are four important ingredients that these theories suggest contribute to the adequacy of the individual's career choice process during adolescence and are therefore of relevance to this research project. They are (Gibson & Mitchell, 1986 : 287):

- reality testing
- the development of a suitable time perspective
- the ability to differ gratification, and,
- the ability to accept and implement compromises in career plans.

Also in the 1950's, Blau *et al.* considered how the social structure influences both personal development and defines the conditions in which decisions take place. They conceived occupational choice as a process of compromise, continually modified, between preferences for and expectations of being able to get into various occupations. Blau *et al.* considered the interaction between personality and culture and identified four personal and four social characteristics which determine occupational entry. The former were biological conditions - personality development, socio-psychological attributes, and immediate determinants such as occupational information and values. The latter were physical or geographic conditions - historical change, socio-economic organisation, and immediate determinants such as demand and non-functional requirements (Watts, 1981 : 14-15, Lewis *et al.*, 1986 : 183).

The following have some implications arising from these theories. Firstly, because the pupils' environments have an impact on the career options open or at least perceived to be open to them, career guidance should provide opportunities to broaden their horizons through structured career exploration groups and career and labour market information. It is important to expose pupils to alternatives and give them the skills to relate those alternatives to the career exploration and choice process. Secondly, because pupils' cultural backgrounds, experiences and values have an impact on the meaning they attach to work, it is desirable to use these backgrounds, experiences and values as springboards for discussion. Thirdly, because some pupils follow the line of least resistance, or the path with which they are already familiar in their career exploration, career guidance should help them to appreciate career exploration as a quest rather than a track to follow routinely. Fourthly, because labour markets change, pupils need to be assisted in developing adaptive skills to deal with shifting occupational demands and economic conditions (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 42-43).

3.2.2 Super's Developmental Self-Concept Theory

Super *et al.* compiled the most encompassing of the developmental approaches to career development. Super is particularly concerned with career progression. He used longitudinal studies to develop methods to analyse the relationship between certain life stages and the appropriate behaviours in dealing with stage-related tasks. Super's approach is to synthesise what has been learned about career development by researchers and theorists, and this he did with the work of Buehler and Ginzberg amongst others. Of particular relevance to this research project, is Super's description of the nature of career exploration which leads to the making of career choices.

Super *et al.* were concerned with determining career patterns. Drawing from humanistic philosophy of individual potentials and differences, they were also interested in influences on development by role models and life contexts and developed a theory in the form of `Fourteen Propositions' (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 43).

To illustrate the complexities of career decision making, Super developed two models. The Life-Career Rainbow and the Archway model are graphic representations of his theory. The Rainbow brings the life-span and life-space into two dimensional perspective and the Archway Model reveals the segmented, but unified and developmental nature of career development.

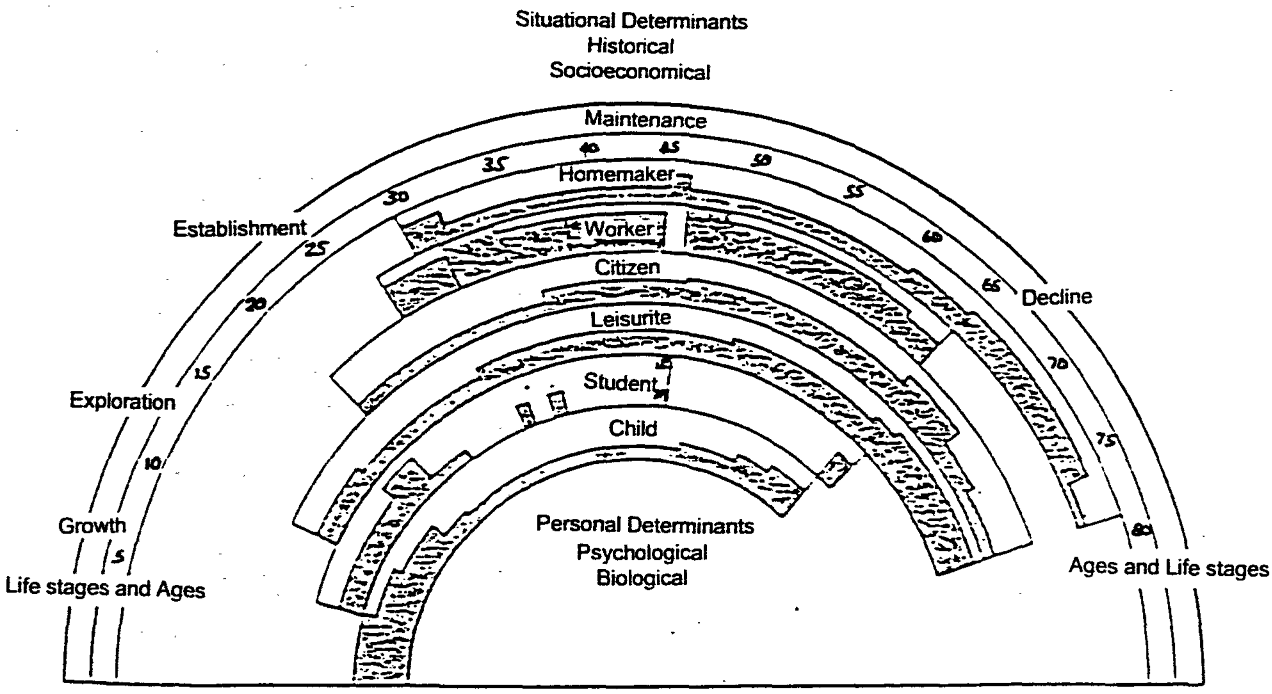

FIGURE 6

The life career rainbow: Six life roles in schematic life space

(Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 212)

In relation to this research project some of the more important concepts of Donald Super's theory have been identified and are discussed in greater detail below.

(1) Life Stages

Super based his life-stage theory on typical developmental tasks, with focus on the maxicycle. A maxicycle is a series of life stages characterised as a sequence of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into:

- the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and,
- the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.

A minicycle takes place in the transitions from one stage to the next (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 45). The concept of life stages has been modified in recent years, from envisioning mainly a maxicycle to involving minicycles of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline, linked in a series within a maxicycle. Re-exploration and re-establishment when career shifts are made have thus attracted a great deal of attention, and the time has come to denote these processes. Super says that transitions are considered to be likely several times during a career (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 50).

Super's formulation has sought to make it clear that not only the ages of the transitions are very flexible, but also that each transition involves a recycling through a period of growth in the new role, of exploration of the nature and expectations of that role.

Important too, is the greater emphasis on the fact that the typical impetus for any specific transition is not necessarily age itself, for the timing of transitions (stage) is a function of the individual's personality and abilities, as well as of his or her situation. Furthermore, the popular career-education concept of exploration as something completed in mid-adolescence has been shown to be invalid. Instead, it carries on into the middle and late twenties, sometimes the early thirties, and often starts again in the recycling at later stages. It appears in the form of conventional, unstable, or multi-trail careers and in so-called crisis (Brown, Brooks & Associates, 1990 : 237)

(2) Career Maturity

Career maturity is longitudinal; it takes place over the life span, i.e. the maxicycle, and is linked to the 'life stages and ages' on the outside semi-circle of the model.

Career maturity when defined as the individual's readiness to cope with the developmental tasks with which he or she is confronted because of his or her biological and social developments and because of society's expectations of people who have reached that stage of development. This readiness is both affective and cognitive (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 213). The affective variables are expressed as attitudes and relate to the areas of career exploration and planning. The cognitive variables mostly relate to knowledge: the knowledge of the principles of career decision making and the ability to apply them to the actual choices; the knowledge of the nature of careers, occupations, and the world of work; and knowledge of the field of work into which one's occupational preference falls. The concept of career maturity conveys the notion that there are certain behaviours that describe the individual's mastery of the developmental tasks associated with each life stage. So one can think of career maturity as both a structural and developmental concept because the elements of career maturity can be identified and assessed for particular life stages and they also change in different life stages.

(3) Role Salience

Role salience is the third dimension depicted by the Life-Career Rainbow. It is latitudinal. It is the life space, the constellation of positions occupied and roles played by a person. In the Rainbow major roles are specified: that of the child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker and homemaker.

In a later formulation of his theory, Super reaffirms his developmental approach but makes out a stronger case for the fact that people play particular roles in so-called 'theatres' of life. Specific roles are normally related to specific theatres, but one role can be played in more than one theatre. The various roles interact. The addition of a new role reduces the participation of one or more others and sometimes affects the effective commitment. These various roles can be extensive (supportive or supplementary), compensatory, or neutral. They can also be conflicting if they make inroads into time and energy needed elsewhere. They can enrich life or overburden it. The continuos build-up and decline of particular roles in the life cycle of an individual is related to the stage of life in which a person finds himself or herself and the particular and relevant developmental tasks associated with that stage (Nel, 1988 : 3-4).

Of relevance to this research project are the links between the various roles played by one person. The more effectively an adolescent plays his or her pre-occupational roles, in particular those of student, leisurite and part time worker, the more effectively will such a person be able to make an appropriate occupational decision. The extent and type of schooling and/or training will influence a person's first occupational position and the first occupational position, in it's turn, subsequent occupational positions (Nel, 1988 : 4).

(4) Self-Concept

By far the most central and crucial characteristic of Super's theory is the role he ascribes to the self-concept. Super provides an explicit and detailed explanation of career development by describing how the self-concept includes exploration of the world and the self, self-differentiation, identification, role playing, and reality testing (Verma, undated).

In considering how economic students make a work experience choice and later a career choice, it is relevant to consider Super's views on the implementation of the self-concept in occupational terms. According to him this occurs in various ways: the child's identification with an adult may lead to his playing the adult's occupational role; a person may be cast into a role by chance and this experience may lead to the discovery of a congenial career translation of his or her self-concept; or a pupil may be aware that he or she has many attributes which are said to be important in a certain field of work and this may prompt further investigation which may lead to the belief that the role expectations of the occupation are such that he or she would do well in and enjoy it.

People do not have only one self-concept but rather constellations of self-concepts. Garfinkle showed that high school students' concepts of themselves as students are empirically differentiated from their general concepts and, by inference, from their concepts of themselves in other roles, such as an athlete and child in the family (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 223).

Super's interest in the self-concept led to the most recent developments of the theory as encapsulated in the Archway model. This model represents the dual influences of the personal determinants (the left column) and the family and social determinants (the right column). These dual influences are maintained in some sort of balance by the person's 'self,' which Drever (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 201-202) defines as:

'... the integrated and dynamic organisation of the physical, mental, moral and social qualities of the individual that manifests itself to other people in the give and take of social life... the impulses and habits, interests, complexes, the sentiments and ideas, the opinions and beliefs, as manifested in his social millieu...'

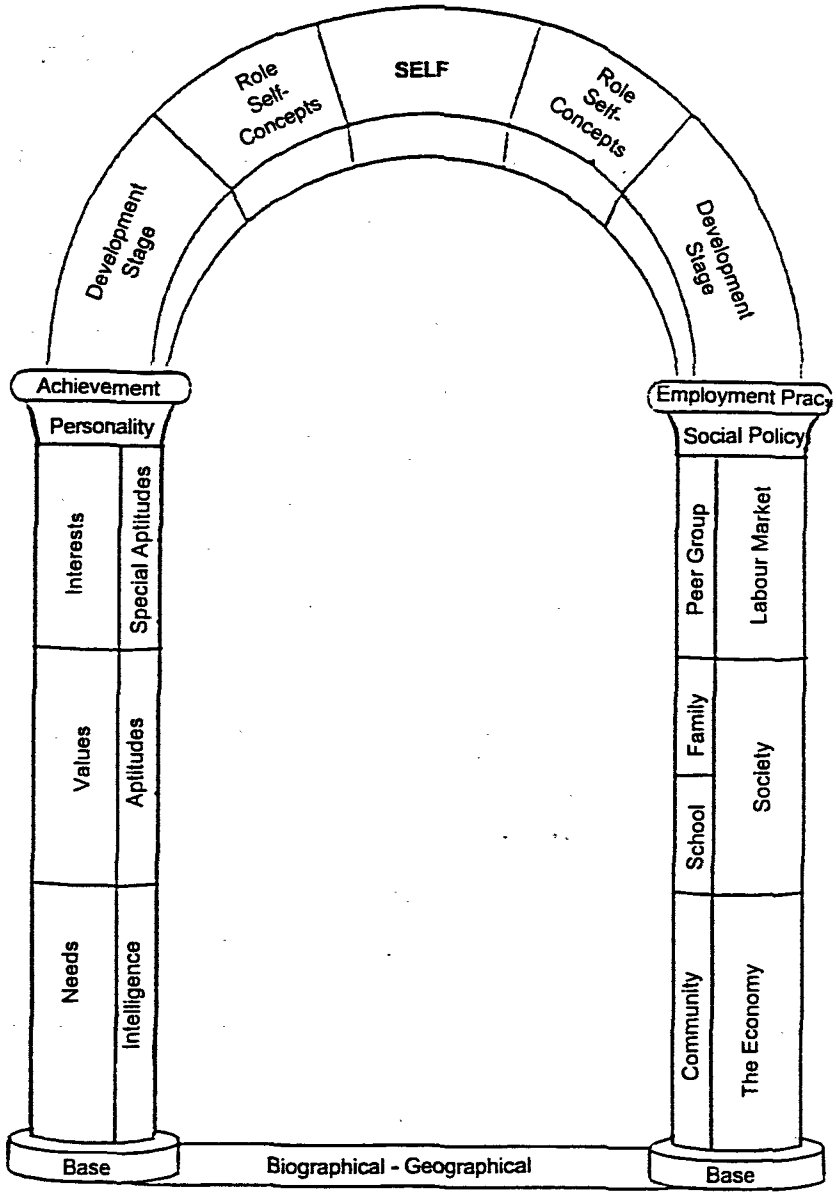

FIGURE 7

The archway model (Brown *et al.,* 1990 : 200)

This model emphasises both the need for the understanding of personal attributes as well as various familial and societal influences as they impact on the individual. This research project aims to examine career aspirations of students and would impact on students' understanding of both their own attributes and the workplace as well as the interaction of the two (represented by the two columns of the archway).

(5) Decision Processes

Super claims that theorists and practitioners have come to see that decision-making is central to career development and that this has led to a focus on decision-making styles. The life-stage and developmental-task emphasis of the developmental theories highlights the sequential nature of decision-making, stressing the ongoing mini-decisions that add up to a flexible maxi-decision. With a changing self and changing situations the matching process is never really completed. Matching occurs only temporarily, when major decisions are made; and even then, minor decisions continue to be made. In the use of the self-construct theory, Super suggests it is the deciding individual...*who makes the synthesis or compromise of self and situational data* (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 240).

Career education and guidance should therefore take into account the sequential nature of decision-making and equip the pupils to anticipate and cope with the mini-decisions and to make them add up to flexible maxi-decisions. There is also a need for the pupils to be made aware of how the decisions are related to life-stages and developmental-tasks.

(6) Practical Applications

Probably more than ever before, Super's theory seems adaptable for both programmatic and individual use. Super contends that environmental factors, such as social and economic conditions, and genetic factors influence the development of the self-concept. Since the implementation of the self-concept vocationally is considered the very essence of the career choice process, and the self-concept is open to outside influence during the formative years, counsellors can be particularly effective in planning strategies which will affect the career choice process.

Career developmental theory has provided a theoretical orientation for career education in schools. Super claims that the programmes developed need to recognise the individual differences in career development of the pupils and should seek to foster curiosity which leads to exploratory behaviour, autonomy, time perspective, and self esteem. At the same time they should expose pupils to a variety of adult roles (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 243). Crites (1981 : 128) agrees, but adds that a broader, more inclusive goal of career developmental counselling is to further both career and personal development, because work is so central to a person's life.

Super identifies the main characteristics of career development programmes, including those for school pupils. He claims that in any setting, three types of programmes are needed: the designing and monitoring of a development or growth-producing environment, group activities designed to foster career development, and individual counselling:

For students, an environment that fosters career development means a curriculum that facilitates growth, exploration of oneself and the world (particularly the occupational world and the educational world that leads to it), establishment in a field of study leading to a field of work, and maintenance of the role of the student (the role of the learner or of the worker in a learning job). Such an environment requires teachers who are interested in human development, as well as subject matter. It means a curriculum flexible enough to foster career development and individual counselling. It will contain resources for exploration and for learning that are varied and attractive-libraries, laboratories, shops and school-community programmes (Herr & Crammer in Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 258).

It is the function of career development counselling to help students to anticipate career development tasks, to plan how to cope with them, and to evaluate them. A career counsellor can play an important role at a number of junctures in the life-span. Of interest to this research are those aspects that impact on the Career Education Programme of under-graduate economics students.

Exploration in the broadest sense could begin in the middle school, perhaps grade 9, when the pupils are making a subject choice. Exploration in more depth would be appropriate when the pupil appears ready to focus on one or two groups of occupations, and if this proved unsuccessful he or she could go back to broad exploration again. Work experience would be undertaken with a clear understanding that it is essentially in-depth exploration.

Group guidance activities should include both self-exploration and occupational exploration projects. An important objective is an orientation to a career, in the sense of life stages and developmental tasks. Too often career education deals only with occupations and not with career development. Both, in fact, are needed. The group activities should deal with the person (the individuals as related to occupation and to career), with occupation, and with careers. Schedules should be arranged to guide and evaluate career development, with time for monitoring needs and resource provision as well as for counselling.

Because occupational decisions are similar to other life decisions and continue to be made throughout life, group guidance for career development should focus on decision making and learning and practising the skills of decision making. It should take into account the sequential nature of decision making and equip the pupils to anticipate and cope with the mini-decisions that become the basis for maxi-decision making.

Super has collected data regarding the skills, attitudes, and level of knowledge that characterise each development level, therefore assessment can be made of a student's relative level of career maturity. After ascertaining the pupil's level of career maturity, the counsellor can identify the next career relevant task to be accomplished. If student's are career immature, specific steps can be taken to make them aware of the stage related behaviours they need to acquire and suggest potential ways for doing this.

The majority of high school pupils are career immature, in that many have little information about careers and occupations and lack the skills to plan ahead. Assessment of career maturity then emerges as an early step in assessment for career counselling and for counselling concerning further education. If a pupil scores low on scales that assess planning and exploration, then counselling needs to concentrate on the arousal of interest in careers and career planning. Exploring some field that appears to be of current interest in such a way as to develop more awareness of the need to plan may be more helpful than trying to help the student narrow a choice to one occupational preparation programme (Brown *et al.,* 1990 : 244-246).

In conclusion, the developmental theories are well suited for a career education programme that is dependent on group guidance. The initial teaching relates to the teacher identifying the developmental process of career decision-making and the responsibility of each pupil for his or her own progress. The fexibility suits large classes as they can be divided into groups of pupils who are at similar stages or have the same needs. The cyclic progression means that pupils can fit in at whatever stage of development they have reached.

3.2.3 Holland's Personality Theory

John L. Holland considers personality style to be the major determinant of vocational decision-making and development. He proposes that personality develops as a result of the interaction of environmental and genetic factors. From this interaction the individual develops a preferred personal style, or `modal personal orientation' as he calls it, which can be classified in terms of six different personality types. According to Holland the individual chooses a work environment which satisfies his particular personality style. Work environments can be classified into categories similar in their requirements to the six personality orientations. Since successful performance in each work environment rests upon specific abilities, values, and attitudes, a direct relationship between personality style and work environment is specified in Holland's theory. In addition, a hierarchy of job levels within each occupational environment is developed in which levels of intelligence and individual self-evaluation are the determinants (Harris , 1997 : 23) .

The difference between Super's self concept and Holland's congruence theory is that where Super claims his interest is in the nature, sequence and determinants of the choices that constitute a career over the life span, Holland is concerned with the implementation of an occupational self-concept which tends to be a single, matching process.

(1) Basic Assumptions

Four basic assumptions underlie Holland's theory (Gibson & Mitchell, 1986 : 291):

- occupational choice is an expression of personality
- occupational stereotypes develop
- the personalities of individuals in the same occupation correspond, and,
- individuals working in the same occupational environment, with the same personality traits, are inclined to react in a similar way to most situations

Holland thus proposed a strong link between interests and personality, thus concluding that measures of interest are in fact measures of personality.

(2) Principal Features

The first feature of Holland's theory is his claim that most people can be categorised as being one of six types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional.

The realistic type

The realistic individual prefers activities that involve the systematic manipulation of machinery, tools or animals, and shows a clear aversion to educational, intellectual, social and creative activities. A lack of social, educational and verbal skills may be experienced. A draughtsman is an example of this career.

The investigative type

This type is characterised by a preference for the systematic investigation of the physical, biological and cultural phenomena. They often lack leadership skills. Careers include being a physicist or chemist.

The artistic type

Artistic individuals tend to be expressive, non-conforming, original and introspective and lack clerical skills. Occupations relating to this type are interior decorating and journalism.

The social type

The social type shows a definite preference for working with people, by forming and training them or by caring for them. These people tend to lack mechanical and scientific ability. They choose careers involving people e.g. nursing.

The enterprising type

The enterprising person can be identified by his or her ability to motivate others toward the attainment of a common goal, often economic in nature. What they lack is scientific ability. Businessmen, lawyers and sales persons fit into this type of occupation.

The conventional type

These people enjoy systematically manipulating data, filing records or reproducing materials and avoid artistic activities. This type prefer occupations such as accountancy and business administration (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 42, Gevers, 1992 : 6-7).

The hexagon below graphically represents the relationships between the constructs in Holland's theory (Crites, 1969 : 114-116).

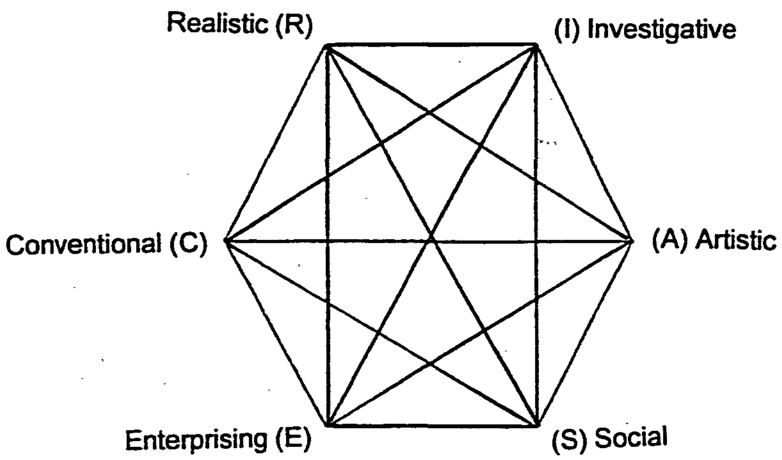

FIGURE 8

Holland's hexagonal model of interest (Gevers, 1992 : 4)

Holland suggests that, while one of the six types usually predominates in people, there are also subtypes, or personality patterns that provide more complete descriptions. Such patterns profile individuals according to the typology. A person's complete profile would include characteristics of all six types, but subtypes are developed on the basis of the three most prevalent types to be found in the individual. The Holland profiles are called three-letter codes and have become a kind of shorthand for characterising people as well as occupations (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 41).

Another feature of Holland's theory is that unique work environments are created by the interaction of the people who work there (Gibson & Mitchell, 1986 : 291). Using the same constructs which he used to define the personality types, Holland describes six environment types (Gevers, Du Toit & Harilal, 1992 : 7).

The realistic environment

This environment promotes technical skills. It is an environment for the orderly and systematic use of tools and machinery.

The investigative environment

The predominant characteristic of this environment is the systematic and creative investigation of physical, biological and cultural phenomena.

The artistic environment

This is a free, unsystematized and creative environment.

The social environment

A genial atmosphere in this environment generates social skills.

The enterprising environment

A competitive atmosphere and high levels of tension are not uncommon in this environment.

The conventional environment

In this environment individuals are expected to conform to set demands.

The interaction between personality and the environment is the determinant of an individual's behaviour. Career stereotypes have reliable and important psychological and sociological meanings. Predictions about occupational choice can be made on the basis of information about the personality type and the occupational environment (Gevers *et al.*, 1992 : 7-8, Gibson and Mitchell, 1986 : 291).

A third feature of Holland's theory is the identification of five key concepts. He uses the spatial representation of the hexagon to define the concepts: consistency, congruence, differentiation, identity and calculus.

The concept of consistency applies to personality as well as to the environment type and is defined as the degree to which an occupational profile is internally consistent. A high degree of consistency is an indication that the skills, interests and values relate well to one another, the person and the environment and will thus be more predictable (McDaniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 40).

There is congruence when individuals live and work in an environment that is identical or similar to their own types (Gevers *et al.*, 1992 : 10).

Differentiation is regarded as the degree to which the three highest scores of an individual's interest profile or an occupation's profile differ from one another. Some people and environments are very pure. In contrast, a person who resembles many types or an environment that is characterised by about equal numbers of the six types, is undifferentiated or poorly defined (McDaniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 40).

The degree of an individual's occupational identity can be seen by the extent to which he or she has a clear and stable vision of his or her goals, interests and talents. Similarly, the occupational environment has a high level of identity when there are clear, consistent and integrated objectives, tasks and rewards which remain stable over a long period (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 44).

The final concept is calculus and this explains the internal relationship of the theory as well as providing a graphic representation of the degree of consistency within or between a person or an environment (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 46).

(3) Practical Applications

Although there is criticism that Holland's theory does not suggest specific techniques according to which career guidance can be conducted, it does describe testable constructs and their functions that underlie occupational behaviour. His theory is also well integrated with psychometric instruments: the Self Directed Search; a classification system, namely the Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes; as well as a computerised career guidance system, the Discover Career Guidance System (Gevers, 1992 : 15).

Holland's theory provides a link between the individual and the world of work in the form of Holland's Occupational Classification. This integrated co-ordinated and systematic coding system is straightforward and easy to understand and use. Holland suggests three ways (Harris, 1997 : 28):

- for organising occupational information:
  The library and career information material can be filed according to the occupational classification system.
- for analysing work histories:
  Students can analyse a working history classifying the jobs according to Holland's Hexagon. They can predict future jobs according to previous patterns.
- developing a plan for occupational exploration:
  Students can use their three-letter code as a start for exploring career literature, work experience placements and interviews with working

people. They need to return to their code between each exploration to confirm which way they are tending.

The Self Directed Search is the most widely used measure based on Holland's system in South African institutions. It is easy to complete and relatively simple for students to score, and easily accessible to career counsellors.

3.2.4 Roe's Need Theory

Anne Roe's theory of occupational choice assumes a relationship between certain childhood environments, need development, personality and ultimately, job choice. She claims that the inherited psychological structure of a person interacts with environmental conditions to create a need structure within each individual. The individual then seeks to meet these needs in a work environment (Harris, 1997 : 28).

(1) Characteristics of the Theory

Roe has delineated a two-dimensional classification of occupations by field and level. She divides occupations into eight groups and attributes six levels to each group. The groups are differentiated by the primary focus of activity, and the levels are based on degree of responsibility, capacity, and skill. Examples of groups are service, organisation, technology and general culture, and the levels within each group are arranged in a hierarchy from 'professional and managerial' down to 'unskilled' (*ibid.*).

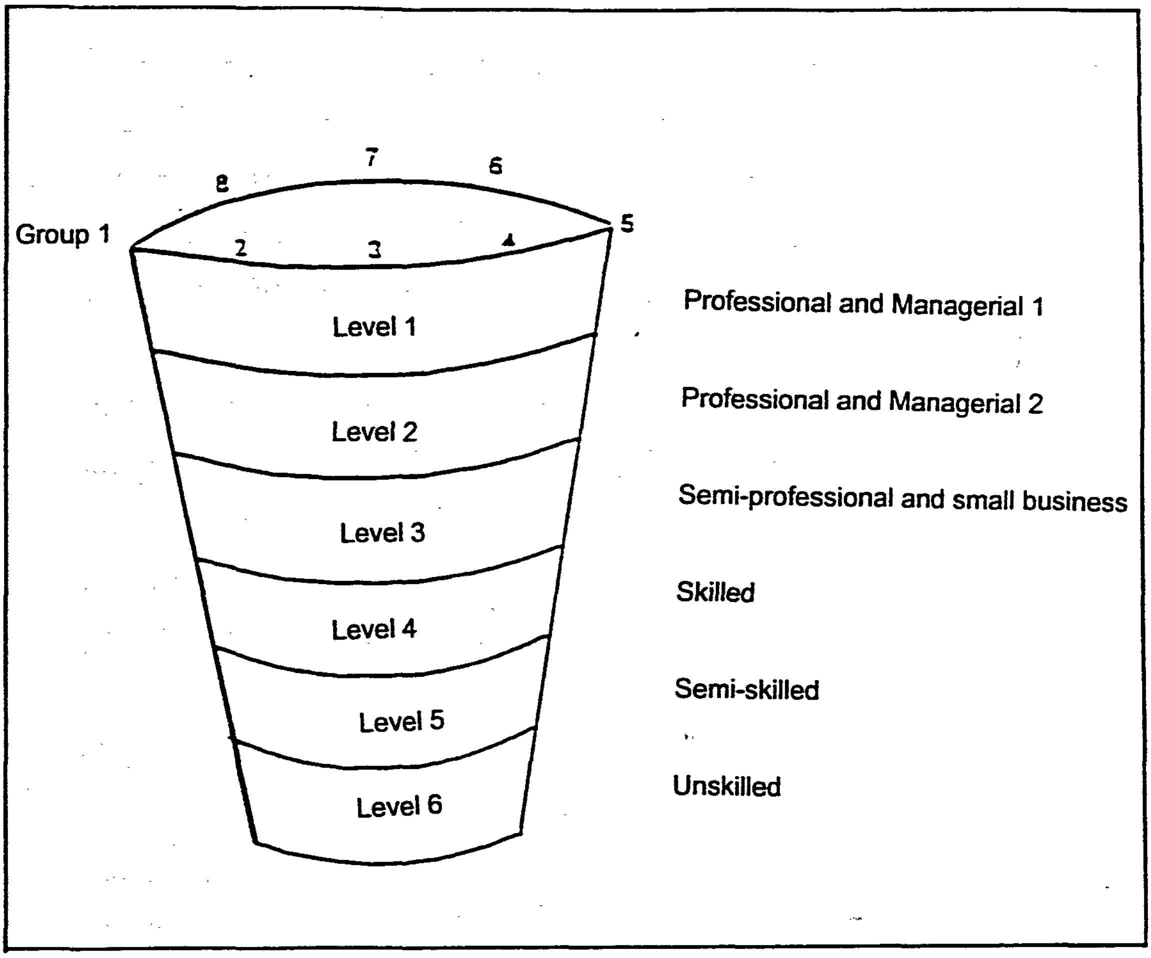

FIGURE 9

Three-dimensional conceptual model of occupational classification

(Brown *et al.,* 1990 : 82)

Roe's theory is entitled a 'need' theory and contains five propositions on the origin of needs. These are (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 74-75):

- Genetic inheritance sets limits on potential development.
- Socio-economic factors, culture, sex and other environmental factors are also influences.
- The relationship between personality and perception.
- Where attention is directed - this determines interest.
- The intensity of needs and their satisfaction determines the degree of

motivation that leads to accomplishment.

Roe thus emphasises the complexity of factors which impact on each other and in their interaction leads to the development of predominant needs that will seek expression in career development. Roe considered the crucial influence of parental-child rearing style on the orientation of offspring toward or away from people in their occupational choice:

'*...there are relationships between psychic energy, genetic propensities, and childhood experiences that shape individual styles of behaviour, and that the impulse to acquire opportunities to express these individual styles is inherent in the choices made and the ensuing career behaviour*' (Herr and Cramer, in Gibson and Mitchell 1986 : 291).

(2) Applications

Since Roe's theory emphasises the interrelationship between both intra-psychic and environmental factors, career counsellors have become more conscious of investigating the various influences on the decision making process. The orientation toward or away from working with others, the needs for or away from autonomy become important considerations to bear in mind. Further applications of her framework are diverse and widespread and include interest assessment, teaching and decision-making strategies, career development research, and the daily practice of career counselling.

Locke, Super and Katz link values to needs. Super claims that . . . '*values are objectives that one seeks to attain to satisfy a need*' (Langley, 1992 : 2). All see values and needs as having a bearing on preferences for ideals and lifestyles. Roe's theory contributes to the understanding of how values and needs are formed and how these stimulate the individual to prefer one occupation to another (Crites, 1969 : 93).

3.2.5 Tiedeman's Career Decision-making Model

Tiedeman, together with other colleagues, among them O'Hara and Miller-Tiedeman, has advanced some important ideas influencing the way career behaviour evolves. Many other theorists have been concerned primarily about the exploration or anticipation of choice but not with what happens when one tries to implement what has been chosen.

Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963 : 82) designed a model to fulfil an observation that educational or occupational choice is related more to personality than to abilities and aptitudes. It is a model of *how* people decide, not *what* they choose. They claim that abilities and aptitudes do make a difference in how well a person does in an educational or occupational group, but personality, values and interests, more than abilities and aptitudes, influence what a person actually does. Their theory highlights the personal processes involved in career development, particularly those of growth, choice, willingness, capacity to adapt and change, and continued self-exploration and self-renewal (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 308). They advocate the complementary use of all the theories and models of career decision making.

In his more recent work, Tiedeman with others, including Miller-Tiedeman have been increasingly concerned with emphasising the power of the individual to create a career and in advancing notions of autonomy, competence, and agency as major aspects of such processes. In so doing, Tiedeman and his colleagues are increasingly emphasising the holistic nature of the human career and the need to see career development as a whole.

(1) Characteristics of the theory

The main characteristic of this approach is that it is holistic and addresses the role and process of personal choice and decision making in career development.

Tiedeman and O'Hara noted that (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 312):

'career development grows out of a continuously differentiating and reintegrating ego identity as it forms and reforms from experience as a self-organising system. Differentiating is a matter of separating experiences; integrating is a matter of structuring them into a more comprehensive whole.'

Differentiation originates in various ways. Experiencing the need for making a choice triggers the onset of rational differentiation. According to Mc Daniels & Gysbers (1992 : 57-58) the steps that follow are:

STEP 1: <u>Anticipation or pre-occupation</u>

- Exploration (developing awareness)
- Crystallisation (organising of information, making distinctions between alternatives)
- Choice (including consideration of consequences)
- Clarification (of issues that rise as a person moves towards implementing a choice)

STEP 2 : <u>Implementation or accommodation</u>

- Induction (in contact with reality of setting)
- Reformation (becoming more assertive and adaptation of identity)
- Integration (of personal identity with others in settings).

The above steps make Ginzberg's analysis of occupational decision making more explicit. Each step in this paradigm represents a discrete change in the psychological state and the quality of each decision is different at each stage. The changes are neither instantaneous nor irreversible (Lewis *et al.*, 1986 : 192).

This model of differentiation and reintegration can be used to understand the organisation of the self and the environment. The constructs help a person to assess and define career direction. They also help the individual understand the basis of this career direction. This basis and its understanding are linked to the career identity. By understanding the basis of how an individual defines his or her career, the degree of openness a person has toward change of career is located. The degree of openness is a function of a person's belief system (Brown *et al.*, 1990, 312-317).

The theory of Tiedeman and O'Hara is not one that allows another to predict the behaviour of a subject, rather it is a value-functioning model that allows a person to put his or her decision-making into perspective for himself or herself, and in so doing it distinguishes between *common reality and personal reality*. They differentiate between what is commonly accepted and prescribed and what the individual feels and values. The aim is to make the individual come to understand what occurs as he or she thinks, and how decisions are influenced by the common reality. With this kind of awareness and confidence, the personal reality will then reign over common reality.

(2) Applications

This model has been used as the core design in computer programmes for career decision-making. Programmes are designed to increase the 'I' power of the pupils by helping them (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 336):

'... assess their core functioning with regard to ego development, values development, and decision development, and decision development. In so doing, the learners have a choice. They can decide to live the "I" power idea and go on to unite their ego and values developments through further comprehension of their decision making, or they can discard the idea.'

Tiedeman and O'Hara hold that the aim of career counselling is to help people better understand the dynamic process of career development (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 317). Because decision making is related to personality and the development of values, an important objective is to provide experiences to people that contribute to their emotional maturity, self-concept, and values orientation (McDaniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 59). Personal development and individual responsibility for career decision-making are stressed in this holistic model. Making choices is the responsibility of the chooser. After giving clients the necessary tools, guidance teachers should encourage them to make their own decisions. (McDaniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 60). Career decision-making is an ongoing process and the search for resolutions will continue throughout the individual's lifetime. There is no better place to begin to understand and learn this process than at school. In a relationship that shares the responsibility for learning career related skills, the pupils will assume more and more responsibility for their decisions as they identify their personal reality based on their value system.

3.2.6 Crites' Comprehensive Career Counselling

Crites (1981 : 40) considers all the major approaches to career counselling and declares that not one is sufficient in itself to address all the needs and challenges of present day career decision making, but says that each method has something unique to offer to a comprehensive approach. The most interesting aspect for this project is Crites's formulation of a model of Comprehensive Group Counselling that has both conceptual soundness and practical utility.

(1) Model

The difference is between content and process. Traditionally, the focus of group career counselling has been upon content, i.e. usually scores of one sort or another. The difficulty with this approach is that first, each group member's profile is different, and second, as a consequence, the group process typically devolves into a dialogue between the counsellor and each client separately. It is tantamount to doing individual career counselling in the group context, which violates a common model for group interaction.

(2) Methods

By concentrating on career choice process, rather than content, interaction among group members can be facilitated by assessment methods that measure the critical attitudes and competencies in career decision-making.

Career choice attitudes are (Harris, 1997 : 36):

- Involvement in career decision-making
- Independence in career decision-making
- Orientation to career decision-making
- Compromise in career decision-making
- Decisiveness in career decision-making

Career Choice Competencies are:

- Self-appraisal
- Occupational information
- Goal selection
- Planning
- Problem solving

Discussion of these attitudes and competencies is general, although each group member has her or his own configuration of scores indicating areas of maturity and immaturity. By outlining the process of career decision-making each group member learns the ideal way to make a career choice and, at the same time, to identify personal strengths and weaknesses. These can be discussed by the group and they can suggest ways of becoming more career mature. Thus all group members are involved, along with the counsellor, in what becomes the career choice process per se (Crites, 1981: 218-219).

(3) Materials

To make the discussion specific, scores can be interpreted to elucidate the career choice process variables (attitudes and competences) and other tests and inventories which measure career choice content can be taken when appropriate. Having gained some group cohesiveness through discussion of the decision-making process, career choice content problems can now be introduced without the interpretation becoming a dialogue between the counsellor and a particular client. Hoyte (in Crites, 1981 : 219) has reported that concurrent individual and group counselling is more effective than either alone. This may be particularly true when the group deals with career choice process issues than the individual interview with career choice content problems.

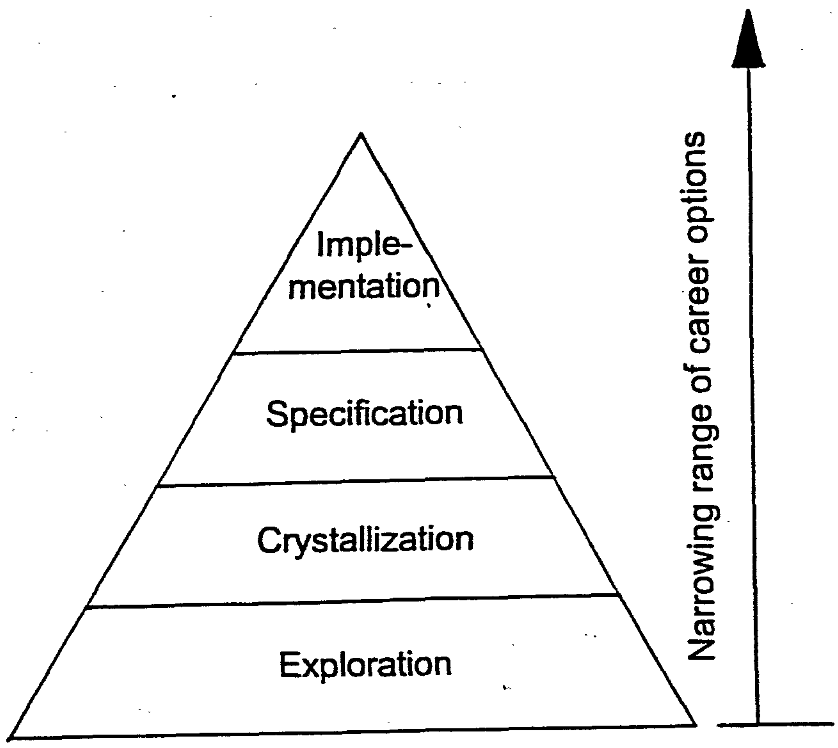

FIGURE 10

Model for a comprehensive career development programme in higher education

(Crites, 1981 : 221)

3.2.6 Programmatic Approaches

These are pen-and-paper tests such as the Self-Directed Search and a variety of computer-assisted approaches. Research shows that most of them produce some kind of change in career development as a result of the intervention. There is evidence that programmatic interventions can impact on the process of career development.

A variety of interventive methods can be used to implement a programmatic approach to Comprehensive Career Counselling in schools. A typical plan is to begin with needs assessment. Both measures of career content and process can be administered, but with the focus upon the latter to identify areas of career immaturity in making decisions. Interventions are then designed for both individual and group participation to facilitate career development where it is needed. Activities are organised to correspond to each of the dimensions of career maturity as measured.

3.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHOICE OF A CAREER OF AN ADOLESCENT

Ideally the adolescent should choose a career which matches his abilities, interests and personality and which promotes the development of a positive self-image. Such an ideal is, however, not always easily achieved, because the choice of a career is influenced by the following factors.

3.3.1 Social change and the community

According to Conger and Petersen (1984 : 67), some American youths in the 1960's associated the business world with exploitation of the worker and the community, indifference to social problems and the restriction of personal freedom and individual expression. The majority of young people, however, still believed in the traditional 'work ethic,' i.e. that competition leads to excellence, that it is necessary to save for a rainy day and that hard work leads to success and prosperity. They also looked forward to pursuing a career.

In contrast to the 1960's, the 1970's were characterised by a large number of students who regarded their higher education not so much as a period of self-discovery, but rather as a period during which they received training for a career they had chosen. When choosing a career, values such as self-fulfilment, personal satisfaction and financial reward were emphasised more than in the previous two decades. They felt that a career should also present them with an opportunity to reach the highest rung of the success ladder.

In present-day societies, the adolescent has a large number of occupations to choose from, and because of this the adolescent, in most cases, does not have a clear idea of what the various careers entail. There is also little opportunity for him to gain direct experience or knowledge of certain careers. Although it is generally accepted that job experience promotes knowledge of occupations and that it could also ease the transition from school, university or college to the business world, the research done by Steinberg, Greenberger, Garduque, Ruggiero and Vaux (1982 : 385-395) revealed the following :

Part-time work promotes the development of personal responsibility but not social responsibility; it promotes the development of autonomy more in girls than in boys; it leads to decreasing involvement in school, family and peer matters; it leads to the development of a cynical attitude towards work; and it leads to an increase in cigarette smoking. It could, therefore, be said that the disadvantages of early job experience far outweigh the advantages.

There is, however, limited employment opportunities for semi-skilled and unskilled workers, and unemployment is generally increasing in modern societies. This state of affairs may be attributed to the following factors :

- As a result of technological progress, specialisation has increased, and thus the need for specialised training.
- In certain areas, society's needs have changed or diminished and there are too many people qualified for careers that now need fewer people, or these careers have become obsolete.
- Young people choose the careers that offer the most employment opportunities at the time, in order to avoid unemployment, but it is difficult to predict whether or not these careers will continue to offer the same employment opportunities in the future.

In the light of these circumstances, it has become necessary to view the chosen career as not necessarily permanent and to keep various other possible careers in mind (Liebert & Wicks-Nelson, 1986; Rogers, 1985).

3.3.2 Sub-cultural influences

The adolescent's choice of a career is related to his socio-economic background. Young people from higher socio-economic classes tend, for instance, to choose careers with high prestige value. The fact that there is a link between socio-economic class and the choice of a career may be attributed to the following:

In certain socio-economic classes particular occupations are better known than others; occupations have a social value and status and certain occupations are seen as more suitable for a particular socio-economic class; parents from the middle and higher socio-economic classes tend to expect more from their children than parents from the lower socio-economic classes; parents from the middle and higher socio-economic classes are also better able to provide information on high-level occupations and to finance the education needed for such occupations. Furthermore, adolescents tend to pursue the same or related occupations as their parents (Sarafino & Armstrong, 1980 : 89).

School children in non-western cultures who are in a transitional stage between traditional and Western cultures are, according to Garbers (1971 : 67), also inclined to strive towards the lifestyle of the more advanced culture and often have unrealistic career aspirations. Thom (1988) could find no difference between White and Black South African adolescents as far as the level of career identity development is concerned. The adolescents in both cultural groups were equally certain of which career they wanted to pursue.

3.3.3 Sex differences

In the past a man's choice of a career was regarded as more important than a woman's, since it determined both his and his family's social status. A woman's career was seen as something to do before she married. Significant changes in career possibilities for women have since taken place as a result of changes in a woman's status in the husband-wife relationship, changes in the family and in society, the emphasis on individualism and self-fulfilment, more support systems for a working woman, greater financial needs and the influence of the women's movement. Nowadays more young girls are undergoing tertiary training and becoming professional career women before marriage and are thus marrying later, and more women are returning to the working world after the birth of their children (Lloyd, 1985; Sebald, 1984). The increasing rate at which women are becoming career-orientated is also apparent in the fact that no sex differences between White and Black adolescents were found in the level of their occupational identity development (Louw, 1995 : 436).

More young girls are now entering occupations that were previously reserved for men, for example, engineering. Women, however, are still a minority in many occupations, for example, medicine, law, and engineering. The choice of a career is thus still influenced by the traditional sex roles. From an investigation conducted in 1977 (Gerdes, 1980 : 763-766) it appeared that the career choice of adolescent boys were predominantly in favour of professions needing skilled labour (e.g. electricians, carpenters, mechanics, engineering and law), while the career choice of girls was predominantly in favour of the service professions (e.g. teaching, nursing and social work). The Institute of Manpower Research of the Human Sciences Research Council also found, according to Gerdes, that the reason why young girls do not often choose certain professional and technical occupations is not because they lack the necessary skills and abilities, but rather that they are not socialised enough to see that such occupations are open to them.

According to Mussen, Conger & Kagan (1979 : 121), 'fear of success' is another reason why young girls are not motivated to enter certain high-level occupations. Such fear is based on the perception that success in such occupations could lead to social rejection because these occupations are regarded as unfeminine. Fear of success occurs more often in occupations traditionally regarded as masculine as those that involve aggressive competition.

Although career choice differences between the two sexes are diminishing, a man's role is seen primarily as that of breadwinner and a woman's role as that of marriage partner and mother. Her pursuance of a career is perceived as being of secondary importance. The woman who pursues a career has to bear in mind that her career role must somehow or the other be incorporated into her role as marriage partner and mother. This makes a girls choice of career more difficult and necessitates realistic career guidance and preparation. The role of a woman could possibly in future be seen as that of 'a married career woman with children.' New concepts about the respective roles of men and women are developing, and this could also affect the choice of career (Lambert, Rothschild, Altland & Green, 1978 : 148).

3.3.4 Parental influence

No matter what their social class and IQ may be, adolescents generally have high career ideals when their parents have high ideals for them and when their parents encourage them and reward them for good educational achievements. (Reward here refers not to concrete rewards but to recognition.) When the parents of White Afrikaans-speaking and Black adolescents act democratically and the parent-child relationship is characterised by mutual understanding and a feeling of closeness, the adolescent's development of a career identity is promoted (Louw, 1995 : 437).

- *The father's influence.*

  The father's occupation exerts a powerful influence on the son's career performance, because the son is familiar with the occupation and can thus more easily identify with his father. An adolescent boy whose father is a strong and positive role model usually adjusts more easily to his occupation than when his father has been absent and has been a poor or negative role model (Mussen *et al.*, 1984 :132).

- *The working mother's influence.*

  Adolescent girls and boys' view of what constitutes a suitable career and sex role is influenced by the kind of mother-role model they know. Middle-class girls, whose mothers work, want to work when they are married and have children. Students, whose mothers work, are less aware of sex-role differences in competence and expression of warmth, usually associated with a particular sex than students whose mothers do not work (Louw, 1995 : 438).

Daughters of working mothers appear to be more self-reliant and active and they admire their mothers (Mussen *et al.,* 1984 : 136). The attitude of girls towards their career, their ideals and their achievements is, however, influenced not only by the fact that their mother's positive attitude towards her own career, her job satisfaction and her achievements but also her ability to combine successfully the roles of mother, career woman and marriage partner. The father's acceptance of his career-orientated wife is also a determining factor.

3.3.5 The peer group and the school

The adolescent becomes aware of certain vocational choices, his interests and abilities through his experiences at school and through communication with teachers and friends. Boys from a lower socio-economic class who attend a middle-class school, tend to have higher educational and career ideals than they would otherwise have. Generally speaking, however, the influence of parents on the choice of a career is greater than that of peers (Louw, 1995 : 438-439).

3.3.6 The mass media

The mass media, i.e. magazines, newspapers, films, radio and television, all influence the adolescent's choice of career. For instance, to recruit staff, industrial concerns possibly advertise only the positive aspects of a particular career, and young people thus gain an unrealistic impression of the career. Even programmes or articles on careers tend to emphasise the positive aspects. The adolescent needs to avoid being misled by the career images that the mass media create (Lambert *et al.*, 1978 : 152).

3.4 ADULTHOOD : WORK AND DEVELOPMENT

To view the importance of work in economic terms only is a basic misunderstanding of what work means for human development; work must also be seen in terms of its satisfaction of various psychological needs. Adults devote a great deal of their time to work; in South Africa an adult usually spends from 1500 to 2000 hours a year on work (Louw, 1995 : 513). Over and above a person's job responsibilities, he will probably spend a considerable amount of time on other work, such as household tasks or community work (e.g. helping to lay out a garden at a new school).

These examples underline the importance of 'work' which may take up a great deal of free time. These examples, however, may create confusion in reaching a definition of 'work' and what the distinction is between leisure-time activities and work. Gerdes *et al.* (1981 : 233) provide these definitions: 'work' refers to purposeful service or productive activity, and 'leisure-time activity' refers to activities voluntarily chosen as a goal in themselves, without consideration of the value they may have for the individual's continued existence or of his obligations towards others.

Work provides a framework for a person's life; it delimits the days, weeks and months of the year, determines most of a person's interactions with other people, and, to an increasing degree, his self-esteem, identity and status in society. In other words, work is not related only to financial welfare and survival, but is also of cardinal importance for adult psychological development.

The most significant social change which has occurred in the past decade is the increase in the number of women entering the labour market. Several factors have contributed to this situation, for example, recognition of the actualisation needs of women, the Women's Movement and its drive towards equal opportunities and status, financial necessity and the acute manpower shortage.

The last factor indicates South Africa's unique problem in this regard. There is at present in South Africa a huge reservoir of human potential, but a limited potential in management and professional skills. Executives and professional people therefore have to carry a heavy load, which, in turn, may cause serious tension. This fact is suggested by the following findings:

Nasser (1980 : 1) contends that in comparison with executives in other countries, South African executives suffer from tension and are overworked. Sadie (1980 : 32) has supported Nasser's contention in his analysis of the imbalance between management and workers : in South Africa there is one manager for every 42 workers, while the ratio in Japan is one to 16, in Australia one to 11 and in the USA, one to six. Stumpfer (1980 : 3) believes that work-related tension in South Africa is taking its toll, as indicated , for instance, by the exceptionally high incidence of heart disease, alcoholism and other conditions associated with stress in executives.

The utilisation of professionally trained women particularly is thus essential to relieve the manpower shortage at management level. Prekel (1980 : 11) provides the following figures to illustrate the increasing number of women in employment: in 1960, 29,2 % of adult women were employed; in 1970, the figure rose to 35,5 % and it was estimated that by 1980 the figure would be 40 % (Sadie, 1980 : 33).

The very noticeable increase has taken place in the number of women in executive positions, as the table below indicates :

Table 1. Executive positions held by men and women (Prekel, 1980 : 11)

YR	WHITES		COLOUREDS		ASIANS		BLACKS	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Wo men
1969	72 891	5 277	236	43	1 338	36	567	20
1975	114 461	10 389	754	308[x]	3 085[x]	67	3 731	75
1977	122 853	15 535	1 017	80[x]	2 901[x]	125	690*	29*
1979	139 994	21 606	1 619	624	3 208	206	2 200	444

[x] The statistics for black executives are given for the sake of completeness although the increase is underestimated since the data for 1977 from Transkei and Namibia are excluded, and in the 1979 review, the independent Bophuthatswana was excluded. These statistics do take cognisance of the large number of Black executives and entrepreneurs. This could also explain other apparent decreases.

* Exclusion of statistics for Transkei and Namibia.

Another striking phenomenon revealed in Table 4 is the very rapid increase in the number of Black women executives. The increasing involvement of women in commerce and industry is undeniable. A woman's career development is, however, somewhat different from that of a man.

The typical work cycle proceeds in certain stages, i.e. choice of a career, training, starting work, the period of establishment and retrenchment.

3.4.1 Career choice

The first stage of the work cycle relates to the choice of a career. There are several factors that make the choice of a career or a change in career difficult. Hurlock (1980 : 89) notes the following :

- the steadily increasing number of careers to choose from
- rapid changes in work skills as a result of rapid technological changes which replace people with machines
- lack of flexible working hours, which creates problems, particularly for married women
- long and expensive training, which makes a change in career difficult
- sex-role stereotypes which limit careers available to either sex
- unfavourable stereotypes regarding certain careers, such as the caring professions (e.g. child care - which has a low status)
- the need to find work leading to a sense of identity instead of making the individual feel insignificant, like feeling part of a machine
- the fact that some careers offer very little security because they are periodic rather than continuous
- ignorance of the individual's capabilities, owing to a lack of experience or poor career guidance
- inadequate education or training for particular careers
- unrealistic career goals carried over from childhood into adolescence
- unrealistic values and expectations particularly regarding job prestige and autonomy in the work situation

Hurlock contends that each generation experiences more problems than the previous generation in career choice, and that the above factors contribute to this state of affairs. Unlike the youth of past generations, there is now a tendency among young adults to experiment with various careers before making a final choice. There is also a tendency to change careers in middle age (Raubenheimer, 1979 : 56).

Holland highlighted six basic personal orientations that influence career choice. His classification of orientations is based on the assumption that the choice of a career is influenced by orientations that are the product of abilities and environmental influences. He classified these orientations as follows (Holland, 1959 : 39-41):

- *The motor orientation.*

Individuals with this orientation enjoy activities which involve physical activity, physical power, motor co-ordination and dexterity. This preference tends to be linked to certain work roles and also to a preference for concrete, practical situations and problems.

- *The intellectual orientation.*

This orientation is characteristic of the individual who prefers to think something through rather than having to actually do it. Such people have a powerful need to understand the world and to organise it. They tend to avoid complicated interpersonal problems and to be introspective.

- *The supportive orientation.*

People with this orientation prefer educational and therapeutic roles and usually possess verbal and interpersonal skills. They tend to be responsible but dependent and they are people orientated. They also tend to be accepting of feminine tendencies and roles.

- *The conforming orientation.*

This orientation is characteristic of people who prefer structured verbal or numeric activities and subservient roles. They achieve their goals by conforming and thus avoiding conflict. Their values and attitudes reflect strong identification with power, externals and status.

- *The persuasive orientation.*

People with this orientation tend to have strong verbal abilities which they use to influence and lead other people or to persuade them to do something. These people avoid clearly structured situations and concepts and tend to have a great need for power, status, leadership and social activities.

- *The aesthetic orientation.*

This orientation characterises individuals who prefer indirect relationships with other people and who avoid complicated interpersonal interactions, very structured and physical activities. Like people with an intellectual orientation, they also tend to be introspective and antisocial. They reveal a strong need for individualistic expression, tend to be more feminine, tend to have poor self control and have a need for direct emotional expression. They are often complex individuals and tend toward emotional instability.

3.4.2 Training phase

Once a career has been decided on, the training phase begins which can be either long or short in duration. In professional training a long period of theoretical study will precede application while other careers will demand on-the-job training mainly.

Various stages of career development fall within the period of early adulthood: starting a career; the period of establishment; the period of mentorhood; and then the period during which the individual is regarded as a senior.

3.4.3 Starting a career

Starting a career may give rise to a wide variety of reactions. It is not unusual for the individual to experience a degree of reality shock (Schein, 1978 : 131), often attributed to the gap between the individual's expectations and the reality of the work situation as it is actually experienced. Adjustments will have to be made regarding job requirements and relationships with colleagues. Coming from a world in which contact was usually with contemporaries, as at school and training institutions, the young adult now moves to a world peopled by different generations. This is the stage Levinson calls 'entering the adult world.'

Schein (1978 : 132) refers to specific tasks the young person has to perform when beginning his career :

- to accept the realities of the work situation, that is, the demands of the situation and the shortcomings of others.
- to learn how to cope with resistance to change.
- to understand how to make optimal use of his talents.
- to get along with superiors and to understand the existing reward systems.
- to attain a balance between adjustment to the existing system and his own initiative, and between too much and too little concern with promotion.
- to avoid self-satisfaction (i.e. an attitude that says 'I have all the answers').
- to develop a work-orientated identity.

At this stage, the individual is a learner. This stage ends at about age 30.

3.4.4 <u>The period of becoming established</u>

The period of becoming established is characterised by increasing efficiency, provided the person has made a reasonable career choice and has invested enough of himself in his work. Eventually a plateaux may be reached when either stability or boredom is reached.

At the beginning of this period a man often has, according to Levinson (1978 : 72), a 'dream' of what he wants to achieve and as he tests his dream in reality, he may have to modify it or even discard it altogether. By the end of his thirties he may have reached the height of what is possible in early adulthood. It is a time when, according to Levinson (1978 : 73), he wants to be his own person. Recognition is therefore of critical importance to him. As middle age is entered, existing values and career are often questioned. This is part of the transitional stage which becomes a crisis point in certain people and which may lead to a change of career.

3.4.5 The mid-career period

A change of career is defined in terms of career categories. When a teacher becomes a school principal, this is not a change of career, but if the teacher becomes the manager of a business, this is a change of career.

Although men do not generally change their careers as frequently as women do, currently there is an increasing tendency towards mid-career change amongst middle-aged men. This may be due to changes either in the man himself or in his circumstances or in the nature of his job. Raubenheimer (1979 : 58) states that it is becoming increasingly acceptable to change one's career for the sake of personal satisfaction and development. Guidance for individuals who want to change from one career to another is, therefore, becoming more and more necessary.

Raubenheimer (1983 : 123) distinguished three kinds of achievement-related patterns and dissatisfactions in middle age for which counselling may be sought:

- the under-achiever who has not reached his potential and feels frustrated.
- the over-achiever who sets unrealistic expectations for himself and so devotes unrealistic amounts of time and energy to the achievement of unrealistic goals.

- The achiever who has reached his peak and is looking for new challenges.

Even though the period between the end of a person's thirties and his early forties is sometimes unsettled, it could become a period of stability in which the individual takes over the role of mentor. Many people in the senior professions reach their peak of functioning only during middle age.

3.4.6 Preparation for retirement

Retirement is the last stage of the work cycle. It has a profound effect not only on the individuals' lifestyle but also on his identity and self-image. As retirement age approaches, the individual should purposefully prepare himself for this last stage of his life. Usually the emphasis falls on financial difficulties that may be experienced and this is indeed an important matter because it affects various basic aspects of life, such as financial security, accommodation, the quality of nutrition, physical care and health.

It is, however, being increasingly realised that retirement also affects other aspects of life that call for adjustments. In the family, for instance, it could be the first time that husband and wife are continuously together, which could lead to increased happiness or increased irritation.

An exceptionally far-reaching adjustment has to be made concerning the use of the additional free time that becomes available during retirement. In this regard, preparation programmes may be very useful. Currently more and more time is being devoted to preparation for retirement, and in South Africa, some large educational institutions such as Unisa and welfare organisations such as the Natal Pre-retirement Council, offer specific programmes in this regard (Stein, 1985 : 168).

Adjustments in the self-image may be particularly problematical, especially in the case of a man whose status and self-esteem derived almost entirely from his career. The sudden loss of his career identity could lead to depression and despair, because his self-esteem drops dramatically when he retires (Steyn, 1985 : 141).

Guidance programmes in connection with retirement are preventive programmes aimed at making preparation for retirement practical and meaningful, so that it is seen not merely as the end of a career but also as the beginning of a new phase of life with its own unique challenges.

In such guidance programmes attention should be paid especially to the following: financial planning, accommodation and choice of residential area, changed marital roles, health, safety, the restructuring day-to-day activities, the re-appraisal of values and religion, and the appropriate legal aspects (Stein, 1985 : 169).

Some individuals look forward to their retirement, others fear it. Many middle-aged people probably have ambivalent feelings towards it, because they are aware that it entails both advantages and disadvantages.

3.4.7 The woman's work cycle

The woman's work cycle differs considerably from a man's, but different career paths occur amongst women also. Jordaan (1977 : 38) identifies three groups of women with different career orientations:

- women who see work as a source of personal self-realisation and whose motivation is based on intrinsic rather than extrinsic factors - this group of women is interested in the development of a career.
- women who enjoy working and who are motivated mainly by extrinsic factors, such as the need for social contact.
- women who prefer not to have to go out and work and who derive more satisfaction from being a housewife and remaining in their community.

Apart from the particular orientation subscribed to, there are two aspects which distinguish the work cycle of men from that of women. An interrupted career is a characteristic of a woman's work cycle. This interruption, which is usually the result of marriage or the birth of a child, may be of short or long duration. Once the last child has entered school, a married woman is able to follow an uninterrupted career. This occurs round about the mid-thirties. Thus at a time when a husband is firmly established in his career, his wife may start her career all over again. Provision, in the form of retraining programmes, for instance, by Womanpower 2000 (a division of Manpower 2000) who devote considerable attention to this matter, is increasingly being made available to women who return to work after a period of interruption.

A further characteristic that differentiates employed women from men in the work situation is the high degree of role conflict which women experience because of the combination of roles they have to fulfil, particularly if they are married and have to care for a home and children. In this regard, Prinsloo (1986) presents a valuable review of these contentious questions in her book *Ek, my werk of my kind?*

Van Rooyen studied the careers of 111 white female graduates working in a research institute, with a view to tracing their career development and the relationship between the various role requirements. Her findings were briefly (Van Rooyen, 1981 : 37-43):

In the age group 21 to 24 the women appeared to be satisfied with their life. They all had academic degrees, were in a work situation in which they could apply their knowledge and many of them believed they would get married.

The group aged 25 to 28 created an impression of restlessness, and in both the married and the unmarried women there were signs of conflict between family and work roles. The married women experienced conflict between their desire for children and their need for further qualifications. The unmarried women were even more restless than the married women, and many of them were eager to start a new life.

Amongst the group aged 29 to 40 there were clear signs of role conflict which influenced their attitude to their occupation. Some women coped with the conflict by accepting routine work and not setting any long-term goals, others accepted routine work as transitory and aimed at continuing their career at a later stage. Others again, combined family roles with their academic and career development, and developed particular strategies, such as studying at night while the family slept which enabled them to do this. The unmarried women in this age group had greater clarity regarding their careers.

Differences between job orientation and career orientation involving long-term commitment and aspirations were also perceived amongst the group aged 41 to 60 years. In many cases certain life crises, such as divorce, childlessness or the fact that they had never married, played a role in the development of a career orientation.

From these findings a woman's work or career role cannot be considered apart from her other life roles. It is therefore not surprising that the problem of women's dual roles is one of the main themes of research on female labour in South Africa (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987 : 133). Although men may also experience a degree of role conflict, their priorities are much more clearly defined by society.

3.4.8 Job satisfaction

Because so much of a person's time is spent at work, the question of job satisfaction is receiving increasing attention. Job satisfaction is promoted when (Hurlock, 1980 : 155):

- the individual's needs and interests are satisfied
- expectations and the reality experienced do not differ greatly
- the job is experienced as interesting
- the individual is work-orientated and invests energy and effort
- the job provides security
- there are good opportunities for promotion
- the working conditions are pleasant
- neither too many nor too few demands are made
- relationships with fellow workers and employers are cordial
- family members, friends and the community appreciate the value of the work being done.

Few jobs have all these positive features. When satisfaction is greater than frustration, the individual will probably not be very motivated to change his job, and *vice versa.*

The individual's level of job satisfaction will also be influenced by his attitude towards his work. Herzberg (1966 : 78) has, for instance, distinguished between two different kinds of motivation in people. On the one hand people want to minimise discomfort and, on the other hand, they want to realise their full potential. The first kind of motivation is related to the so called 'hygiene factor' in the work situation and refers to the satisfaction of basic human needs relating to, for example working conditions and salary. On the other hand, Herzberg refers to the 'motivators' pertaining to achievement and personal development. A person's basic needs may be satisfied in the work situation, but this does not necessarily imply job satisfaction through fulfilment of aspirations. In other words, job satisfaction relates to various aspects and is influenced by the expectations of society and the individual.

There is also a strong link between the individual's work and his identity and feeling of self-worth. For this reason, unemployment may affect the individual's self-image adversely. The unemployed, for instance, may be more anxious, depressive, hostile and dissatisfied in comparison with people who are employed (McLoyd, 1989 : 83).

Family relationships are disturbed especially by a husband's unemployment; unemployed fathers tend, for instance, to be less caring towards their children, to punish their children more and to be less consistent in their behaviour (McLoyd, 1989 : 84).

A distinction must be made between a voluntary change of career and a change through force of circumstances. In the former case, the change appears to be the result of personality factors chiefly, particularly when the individual's personality and occupation are not well matched, possibly owing to a poor choice of career at the outset, or associated changes in the individual as a result of personality development or changed values (Thomas, 1977 : 21). Change brought about by external factors is often the result of automation and the replacement of workers by machines or electrical apparatus, or the result of technological changes so profound that the individual finds it difficult to cope with them.

The woman who returns to work after a long period as a housewife, is also considered as changing her career.

3.5 SUMMARY

On reflecting on the theories and models discussed above there is evidence of movement to a developmental frame of reference and to greater consideration of the contexts of decision making. Previously, the primary task of guidance specialists had been seen as being to diagnose the individual's attributes and to prescribe appropriate occupations. Now, their tasks are increasingly seen as facilitating the individual's decision making processes and developing decision-making skills. However, for the South African situation there is too much emphasis on the one-to-one counselling situation and the expertise of the counsellor. Such counselling is a luxury most South African schools cannot afford. There have been some attempts in the theoretical literature to address the issue of group counselling, for example Crites' comprehensive counselling and the programmatic implementation of the theories of Super, Holland and Tiedeman do offer some solutions.

What is relevant to this research project, then, is that career development should be an holistic, ongoing developmental process linked to the development and growth of the self concept of the individual. Moreover, it should enable students to clarify their personal values and help them make decisions for themselves considering the impact of environmental opportunities and constraints. Since career decision making is not a one-off event, but a series of decisions which continue throughout the life-span, helping the individual to develop ways of making decisions taking into account as many of the variables as possible is an important aim. Adequate work information will enable students to challenge their fantasies about the world of work, to broaden their knowledge of opportunities and limitations and to base their decision-making on the realities of the current situation.

CHAPTER FOUR

SELF-CONCEPT

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SELF-CONCEPT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In fashioning his theory of career development, the pioneer in this field of educational research, Donald Super, appears to have been under the strong influence of the self-concept theory, in which he suggested that behaviour is a reflection of an individual's attempt to implement his self-descriptive and self-evaluative thought. With particular reference to vocations, Bordin (Osipow, 1983 : 152) proposes the notion that responses to vocational-interest inventories represent an individual's projection of self-concept in terms of stereotypes held about occupations. A person selects or rejects an occupation because of the belief that the field is or is not consistent with a self view.

Super proposes the notion that people strive to implement their self-concept by choosing to enter the occupation seen as most likely to permit self-expression. Furthermore, Super suggests that the particular behaviours a person engages in to implement the self-concept vocationally are a function of the individual's stage of life development. As one matures, the self-concept becomes stable. According to Super (Osipow, 1983 ; 153), diverse vocational behaviours can be understood better by viewing them within the context of the changing demands of the life-cycle on the shape of attempts to implement a self-concept.

The fact that most vocational-choice theories are grounded in the self-concept warrants an exposition of the concept of the self.

4.2 SELF-CONCEPT AS A SET OF ATTITUDES TO THE SELF

The self-concept consists of two basic parts viz. a description of one's self and generated emotional evaluations about one's self. The descriptive element is often termed the *self-picture*, or *self-image*. The evaluation is frequently referred to as *self- esteem, self-worth* or *self-acceptance*. The self-concept is composed of all the beliefs and evaluations one has about one's self. These beliefs (self-images) and evaluations (self-esteem) actually determine not only who one is, but what one thinks one is, what one thinks on can do and what one thinks one can become (Burns, 1982 ; 1).

This view of the self-concept as a compound of two elements, self-image and self-evaluation places the self-concept within the ambit of attitude study. Most definitions emphasise that an attitude contains three essential ingredients:

- a belief which may or may not be valid,
- an emotional and evaluative connotation around that belief, and
- a consequent likelihood of responding (or behaving) in a particular way.

The basic components of an attitude are similarly revealed in self-attitudes so that self-concept combines:

- self-image : what a person sees when he looks at himself;
- affective intensity and evaluation : how strongly the person feels about these various facets; and whether the person has a favourable or unfavourable opinion of various facets of that image; and
- behavioural possibilities : what the person is likely to do in response to his evaluation of himself (Burns, 1983 ; 2-3).

Other important areas of self-conceptualisation are academic competency, and adequacy in social relationships. A fuller consideration of the three basic components of self-attitudes would now seem appropriate.

4.2.1 The belief component

The belief knowledge or cognitive component of the self-concept represents a proposition about, or a description of, the individual irrespective of whether the knowledge is true or false, based on either objective or subjective opinion. The belief component of the self-concept is the practically limitless number of ways in which each person perceives himself (Burns, 1983 ; 4). A listing of attributes of one's self can continue *ad infinitum* as the list can conceivably contain all of one's attributes, self-conceptualisations, role and status characteristics, possessions and goals. All these elements can be ranked in order of personal importance since some self-conceptions are more central than others to one's sense of well being, and these may change rank depending on context, experience or momentary feelings.

4.2.2 The evaluation component

These qualities and attributes we ascribe to ourselves are rarely objective in the sense that our possession of them is also agreed to by others. Only in the case of actual age, sex, height, political group membership data etc. will objective data be present. Most data and descriptive attributes carry evaluative and personal interpretative overtones. In other words, the self-concept is a set of subjectively evaluated attributes and feelings. Even such 'objective' data as age and height are affected by gross subjective distortion in terms of their meanings and implications within the self-concept structure. To be aged 40 will be subjectively referred to as being in the prime of life and by others as the start of the decline into senility; likewise, to be 1,5 metres in height can be regarded as acceptable and reasonable by some men but as not being tall enough by others. Most attributes and qualities take on their meaning for an individual through the general evaluation of that quality or attribute in their particular society. There exists a human if rather unfortunate tendency for those who possess characteristics socially valued as undesirable to begin to perceive themselves as undesirable (Burns, 1983 : 5).

The continual bombardment of negative impressions conveyed from the social environment, even not meant to be so, creates a difficulty for those who are physically unattractive, handicapped, socially inept, minority group members to develop positive self-concepts. Even seemingly affectively neutral beliefs about one's own self carry implicit evaluative overtones. To be male or female, white or coloured, a success or a failure, hard-working or lazy, a sportsman or a spectator, tall or short, or any other attribute, involves some loading with evaluative connotations derived from subjectively interpreted feedback from other and from comparison with objective standards and subjectively interpreted cultural, group and individual standards and values (Burns, 1983 : 5).

The terms 'self-image' and 'self-picture' have frequently appeared in the literature with the implication that they are synonymous with the term 'self-concept'. Most writers employ 'self-esteem' to designate the self-evaluation component. By self-esteem, Copersmith (1967 : 4) refers to 'the evaluation that the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds'. Rosenberg (1965 : 30) defines self-esteem in a similar vein as 'a positive or negative attitude towards a particular object, namely, the self. Self-esteem seems to imply that the individual feels he is a person of worth, respecting himself for what he is and the extent to which he feels positively about himself, and not condemning himself for what he is not. Low self-esteem suggests self-rejection, self-derogation and negative self-evaluation.

Three principal points appear pertinent in self-evaluation. First, the comparison of one's self-image with the ideal self-image or the kind of person one would wish to be. This sort of comparison has been a dominant theme in numerous approaches to psychotherapy (e.g. Horney 1950; Rogers 1959) whereby congruence of these two selves is an important indicator of mental health. Even James's (1890 : 16) classic view of self-esteem as the ratio between actual accomplishments and aspirations is a statement of this major point in self-evaluation, the actualisation of ideals. Those who are fortunate enough to live up to their standards and realise their aspirations develop a strong sense of self-esteem. Those who do not measure up to their own ideals are likely to possess low self-esteem.

The second point involves the internalisation of society's judgement. This assumes that self-evaluation is determined by the individual's beliefs as to how others evaluate him. This view of self-esteem was initially promoted by Cooley (1912) and Mead (1934).

The third and final point involves the individual evaluating himself as a relative success or a relative failure in doing what his identity entails. It involves not that what one does is good in itself but that one is good at what one does. The pattern that emerges is of individuals fitting into society as best they can. If roles are played properly then collective purposes are served and individual esteem satisfied. Society provides the opportunities for developing self-esteem, but to ensure this at an individual level it can only be achieved by adjustment to what is provided.

Another factorial approach that demonstrates the attitudinal organisation of the self-concept stems from the work on the factorial structure of motivation by Cattell and Child (1975 : 97). They demonstrate the consistent appearance of what they call the 'self-sentiment'. This pervading self-sentiment they describe as a 'collection of attitudes all of which have to do with that self-concept which the human level of intelligent abstraction makes possible and which we all possess'. Their analysis suggests that this dynamic self-concept is composed of attitudes concerned with the preservation of the physical self, self-control and the need for self-esteem.

A positive self-concept can thus be equated with positive self-evaluation, self-respect, self-esteem, self-acceptance; a negative self-concept becomes synonymous with negative self-evaluation, self-hatred, inferiority and a lack of feelings of personal worthiness and self-acceptance. Persons with high self-appraisal and self-esteem generally accept themselves; those who attribute negative values to themselves have little self-esteem, self-respect or self-acceptance (Burns, 1983 : 7-8).

Two major writers on the self-concept have produced extended definitions of the construct which accord with the view being conveyed in this chapter. Rogers (1951 : 138) states that the self-concept,

'...is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in elation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and the goals and ideas which are perceived as having positive or negative valence. It is then the organised picture, existing in awareness either

as figure or ground, of the self and the self-in-relationship, together with the positive and negative values which are associated with those qualities and relationships as they are perceived as existing in the past, present, or future'.

Similarly, Staines provides a definition which places the self-concept into the realm of attitude study. He states that it is (Staines, 1954 : 87),

'...a conscious system of percepts, concepts and evaluations of the individual as he appears to the individual. It includes a cognition of the evaluative responses made by the individual to perceived and conceived aspects of himself; an understanding of the picture that other are presumed to hold of him which is the notion of the person as he would like to be and the way in which he ought to behave.'

4.2.3 <u>The behavioural tendency component</u>

It is a well-documented fact that individuals do not necessarily behave in a way that is consistent with their evaluated beliefs (La Piere, 1934 : 231). According to Burns (1983 : 7) evidence suggests that quite frequently social constraints (social acceptance of behaviour, overriding moral values, or fear of the consequences, etc.) prevent or modify the direct behavioural expression of an attitude. So the behavioural expression of a specific self-attitude may not always be made. The adolescent schoolboy who, from a variety of sources and causes, has come to regard himself as a 'hard man' may not feel able to demonstrate this behaviour towards his male teachers. Equally a student teacher who regards himself as humane, caring and anti-authoritarian, may have to behave in a different way to become congruent with the rules and ethos of a particular school he or she is attached to (Burns, 1983 : 8).

Attitudes are emotionally formed beliefs directed towards or against something or someone. Self-attitudes only differ from attitudes to other things in that they are reflexive, with the individual being the object of his own attitude. Because of this inward direction, the emotions and evaluations aroused by the belief component are very strong. It is possible to avoid, rationalise, project and use a wide variety of defences to devalue the attitudes of others to oneself. For instance, if you do not approve of the cut of my new suit I can always retort that you have no taste, or that you possess no knowledge of current trends in male dress to offer any valid criticism. But with attitudes to the self, how can one walk away from these with a simple verbal manipulation? Like the person who changes his job, or emigrates, or takes a long holiday to get away from things, you always take yourself with you, there is no getting away from yourself. Escapism is a myth, you are still yourself and how can you fail to recognise yourself (Burns, 1983 : 9)?

4.3 IMPORTANCE OF SELF-CONCEPT

The self-concept is forged out of the influences exerted on the individual from outside, particularly from people who are significant others. These people influence what the individual interprets himself as. Every contact focuses on him as though he were the focus of attention and indicates his degree of competence and worthiness; but from the moment the self-concept is born, it too becomes active in shaping the interpretation of experience. The self-concept appears to have a three-fold role, maintaining consistency, determining how experiences are interpreted, and providing a set of expectancies.

4.3.1 Self-concept as a maintainer if inner consistency

A number of researchers in personality have dealt with the first factor - the idea that human beings operate in ways which maintain inner consistency. If individuals have ideas, feelings or perceptions which are out of harmony or in opposition with one another, a psychologically uncomfortable situation is produced. This psychologically uncomfortable position has been labelled 'dissonance' (Festinger, 1957 : 8). An important aspect of dissonance is that there is a strong motivation to be comfortable, and, as dissonance makes an individual feel uncomfortable, he is likely to take any sort of action that will allow him to feel comfortable again.

One of the first writers to connect this type of reasoning with self-concept was Lecky. It was Lecky's argument that an individual is a unified system with the problem of maintaining harmony between himself and his environment. In order to maintain this type of harmony (it is interesting that the opposite of harmony is dissonance), the individual may refuse to see things in the environment, accept as valid things which other people tell him about himself or he may strive to change things about himself or others (Lecky, 1945 : 53). What an individual thinks about himself is a vital part of inner consistency. Therefore, the individual will act in ways which he thinks are consistent with how he sees himself. If he feels he cannot do a task and that he is 'thick', then he is likely to act and behave in such a way as to come out looking 'thick.'

The use of the term self-concept in the singular is somewhat misleading (Burns, 1983 : 10). We each possess a plethora of self-concepts, some relating to our general behaviour, others to specific areas of endeavour e.g., sport and academic performance. Consider this amorphous blob of jelly.

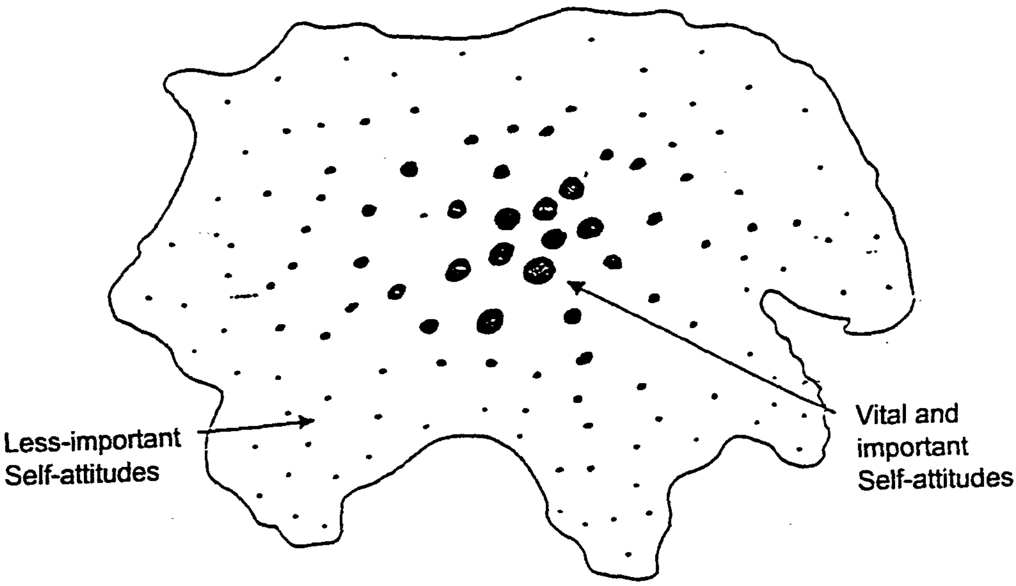

FIGURE 11

Amorphous blob of jelly (Burns, 1983 : 10)

This is a representation of a person's self-concept. It is like a single globule of frog spawn, unified, permanent and firm, held together by dynamic forces yet flexible and resilient enough to be moulded into slightly different shapes by environmental forces. Rather than the one dot in the frog spawn, the self-concept jelly contains many thousands of self attitudes forming a meaningful, integrated system. Some self-attitudes are more important than others and so appear lager and more centrally positioned. Other self-attitudes are less important and take up peripheral positions. Any new experience is interpreted in the light of relevant beliefs and attitudes accumulated within the 'frog spawn'. If the new experience is consistent with existing self-conceptions then it can be incorporated and assimilated enabling the jelly blob to grow a little larger. If, on the other hand, the experience is in no way consistent with self-perceptions, then the outer skin of the blob acts as an impermeable screen to prevent an alien body invading the host. An experience that is only slightly incongruent can be assimilated if the potentially relevant self-perceptions can accommodate to it. In many ways this description is almost Piagetian and the self-concept may be thought of as a complex but inter-related set of schemas. A discrepant experience can be made potentially capable of being assimilated through defence mechanisms too, such as rationalisation. Such mechanisms help to maintain a consistent self-concept in the face of objective evidence to the contrary (Burns, 1983 :10-11).

Secord and Backman (1974 : 46) have suggested several stabilising procedures we use to defend and maintain self esteem:

- We tend to devalue the person who criticise us; we may say that his opinion is not worth listening to in the first place.
- We choose, as far as we can, other like individuals with whom to interact.
- We reject the criticism as unjustified.
- Finally we can accept the criticism as valid.

Not all the separate aspects of the global self are equally relevant, or important, and they may change their relevance and importance from one context to another. This 'context relevant' quality of many self-conceptions helps to explain the paradox of inconsistency. Many theorists promote the view that the organism strives for consistency in self-conception and the voluminous literature on cognitive dissonance suggests the same tendency. The resolution of the paradox that a person may have a number of conflicting self-concepts lies in the fact that the dissonance only exists when both conflicting elements are simultaneously present or relevant and the person is aware of this conflict. The tough, autocratic realist teaching in the inner-city comprehensive may well be a gentle sentimentalist at home. Inconsistency between self-concepts would appear to be normal in view of the wide range of role and diverse contexts each of us is involved in every day. But at the same time there is a tendency to reduce inconsistency where it arises (Burns, 1983 : 11-12).

The differentiation of self-concepts across situations is valuable for it helps to ensure that a negative self-attitude in one aspect may not be easily generalised. A man may see himself as a husband but not differentiate between the numerous roles involved there as father, wage-earner, painter, electrician, toy-mender, gardener, car driver, etc. When such a person is criticised in one of these aspects, the inability to differentiate means that the criticism is of the totality; whereas a man who can differentiate may not be particularly bothered if his inept gardening is criticised since it is separate from his other activities as a husband.

The rationale of dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957 : 83) is that inconsistent cognitions are intolerable and individuals will adopt strategies to eliminate such discrepancies, e.g. rationalising so that someone whose negative opinion about us conflicts with our own opinion is judged as an incompetent assessor or one whose opinion matters little. Discrepancies between different self-conceptions though will often give rise to stress since they may be the result of realistic appraisals in different contexts. Additionally the functional value of some of the self-conceptions may be of a very low order, for whether inconsistency occurs or not depends on the ability to differentiate between particular self-images, and on their importance. James (1890 : 63) with his ingenious formula pointed the way on this choice of what one sets out to be:

$$\text{self-esteem} = \frac{\text{success}}{\text{pretensions}}$$

It is fairly simple to demonstrate that the individual can maintain, or enhance, his self-esteem by reducing the denominator or increasing the numerator. It is the subjective assessment of success in relation to what he wants to be that counts. As James (1890 : 64) so wisely understood, 'our self-feelings in this world depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be or do.' Certain roles, attributes, etc., are not selected as important, hence evaluation on these aspects is irrelevant on most occasions. The selection of certain standards by which success may be subjectively attained is open to all individuals over many facets of life, and this wide choice pushes the evaluation in a position direction. But the freedom to select the issues and the standards they are judged from is not without limitation, since certain facts cannot be evaded. Students with consistently low marks are less likely to consider themselves good students than those with higher averages; a poor man cannot consider himself wealthy; a short man cannot consider himself tall; not as long as they are in contact with reality at any rate. Again self-values might have been chosen before there had been any opportunity to test them adequately. It might become apparent later that the individual did not have enough of the necessary qualities or expertise. Many 'star' pupils from small primary schools have found this to their cost on moving to a large secondary school.

Since man is a social animal and lives in society, he cannot avoid the social and cultural role, value and norms stemming from this environment. He finds himself judged by the criteria of his society and relevant subgroups, not merely those criteria of his own making. If he seeks his own approval and that of the group's he must excel in terms of their values. Certainly it is possible to enhance the self-concept by renouncing society's values and ultimately by abandoning society, but even subgroups outside 'normal' society have certain values and standards of their own, e.g. hippie groups. Self-values cannot easily be manipulated to suit the individual's psychological convenience, but the selection of self-values gives wide latitude because of the huge range of alternatives available and the private nature of self-values (Burns, 1983 : 13).

Interpersonal selectivity is highly limited in childhood. Most communications about oneself at that period of life come from parents with whom one is stuck for better or for worse. If they love him, he is given at the outset a decisive basis for thinking well of himself; if he perceives disparagement and rejection, then it is difficult for the child to avoid the conclusion that he is unworthy. With no options there can be no selectivity.

The work of Hovland, Lumsdaine and Sheffield (1949) like that of Sherif and Sherif (1956), clearly demonstrates that the attitudes that are easiest to change or form are those that are least structured. Sherif and Cantril (1947 : 71) have shown that attitude, once formed, tend to maintain themselves. It is precisely in childhood that the self-concept is most unformed and unstructured. Hence, with parents holding the monopoly of interpersonal communications while the child is emerging into self-consciousness with nothing to base a self-estimate on, their attitudes have powerful significance.

There are important limits on the selectivity of values and standards on which self-attitudes come to be based. Several of these limits are obtained in childhood when interpersonal communications are most decisive in developing self-attitudes. So that despite the theoretical assumption that the individual could lower his pretensions to achieve more self-esteem, living with a particular culture pattern in which evaluations against objective standards are frequently made has real limitations. This makes it easy to see why some people do possess negative self-attitudes despite individual preference to 'accentuate the positive'.

4.3.2 Self-concept as an interpretation of experience

A second reason why the self-concept is a powerful determinant of behaviour is that it shapes the way in which individual experiences interpret things that happen to us. Every experience is given a meaning by the individual. Exactly the same thing can happen to two people, but one will interpret it in one way, and the second will interpret it in another. If a young man offers his seat on a bus to a lady, she might interpret it as a kindly act, an insult to her age and ability, or even an improper advance and call a policeman. Each of these interpretations is dramatically influenced by the view that the woman has of herself.

Just as there is a strong tendency to act in ways which will show that one's behaviour and one's view of oneself are consistent, there is a strong tendency to interpret experiences in ways which are consistent with individual views. This factor makes it extremely difficult to change a self-concept that is formed and operating.

We often think in a naïve way that the only thing we need to do to provide those children currently suffering from a negative self-concept with a more positive one is to give them more positive reinforcement. So we lavishly praise them, or give them some position in class or school that should show them that we feel that they are competent. But there is no guarantee that the child will interpret such actions in the way they were meant. He could well interpret them negatively, saying to himself, 'I must be dim, or else the teacher wouldn't keep trying to tell me I'm not,' or 'since I am thick why is she making me form captain this term? She's got it in for me – just trying to show me up in front of the rest so they can all see how stupid I am.'

There is no action that a teacher can take that a child with a negative self-concept cannot interpret in a negative way. No matter how positively others might interpret the action or how positively the teacher might mean the action, the child can still interpret it in a negative way. This makes the self-concept and the forming of a positive self-view extremely important. The self-concept is like an inner filter – every perception that enters the individual must go through the filter. AS each perception passes through the filter, it is given meaning, and the meaning given is determined largely by the view the individual has of himself. If it is a negative view every experience is stamped with a frown. If it is a positive view, each new experience is stamped with a smile (Burns, 1983 : 14).

4.3.3 Self-concept as a set of expectations

The self-concept operates to determine what individuals do in situations, and it operates to determine how individuals interpret what other persons do in situations. The third part of the self-concept's power and influence is that it also determines what individuals expect to happen. This set of expectancies has been identified by some researchers as the central facet of the self-concept. According to McCandless, the self-concept is 'a set of expectancies, plus evaluations of the areas of behaviours with reference to which these expectancies are held' (McCandless, 1967 : 39).

Children who are anxious about school frequently say something like, 'I just know I am going to make a fool of myself,' or, 'I just know that I am going to fail that test.' While some of these statements are attempts to elicit encouragement, some of them reflect a set of real expectancies. The child views himself in a certain way, and this determine how he is going to develop his expectations, and consequently how he will perform or behave.

People who view themselves as worthless expect other to treat them in a manner consistent with this expectation. Children who have suffered severe maternal deprivation feel worthless and the failure to develop close, affectionate bonds with a mother or a substitute mother results in the child avoiding social contacts as much as possible since these too may lead to rejection. The way self-concept controls expectancies and behaviour leads to a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Every individual carries with him a similar set of expectancies which determine how he is going to act. If he expects good experiences, he acts in ways that bring them about. If he expects bad experiences, he acts in ways which make these expectations come true and then says to himself, 'See, I was right.' Children who perceive themselves as being unlikeable expect people not to like them and then act either in ways consistent with this or interpret everything so that it fits with this expectancy (Burns, 1983 :14).

4.4 THE SELF-CONCEPT IN PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY

Four major theoretical approaches which permeate research and thinking about the self concept are:

- the pioneering work of James (1890)
- symbolic interactionism, particularly by Cooley and Mead (1912)
- the work of Erikson on identity (1968)
- phenomenology, particularly by Rogers (1951).

While many other theorists have discussed the self-concept, it is the four approaches above which provide the most stimulating notions of self theory as pertinent to this research study.

4.4.1 William James's pioneering work

William James was the first psychologist to elaborate on the self-concept. James considered the global self as simultaneously Me and I. They were discriminated aspects of the same entity. A discrimination between pure experience (I), and the contents of experience (Me). However obvious this distinction may seem, it does pose difficulties at the psychological level since the self-reflective act involved in identifying the Me, at the same time indissolubly links and integrates the known and the unknown. Each cannot exist without the other; the self is simultaneously Me and I.

It is impossible to imagine either consciousness in the abstract form without any content, or content existing apart from the consciousness that permits awareness of it. Experience must involve experience of something. James was aware of this criticism and noted that while language allows us to categorise in terms of known and the known, they are only discriminated aspects of the singularity of experience, a global self which is no less than the person himself. James is presenting, therefore, a model of the possible structure of the global self and it must be regarded as just that and not reality.

For James, the self-as-known, or Me, is in the widest sense everything that a man can call his. He detected four components to this objective self which he classed in descending order of importance. These four are the spiritual self, the material self, the social self and the bodily self.

- *James's Law.*

One thing about a complex society is that we can choose between several goals. We can set our own goals, each one related to different components of the self, and evaluate our success at them.

This leads us to James's 'law'. It all depends on what you see yourself as. James elaborated on the determinant of the level of a person's self-evaluation. He argued that it the position a person wishes to hold in the world – contingent on his success or failure – that determines self-esteem. Though we want to maximise all of our various selves, limited talent and time prevent this so each of us has to choose particular selves on which to stake our salvation. Having chosen, our level of self-regard can be reduced only by deficiencies (or raised only by achievements) which are relevant to our 'pretensions'.

For example, if a person 'backs' himself to be first-rate tennis player but is relegated to the reserve team then he will have to do one of three things: a) rationalise his below-par performance, b) lower his expectations, or c) do something else in which greater success is more possible. Expectations are self-imposed and refer to our personal level of aspirations, for what is success for one can be failure for another.

The major difficulty with this formulation is that it assumes that being the best will automatically result in high self-esteem. However, there are some skills and jobs which society does not rate very highly, so to consider oneself as the most competent dustman or café waitress is unlikely to lead to high self-esteem (James , 1890 : 112-118).

However, James did produce a rich and comprehensive formulation of the self as known which included descriptive categories, evaluation and feeling, a view that anticipated future conceptions. He had detected the integrative aspects of the self-concept.

4.4.2 Symbolic interactionists

The study of the self-concept moved temporarily away from mainstream psychology during the first two decades of this century into a more sociological field, in which Mead and Cooley became the major theorists. They were symbolic interactionists, who produced a new perspective on the individual – society relationship.

Symbolic interactionism involves three basic premises. First, humans respond to the environment on the basis of the meanings that elements of the environment have for them as individuals. Second, such meanings are a product of social interaction, and third, these social/cultural meanings are modified through individual interpretation within the ambit of this shared interaction. Self and others form an inseparable unit since society, constructed out of the sum of the behaviours of the humans composing that society, places social limits on individual behaviour. While it is possible to separate the self and society analytically, the interactionist assumption is that a full understanding of one demands a full understanding of the other, in terms of a mutually dependent relationship. Cooley and Mead provided the basic ideas.

(1) *C.H.Cooley.*

Cooley's original view was that individuals are prior to society, but later modified his beliefs and laid a heavier emphasis on society to the extent that 'self and society are twin born... and the notion of a separate and independent ego is an illusion' (Cooley, 1912 : 5). Individual acts and social pressures modify each other. A further shift in emphasis was to come later on when Mead argued that self actually arises from social conditions.

The contents of the 'self as others see you' and the self as you believe you are, have been shown repeatedly (e.g. Sheerer, 1949; Burns, 1975) to be very similar. It was Cooley who first pointed out the importance of subjectively interpreted feedback from others as a main source of data about the self. He introduced the theory of the 'looking-glass self', reasoning that one's self-concept is significantly influenced by what the individual believes others think of him. The looking-glass reflects the imagined evaluations of others about one.

> *Each to each a looking glass*
> *reflects the other that doth pass* (Cooley, 1912 : 152).

This looking-glass self arises out of symbolic interaction between an individual and his various primary groups. Such a group characterised by face-to-face association, relative permanence and a high degree of intimacy between a small number of members produces an integration of individuality and group. The face-to-face relationships within the group serve to produce feedback for the individual to evaluate and relate to his own person. Hence, the self-concept is formed by a trial-and-error process by which values, attitudes, roles and identities are learned (Burns, 1983 : 17).

(2) *G.H.Mead.*

Mead, in agreement with Cooley's conception of the 'looking-glass self', suggested that the self was essentially a social process within the individual involving two analytically distinguishable phases – first identified by James – the 'I' and the 'Me'. Mead proposed that through the learning of a culture man is able to predict other men's behaviour as well as the predictions other men make of one's own behaviour. Not only are objects, actions and characteristics defined (given some shared meaning and value), but the individual himself is also defined. Accordingly, Mead felt that the definition of oneself as a specific role-player in a given relationship was accomplished by recognising and sharing the meanings and values others have of you. This Mead called the 'Me'. That is, Mead saw the 'Me' as representing the incorporated 'other' within the individual.

Mead's 'I' was the perception of oneself as reflected by the shared meanings and values of 'others'. He suggested that the incorporated attitudes (meanings and values) of others constituted the organised 'Me'; that the way one perceived the 'Me' constituted the 'I' and that both combined constituted the nature of self. But the 'I-Me' dichotomy specified by Mead was different in one major way from James's initial formulation. Mead's 'I' was the impulsive tendency, the unorganised, undisciplined, undifferentiated activity of the individual (almost a parallel to the Freudian *id*). Every behaviour commences as an 'I' but develops and ends as a 'Me' as it comes under the influence of societal constraints. 'I' provides the propulsion; 'Me' provides direction (Mead. 1934 : 46). To Mead 'no man is an island' and psychology shows repeated acceptance of the fact that society gives shape and meaning to individual self-conceptualisation.

4.4.3 Erikson on identity

Erikson used the concept of identity in his writings rather than self, and provided an extension of Freudian theory emphasising ego development in the cultural context. He demonstrated (Erikson, 1965 : 248) how culture elaborates an identity, out of a biologically given basis, which is appropriate to the culture in question and manageable by the individual. Erikson indicated that identity comes from 'achievement that has meaning in the culture'. Identity arises from a gradual integration of all identifications, therefore, it is important for children to come into contact with adults with whom they can identify. Erikson described eight stages of identity growth, and detailed the particular conflicts which are characteristic of different stages and the qualities that emerge on resolving these conflicts. Identity is a particular problem in adolescence and Erikson paid considerable attention to the crisis and diffusion of identity at that stage. He defined identity as a 'subjective sense of an invigorating sameness and continuity' (Erikson, 1968 : 19), yet he was somewhat reluctant to provide a tight definition of identity which was not just the sum of roles assumed by the person but also included emerging configurations of identifications and capacities, a function of direct experience of self and the world, and perceptions of the reactions of others to self. It was psychosocial in that it also involves an individual's relationships with his cultural context.

Erikson criticised terms such as self-conceptualisation, self-image and self-esteem, which provide a static view of what he considered an evolving process, 'for identity is never established as an achievement in the form of a personality armour, or of anything static and unchangeable' (Erikson, 1968 : 24). Identity formation, like the ideas of Rogers on self-actualisation, is a continuing process of progressive differentiations and crystallizations which expand self-awareness and self-exploration. A sudden awareness of the inadequacy of existing identity as life advances generates initial confusion followed by exploration of new identities and new ways of being. Erikson claimed that optimal sense of identity means knowing where one is going and having inner assuredness. The specific contents of experience are less important in furnishing the person with an identity than the capacity of the person to recognise continuity – separate experiences belonging to the same being (Erikson 1968 : 25).

4.4.4 Phenomenological approaches to the self-concept

The phenomenological approach in psychology (sometimes called a perceptual or humanistic approach) is a perspective which attempts to understand man through the impressions of the subject and not through the eyes of the observer. It seeks to understand how the individual views himself; how his needs, feelings, values, beliefs and unique perception of his environment influence him to behave as he does. Behaviour is a function of the personal meanings attached to an individual's perception of past and contemporaneous experiences. We cannot change events but we can change our perceptions and interpretations of them. Therapy does just this; it does not 'remove' a problem but enables the client to perceive himself in a new way and cope in more effectively. One of the leading proponents of this ideology was Carl Rogers.

- *Carl Rogers.*

Phenomenology, with the perceived self-concept as its core, was appropriated by Rogers to underpin hid developing client-centred approach to psychotherapy. He was able to describe therapeutic change in terms of a perceptual frame of reference. The present state and formulation of self-concept theory owes much of Rogers's work, and developed out of his experiences with clinical cases.

The self is a concept developed by reflexive thought out of the raw material of the stimulus input. Around the concept gather evaluative and affective attitudes so that each one becomes good or bad. These evaluative terms are internalised from the culture and from others, as well as from self. Rogers's self-concept may be thought of as an 'organised configuration of perceptions of the self . . . It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence' (Rogers, 1951 : 136).

The central points of Rogers's theory (1951 : 487-491; 1959 : 190-193) are:

- The theory of the self, as part of the general personality theory, is phenomenological. The essence of phenomenology is that 'man lives essentially in his own personal and subjective world' (1959 : 191).

- The self-concept becomes differentiated as part of the actualising tendency, from the environment, through transactions with the environment – particularly the social environment.
- The self-concept is the organisation of self-perceptions. It is the self-concept rather than any 'real' self which is of significance in personality and behaviour.
- The self-concept becomes the most significant determinant of response to the environment. It governs the perceptions of meanings attributed to the environment.
- Whether learned or inherent, a need for positive regard from others (acceptance, respect, warmth) develops or emerges with the self-concept. While Rogers leans towards attributing this need to learning, it seems appropriate to include it as an element of self-actualisation.
- A need for positive self-regard, or self-esteem, according to Rogers, likewise is learned through internalisation or introjection of being positively regarded by others. But alternatively, it may be considered an aspect of self-actualisation.
- When positive self-regard depends on evaluation by others, discrepancies may develop between the experiences of the organism and the needs of the self-concept for positive self-regard.
- The organism is an integrated whole, to which he attribute, like the organismic theorists, one dynamic drive – that of self-actualisation – a basic tendency to 'actualise, maintain and enhance the experiencing organism'(Rogers, 1951 : 487).
- The development of self-concept is not just the slow accretion of experiences, conditionings and imposed definitions by others. The self-concept is a configuration. Alteration to the one

aspect can completely alter the nature of the whole. The self-concept thus influences the direction of activity, rather than initiating it and directing it entirely. In this way the self as knower and the self as known are fused. Behaviour is 'the goal directed attempt of the organism to satisfy its needs as experienced in the field as perceived'(Rogers, 1951 : 491).

- In his formulation of the concept of the ideal self, Rogers says that as a result of therapy the perception of the ideal self becomes more realistic, and the self becomes more congruent with the ideal.

Rogers views man's nature as essentially positive, moving towards maturity, socialisation and self-actualisation. He contends that Freud has presented us with a picture of man who at heart is irrational, unsocialized and destructive of self and others. Rogers accepts that a person may at times function like this, but at such times he is neurotic and not functioning as a full human being. When man is functioning freely, he is open to experience and free to act in a positive, trustworthy and constructive manner. 'One of the most refreshing and invigorating parts of my experience is to work with such individuals and to discover the strongly positive directional tendencies which exist in them, as in all of us at the deepest levels'(Rogers, 1961 : 27)

4.5 A POSSIBLE STRUCTURE FOR THE SELF-CONCEPT

This chapter on the theory and structure of the self concept shows us that while many have used the self-concept as a major element in their theories of human behaviour, there is considerable confusion over the wide range of self-referent constructs which some writers use interchangeably, and which others consider as discriminating between subtle aspects of self-conception.

In an attempt to clarify the situation the following structure is proposed (Fig 12) as a summary.

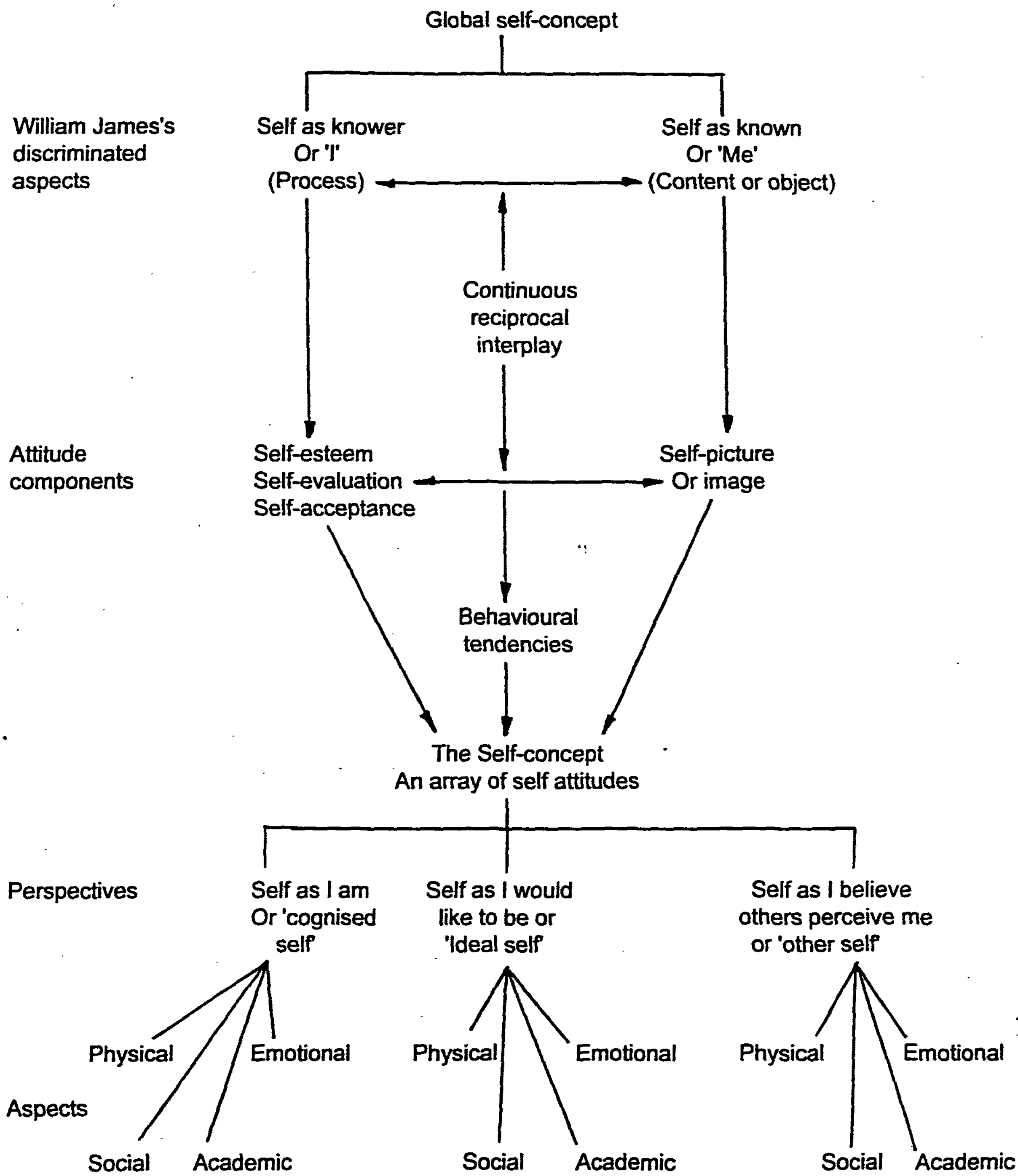

FIGURE 12

Structure of the self-concept (Burns, 1983 : 24)

We can best envisage the self-concept as a hierarchical structure. At the top is the global self-concept which is the total of all the possible ways an individual conceives of himself. It is the 'stream of consciousness' of William James, that sense of continuity and singularity of the individual. It is composed of the two elements first differentiated by James as the 'I' and 'Me'. The 'Me' can only exist through the process of knowing, and the process only has content because the human organism can reflect on self. One cannot exist without the other. Likewise the self-image and the self-evaluation are products of reflexive thought and its processes are conceptually distinguishable but psychologically interlocked. The image and the esteem dispose the individual to behave in a particular way so that the global self-concept can be regarded as a set of attitudes to the self. But these attitudes can be taken from a number of perspectives.

The perspectives, which can be separated, are composed of the following (Burns, 1983 : 25):

- The cognized self-concept, or the individual's perception of his abilities, status and roles. It is his concept of the person he thinks he is.
- The other or social self. This is how the individual believes others see and evaluate him.
- The ideal self. This is the kind of person the individual hopes to be or would like to be

There is considerable problems of definition and use over the construct of the self-concept. In this research study, the term self-concept refers to all aspects of the individual's view of his or her self.

4.6 THE SELF-CONCEPT IN CAREER CHOICE THEORY

(Super's Developmental self-concept Theory)

Super *et al.* compiled the most encompassing of the developmental approaches to career development. Super is particularly concerned with career progression. He used longitudinal studies to develop methods to analyse the relationship between certain life stages and the appropriate behaviours in dealing with stage-related tasks. Super's approach is to synthesise what has been learned about career development by researchers and theorists, and this he did with the work of Buehler and Ginzberg amongst others. Of particular relevance to this research project, is Super's description of the nature of career exploration which leads to the making of career choices.

Super *et al.* were concerned with determining career patterns. Drawing from humanistic philosophy of individual potentials and differences, they were also interested in influences on development by role models and life contexts and developed a theory in the form of 'Fourteen Propositions' (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 43).

To illustrate the complexities of career decision making, Super developed two models. The Life-Career Rainbow and the Archway model are graphic representations of his theory. The Rainbow brings the life-span and life-space into two dimensional perspective and the Archway Model reveals the segmented, but unified and developmental nature of career development.

In relation to this research project some of the more important concepts of Super's theory have been identified and are discussed in greater detail below.

4.6.1 Life Stages

Super based his life-stage theory on typical developmental tasks, with focus on the maxicycle. A maxicycle is a series of life stages characterised as a sequence of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into:

- the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and,
- the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.

A minicycle takes place in the transitions from one stage to the next (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 45). The concept of life stages has been modified in recent years, from envisioning mainly a maxicycle to involving minicycles of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline, linked in a series within a maxicycle. Re-exploration and re-establishment when career shifts are made have thus attracted a great deal of attention, and the time has come to denote these processes. Super says that transitions are considered to be likely several times during a career (Mc Daniels & Gysbers, 1992 : 50).

Super's formulation has sought to make it clear that not only the ages of the transitions are very flexible, but also that each transition involves a recycling through a period of growth in the new role, of exploration of the nature and expectations of that role.

Important too, is the greater emphasis on the fact that the typical impetus for any specific transition is not necessarily age itself, for the timing of transitions (stage) is a function of the individual's personality and abilities, as well as of his or her situation. Furthermore, the popular career-education concept of exploration as something completed in mid-adolescence has been shown to be invalid. Instead, it carries on into the middle and late twenties, sometimes the early thirties, and often starts again in the recycling at later stages. It appears in the form of conventional, unstable, or multi-trail careers and in so-called crisis (Brown, Brooks & Associates, 1990 : 237)

4.6.2 Career Maturity

Career maturity is longitudinal; it takes place over the life span, i.e. the maxicycle, and is linked to the 'life stages and ages' on the outside semi-circle of the model.

Career maturity if defined as the individual's readiness to cope with the developmental tasks with which he or she is confronted because of his or her biological and social developments and because of society's expectations of people who have reached that stage of development. This readiness is both affective and cognitive. (Super, in Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 213) The affective variables are expressed as attitudes and relate to the areas of career exploration and planning. The cognitive variables mostly relate to knowledge: the knowledge of the principles of career decision making and the ability to apply them to the actual choices; the knowledge of the nature of careers, occupations, and the world of work; and knowledge of the field of work into which one's occupational preference falls. The concept of career maturity conveys the notion that there are certain behaviours that describe the individual's mastery of the developmental tasks associated with each life stage. So one can think of career maturity as both a structural and developmental concept because the elements of career maturity can be identified and assessed for particular life stages and they also change in different life stages.

4.6.3 Role Salience

Role salience is the third dimension depicted by the Life-Career Rainbow. It is latitudinal. It is the life space, the constellation of positions occupied and roles played by a person. In the Rainbow major roles are specified: that of the child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker and homemaker.

In a later formulation of his theory, Super reaffirms his developmental approach but makes out a stronger case for the fact that people play particular roles in so-called 'theatres' of life. Specific roles are normally related to specific theatres, but one role can be played in more than one theatre. The various roles interact. The addition of a new role reduces the participation of one or more others and sometimes affects the effective commitment. These various roles can be extensive (supportive or supplementary), compensatory, or neutral. They can also be conflicting if they make inroads into time and energy needed elsewhere. They can enrich life or overburden it. The continuos build-up and decline off particular roles in the life cycle of an individual is related to the stage of life in which a person finds himself or herself and the particular and relevant developmental tasks associated with that stage (Nel, 1988 : 3-4).

Of relevance to this research project are the links between the various roles played by one person. The more effectively an adolescent plays his or her pre-occupational roles, in particular those of student, leisurite and part time worker, the more effectively will such a person be able to make an appropriate occupational decision. The extent and type of schooling and/or training will influence a person's first occupational position and the first occupational position, in it's turn, subsequent occupational positions (Nel, 1988 : 4).

4.6.4 Self-Concept

By far the most central and crucial characteristic of Super's theory is the role he ascribes to the self-concept. Super provides an explicit and detailed explanation of career development by describing how the self-concept includes exploration of the world and the self, self-differentiation, identification, role playing, and reality testing (Verma, undated).

In considering how economic students make a work experience choice and later a career choice, it is relevant to consider Super's views on the implementation of the self-concept in occupational terms. According to him this occurs in various ways: the child's identification with an adult may lead to his playing the adult's occupational role; a person may be cast into a role by chance and this experience may lead to the discovery of a congenial career translation of his or her self-concept; or a pupil may be aware that he or she has many attributes which are said to be important in a certain field of work and this may prompt further investigation which may lead to the belief that the role expectations of the occupation are such that he or she would do well in and enjoy it.

People do not have only one self-concept but rather constellations of self-concepts. Garfinkle showed that high school students' concepts of themselves as students are empirically differentiated from their general concepts and, by inference, from their concepts of themselves in other roles, such as an athlete and child in the family (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 223).

Super's interest in the self-concept led to the most recent developments of the theory as encapsulated in the Archway model. This model represents the dual influences of the personal determinants (the left column) and the family and social determinants (the right column). These dual influences are maintained in some sort of balance by the person's 'self,' which Drever (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 201-202) defines as:

'... *the integrated and dynamic organisation of the physical, mental, oral and social qualities of the individual that manifests itself to other people in the give and take of social life... the impulses and habits, interests, complexes, the sentiments and ideas, the opinions and beliefs, as manifested in his social millieu...*'

This model emphasises both the need for the understanding of personal attributes as well as various familial and societal influences as they impact on the individual. This research project aims to examine career aspirations of students and would impact on students' understanding of both their own attributes and the workplace as well as the interaction of the two (represented by the two columns of the archway).

4.6.5 Decision Processes

Super claims that theorists and practitioners have come to see that decision-making is central to career development and that this has led to a focus on decision-making styles. The life-stage and developmental-task emphasis of the developmental theories highlights the sequential nature of decision making, stressing the ongoing mini-decisions that add up to a flexible maxi-decision. With a changing self and changing situations the matching process is never really completed. Matching occurs only temporarily, when major decisions are made; and even then, minor decisions continue to be made. In the use of the self-construct theory, Super suggests it is the deciding individual...who makes the synthesis or compromise of self and situational data (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 240).

Career education and guidance should therefore take into account the sequential nature of decision-making and equip the pupils to anticipate and cope with the mini-decisions and to make them add up to flexible maxi-decisions. There is also a need for the pupils to be made aware of how the decisions are related to life-stages and developmental-tasks.

4.6.6 Practical Applications

Probably more than ever before, Super's theory seems adaptable for both programmatic and individual use. Super contends that environmental factors, such as social and economic conditions, and genetic factors influence the development of the self-concept. Since the implementation of the self-concept vocationally is considered the very essence of the career choice process, and the self-concept is open to outside influence during the formative years, counsellors can be particularly effective in planning strategies which will affect the career choice process.

Career developmental theory has provided a theoretical orientation for career education in schools. Super claims that the programmes developed need to recognise the individual differences in career development of the pupils and should seek to foster curiosity which leads to exploratory behaviour, autonomy, time perspective, and self esteem. At the same time they should expose pupils to a variety of adult roles (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 243). Crites (1981 : 128) agrees, but adds that a broader, more inclusive goal of career developmental counselling is to further both career and personal development, because work is so central to a person's life.

Super identifies the main characteristics of career development programmes, including those for school pupils. He claims that in any setting, three types of programmes are needed: the designing and monitoring of a development or growth-producing environment, group activities designed to foster career development, and individual counselling :

> *For students, an environment that fosters career development means a curriculum that facilitates growth, exploration of oneself and the world (particularly the occupational world and the educational world that leads to it), establishment in a field of study leading to a field of work, and maintenance of the role of the student (the role of the learner or of the worker in a learning job). Such an environment requires teachers who are interested in human development, as well as subject matter. It means a curriculum flexible enough to foster career development and individual counselling. It will contain resources for exploration and for learning that are varied and attractive - libraries, laboratories, shops and school-community programmes* (Herr & Crammer in Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 258).

It is the function of career development counselling to help students to anticipate career development tasks, to plan how to cope with them, and to evaluate them. A career counsellor can play an important role at a number of junctures in the life-span. Of interest to this research are those aspects that impact on the Career Education Programme of under-graduate economics students.

Exploration in the broadest sense could begin in the middle school, perhaps grade 9, when the pupils are making a subject choice. Exploration in more depth would be appropriate when the pupil appears ready to focus on one or two groups of occupations, and if this proved unsuccessful he or she could go back to broad exploration again. Work experience would be undertaken with a clear understanding that it is essentially in-depth exploration.

Group guidance activities should include both self-exploration and occupational exploration projects. An important objective is an orientation to a career, in the sense of life stages and developmental tasks. Too often career education deals only with occupations and not with career development. Both, in fact, are needed. The group activities should deal with the person (the individuals as related to occupation and to career), with occupation, and with careers. Schedules should be arranged to guide and evaluate career development, with time for monitoring needs and resource provision as well as for counselling.

Because occupational decisions are similar to other life decisions and continue to be made throughout life, group guidance for career development should focus on decision making and learning and practising the skills of decision making. It should take into account the sequential nature of decision making and equip the pupils to anticipate and cope with the mini-decisions that become the basis for maxi-decision making.

Super has collected data regarding the skills, attitudes, and level of knowledge that characterise each development level, therefore assessment can be made of a student's relative level of career maturity. After ascertaining the pupil's level of career maturity, the counsellor can identify the next career relevant task to be accomplished. If students are career immature, specific steps can be taken to make them aware of the stage-related behaviours they need to acquire and suggest potential ways for doing this.

The majority of high school pupils are career immature, in that many have little information about careers and occupations and lack the skills to plan ahead. Assessment of career maturity then emerges as an early step in assessment for career counselling and for counselling concerning further education. If a pupil scores low on scales that assess planning and exploration, then counselling needs to concentrate on the arousal of interest in careers and career planning. Exploring some field that appears to be of current interest in such a way as to develop more awareness of the need to plan may be more helpful than trying to help the student narrow a choice to one occupational preparation programme (Brown *et al.*, 1990 : 244-246).

In conclusion, the developmental theories are well suited for a career education programme that is dependent on group guidance. The initial teaching relates to the teacher identifying the developmental process of career decision-making and the responsibility of each pupil for his or her own progress. The fexibility suits large classes as they can be divided into groups of pupils who are at similar stages or have the same needs. The cyclic progression means that pupils can fit in at whatever stage of development they have reached.

4.7 SUMMARY

The self-concept is the sum total of the views that a person has of himself and consists of beliefs, evaluations, and behavioural tendencies. This implies that the self-concept can be considered to be a plethora of attitudes towards the self which are unique to each individual. The self-concept is important in explaining behaviour because it maintains consistency of behaviour, determines the interpretation of experience, and provides a set of expectancies. James, Cooley and Mead stand out as early influences in this area in the development of theory about the self-concept. Finally, the chapter is concluded by relating the self-concept to the focus of this study by highlighting the importance of the self-concept in Super's career-choice theory.

CHAPTER FIVE

PLANNING OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

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5.1 INTRODUCTION

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 8) define *research* as a systematic process of collecting and logically analysing information (data) for some purpose. This definition is general because there are many methods available to investigate a problem or question. *Research methods* (sometimes called "methodology") are the ways one collects and analyses data. These methods were developed for acquiring knowledge by reliable and valid procedures. Data collection must be done with measurement techniques, extensive interviews and observations, or a collection of documents.

Research methodology is systematic and purposeful (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988 : 197). Procedures are not haphazard activities; they are planned to yield data on a particular research problem. In a broader context, methodology refers to design whereby the researcher selects the data collection and analysis procedures to investigate a specific research problem. It is possible to have a design that provides no valid or reliable data on the problem, but the deliberate choice of a design increases the likelihood that the data will yield information on the research question.

Cronbach and Suppes (1969 : 15-16) further suggest that whatever the character of the study, if it is disciplined, the investigator has anticipated the traditional questions that are pertinent. He institutes control at each step of information collection and reasoning to avoid the sources of error to which these questions refer. If the errors cannot be eliminated, he takes them into account by discussing the margin of error in his conclusions. Thus, the report of a disciplined inquiry has a texture that displays the raw materials entering the argument and the logical processes by which they were compressed and rearranged to make the conclusion credible.

Wiersma (1991 : 8) identifies five steps that characterise the systematic nature of the research process. These are : (1) identifying the problem, (2) reviewing information, (3) collecting data, (4) analysing data, and, (5) drawing conclusions. This chapter is about the third step, i.e. collecting data.

Aspects under discussion in this chapter include preparation and design of the research, permission, selection of respondents, the research instrument, the pilot study, administration of the questionnaire, processing of the data and limitations of the investigation.

5.2 PREPARATION AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 31) *research design* refers to the plan and structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, design indicates how the research is set up: what happens to the subjects and what methods of data collection are used.

The project under investigation involves a survey research. Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 36) explains that in a research survey, the investigator selects a sample of subjects and administers a questionnaire or conducts interviews to collect data. Surveys are used frequently in educational research to describe attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and other types of information.

Usually the research is designed so that information about a large number of people (population) can be inferred from the responses obtained from a smaller group of subjects (sample).

Briefly, this research is designed along the following lines : Chapter one, which introduces the research problem; chapter two, a literature review on achievement motivation; chapter three, literature review on career choice; chapter four, literature review on self-concept; chapter five, planning of the research; chapter six, analysis and interpretation of data, and, chapter seven, summary, findings and recommendations.

5.2.1 Permission

Questionnaires were designed and presented for distribution to the students of the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus. As the University of Zululand served as the source of this research study, verbal permission was received from the supervising professor concerned.

5.2.2 Selection of respondents

(1) Sampling

Slavin (1984 : 98) observes that one very important aspect of research design, especially in survey research, is the determination of the appropriate sample. As the word implies, a sample is a part of a larger whole.

Ary, Jacob & Razavieh (1979 ; 138) point out that inductive reasoning is the rationale of sampling. The inductive method involves making observations and then drawing conclusions from these observations. This is the concept of sampling, which involves taking a portion of the population, making observations on this smaller group, and then generalising the findings to the large population. It is extremely important that the individuals included in a sample constitute a representative cross section of individuals in the population. That is, samples must be representative if one is to be able to generalise with confidence from the sample to the population.

Sowell and Casey (1982 : 75) states that there are four basic types of scientific sampling methods, namely: simple random, stratified random, cluster and systematic sampling.

(2) Simple random sampling

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 161) in simple random sampling, subjects are chosen from the population so that all members have the same probability of being selected. A common type of simple random sampling with a small population is to select names from a hat. With a large population, it is necessary to use a more precise procedure. One such procedure is to use a table of random numbers. A researcher then selects a random starting point in the table and then selects numbers moving down a column or across a row. Another method of drawing a random sample is to use a computer programme that will do the sampling.

(3) <u>The size of the sample</u>

Wiersma (1991 : 264) observes that a number of factors may affect the sample size. In educational research, available resources of time, money, personnel and facilities are often the most influential. Generally, increasing sample size enhances statistical precision. However, it should not be inferred that it is always desirable to increase the sample size to its maximum, since this may be unduly costly and wasteful of effort and information. According to Gay (1987 : 114) for descriptive research, a sample of 10% of the population is considered minimum. For smaller populations, 20% may be required.

(4) <u>Choice and sizes of samples for this study</u>

The questionnaires were completed by all students enrolled at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus for Economics one, two and three during the academic years 1997 and 1998. Provision was made so as not to double count respondents by requesting those that had responded the previous year not to do so again.

5.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 40) claim that there are basically six ways to collect data: observations, questionnaires, interviews, documents, tests and unobtrusive measures. All research uses a variation of one or more of these, depending on strengths and limitations of each and other considerations. The research instrument that best served the needs of this research study was the questionnaire.

5.3.1 The questionnaire

Tuckman (Luthuli, 1990 : 197) stresses that questionnaires are used by researchers to convert into data the information directly given by a person (subject). By providing access to what is "inside a person's head", these approaches make it possible for the researcher to measure what a person knows (knowledge and information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences) and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). The information is transformed into numbers or qualitative data by using attitude scaling or by counting the number of the respondents who give a particular response, thus generating frequency data.

5.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

Behr (Zungu, 1994 : 79) states that the construction of a questionnaire needs considerable thought. The nature, form, and order of questions are very important if meaningful results are to be obtained. He further emphasises that a questionnaire needs to be brief because, if too many questions are asked, the respondent tends to become bored or tired, with the result that those questions appearing towards the end of the questionnaire, are either left unanswered or answered without much care.

Nisbet and Entwistle (Luthuli, 1990 : 194) maintain that the questionnaire may be regarded as a form of interview on paper. Procedure for the construction of a questionnaire follows a pattern similar to that of the interview schedule. However, because the questionnaire is impersonal, it is all the more important to take care over its construction. Since there is no interview to explain ambiguities or to check misunderstanding, the questionnaire must be especially clear in its wording.

Sax (Luthuli, 1990 : 198) states that questionnaires are a way of getting data about persons by asking them rather than by watching them behave or by sampling a bit of their behaviour. In preparing questionnaires, researchers should be very careful. The following criteria ought to be applied:

- to what extent might a question influence respondents to show themselves in good light?

- to what extent might a question influence respondents to be unduly helpful by attempting to anticipate what researchers want to hear or find out?

- to what extent might a question be asking for information about respondents that they are not certain, and perhaps not likely, to know about themselves?

(1) <u>Closed-ended questions</u>

Questions in a questionnaire can be either open-ended or closed-ended. Nachmias and Nachmias (Luthuli, 1990 : 198) assert that in a closed-ended question, respondents are offered a set of answers from which they are to select the one that closely represents their views. Closed-ended questions are easy to ask and quick to be answered. They require no writing by either respondent or interviewer. The analysis is also straight-forward. A major drawback is that they may introduce bias, either by forcing the respondent to choose from given alternatives or by making the respondent select the alternatives that might not have otherwise occurred.

By a structured question format is meant a question that contains specific, mutually exclusive categories of responses, from which the respondent selects the one category that best suits his response.

(a) Advantages

- Structured questions are easy to administer, since they are coded beforehand. Data processing and analysis are also facilitated by prior encoding.

- They are more economical and less time-consuming to administer.

(b) Disadvantages

- Structured questions can lead to a loss of rapport and to frustration when respondents feel that the response options do not accommodate their personal opinions. They are thus forced to make artificial choices which they would not make in reality.

- Structured questions are often less subtle than open questions.

The respondent can thus easily discern the intention behind the question, which enables him to form subjective opinions regarding the purpose of the investigation. This can affect further responses, thus introducing bias into the data.

Opinions vary on the use of structured and unstructured questions. Nisbet (1969 : 75) found little empirical evidence that responses to structured and unstructured questions differ. According to Black & Champion (1976 : 58) both question formats restrict the respondent. These authors found that the confusion about the relative suitability of the formats could be ascribed to the fact that the categories of the structured question are not always properly deduced from the responses to the unstructured questions. They conclude that a properly developed structured question is preferable to an open one.

Some authors choose the so-called "structured-open" form as a happy medium to be used in many instances. A question is compiled according to structured response options, but there is also an open option namely "Other (specify)". Should the respondent consider his opinion to lie outside the structured options provided, he may select the "other" category. Only responses in this category will then need to be classified and encoded later.

The researcher decided to employ mainly structured questions combined with a small percentage of open and unstructured questions.

(2) Open-ended questions

Open-ended questions are not followed by any kind of specified choice and the respondent's answers are recorded in full. The virtue of the open-ended question is that it does not force the respondent to adapt to pre-conceived answers. Further, the open-ended questions are flexible, thereby enabling the researcher to clear up misunderstandings and then encourage rapport.

In an open question the respondent is encouraged to formulate and express his response freely, since this form of question does not contain any fixed response categories. Such questions are typically used to obtain reasons for particular opinions or attitudes adopted by a respondent (van Rensburg, 1994 : 284).

(a) Advantages

- Open questions are sometimes more appropriate than closed questions since they impose no restrictions on the respondent's response. The researcher can thus determine exactly how the respondent has interpreted the question.

- The open question is appropriate where the researcher's knowledge of the subject is limited, or where he is uncertain of the kind of answer that a particular question will elicit.

- Open questions are appropriate where a wide range of opinions are anticipated. Open questions are appropriate for pilot work, particularly with a view to the compilation of answer categories for structured questions for the main study.

- Open questions are also appropriate when 'feelers' are being put out to determine what information the respondent is prepared to divulge, before more detailed specific questions are constructed.

- Open questions have the further advantage that they can help to determine the more deep-rooted motives, expectations or feelings of a respondent.

- Open questions are also more appropriate than closed questions for measuring reprehensible or sensitive behaviour. More reliable information on such matters is obtained through open questions (van Rensburg, 1994 : 285).

(b) Disadvantages

- The use of open questions is time-consuming, uneconomical and limits the number of questions that can be asked before respondent fatigue sets in. Interviewers need to write down responses to open questions verbatim, so that the interview is interrupted by uncomfortable silences required for the writing process.

- The success of the response to an open question depends on the competence of the interviewer. It is one thing to hear the respondent correctly, but another to write down the response accurately. Although reading and writing take place almost simultaneously, valuable information can be lost because the interviewer needs to sift the information (due to the length of the responses). The sifting process is a subjective activity that can adversely affect the validity of the response.

- Open questions can be misleading, since they can create the erroneous impression that the researcher is acquiring profound information about the complex motives and feelings of respondents. An in-depth interview or probing questions are better able to expose underlying complex personality data.

- Open questions do not necessarily produce more specific responses. Indeed, they sometimes lead to such a wide variety of responses (some of which are vague) that the responses lose their statistical and analytical significance. Should such responses be grouped, they could contaminate the data.

- Open questions are often easy to ask, difficult to answer and more difficult still to analyse. In most cases no meaningful system of classification can be selected in advance, because the researcher cannot anticipate the different types of responses (van Rensburg, 1994 : 286-287).

(3) Scaled items

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 244-245) claim that scales are used extensively in questionnaires because they allow fairly accurate assessments of beliefs or opinions. This is because many of our beliefs and opinions are thought of in terms of gradations. We believe something very strongly or intently, or perhaps we have a positive or negative opinion of something.

The usual format of scaled items is a question or statement followed by a scale of potential responses. The subjects checks the place on the scale that best reflects their beliefs or opinions about the statement. The most widely used example is the Likert scale. A true Likert scale is one in which the stem includes a value or direction and the respondent indicates agreement or disagreement with the statement. Likert-type items use different response scales; the stem can either be neutral or directional.

The researcher employed both open-ended and closed-ended questions, as well as Likert-type scaled responses, in the construction of the questionnaire.

5.3.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

Ary *et al.* (1979 : 345) warn that developing a good questionnaire is a difficult and time-consuming task. They offer eleven suggestions for writing items that constitute a good questionnaire:

- Construct the instrument is such a way that it reflects quality.
- Keep the questionnaire as brief as possible so that it requires a minimum of the respondent's time.
- Make sure that the respondents have the information necessary to answer the questions.
- Phrase questionnaire items so that they can be understood by every respondent.
- Keep individual questionnaire items as short and simple as possible.
- Phrase questionnaire items so as to elicit unambiguous answers.
- Phrase questionnaire items so as to avoid bias that might predetermine a respondent's answer.
- Avoid questionnaire items that might mislead because of unstated assumptions.

- Make sure that the alternatives to each questionnaire are exhaustive; that is, express all the possible alternatives on the issue.

- Avoid questions that might elicit reactions of embarrassment, suspicion or hostility in the respondent.

- Avoid "double - barrelled" questions that attempt to ask two questions in one.

Khubisa (Zungu, 1994 : 79) adds to the characteristics:

- The questionnaire must provide some depth, in order to avoid superficial replies as responses.

- The ideal questionnaire must not be too suggestive or too unstimulating, particularly with reference to choice.

- Questions must be asked in such a way that the responses will not be embarrassing to the individual.

The researcher took cognisance of the above suggestions in constructing the questionnaire. A good questionnaire design is the culmination of a long process of planning and thought. The researcher ensured that at all times, he was aware of the specific goals and objectives of the research, when formulating the questions.

Questions were included because of their relevance to the aims of the study and not merely because they were interesting.

5.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

(1) Advantages of the questionnaire

According to Tuckman (Luthuli, 1990 : 197) the obvious advantage in using the questionnaire rather than the interview is economy in cost, time and labour. The fact is that questionnaires can be turned to advantage, for example, when answers are given in anonymously. But for most part, questionnaire responses should be treated with caution and the questionnaire method should be used only for relatively simple and factual inquiries, although it may form a necessary part of more complex studies.

Dyer (Luthuli, 1990 : 196) cites the following benefits of a questionnaire:

- It is usually less costly to the researcher.
- It is easier to administer.
- It does not have problems of interviewer turnover and training.
- It may create more trust in the anonymity of the respondents' answers to personal aspects of the topic being researched.
- It is not affected by the halo effect of the interviewer because the interviewee completes the questionnaire in privacy.
- It is not affected by the pressure of on-the-spot replies.

Mouly (Luthuli, 1990 : 200) maintains that the use of questionnaires permits a wide coverage at minimum expense in both money and effort. A written questionnaire provides a vehicle for expression without fear of embarrassment to the respondent. This is especially the case if the respondents are assured that their answers will be treated as confidential. All respondents receive identical instructions. This reduces bias of the investigator.

(2) Disadvantages of the questionnaire

Luthuli (1990 : 196) states that one main weakness of the questionnaire method, is that inevitably, a proportion of the sample will not answer and it is difficult to discover how non-respondents differ from those who do respond.

Non-respondents present a problem for the researcher. The researcher may be asked: "How would the results have been if all the subjects had responded to the questionnaire?" Isaac and Michael (Luthuli, 1990 : 196) suggest that under ordinary circumstances, percentages under twenty, can be reasonably ignored. Percentages over twenty, they argue, raise increasing serious questions about the "hold-outs" and what they are withholding.

On the issue of limitations of the questionnaire, Mason and Bramble (Luthuli, 1990 : 196) state that:

- The questionnaire tends to be less flexible and adaptable than the interview. The advantage of having an interviewer present, who is capable of adapting to the situation and the subjects' responses, is lost.

Ary *et al.* (1979 : 345) add that:

- A disadvantage of the questionnaire is the possibility of misinterpretation of the questions by the respondents due to poor wording or differential meaning of terms.

- Questionnaires do not elicit as high a completion rate as the interview. It is easy for the individual who receives a questionnaire to lay it aside and simply forget to complete and return it.

Luthuli (1990 : 199) indicates one major drawback in using closed-ended questions, is that they may introduce bias, either by forcing the respondent to choose from given alternatives or by making the respondent select the alternatives that might not have otherwise occurred.

5.4 REQUIREMENTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire designers rarely deal consciously with the degree of validity or reliability of their instrument. Perhaps this is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these qualities. It must be recognised, however, that questionnaires have a very limited purpose. They are often one-time data-gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. There are ways, however, to improve both the validity and reliability of questionnaires.

Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions, phrased in the least ambiguous way. In other words, did the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation? The meaning of all terms should be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents. Researchers need all the help they can get; suggestions from colleagues and experts in the field of inquiry may reveal ambiguities that can be removed or items that do not contribute to a questionnaire's purpose.

The panel of experts may rate the instrument in terms of how effectively it samples significant aspects of its purpose, providing estimates of content validity.

It is possible to estimate the predictive validity of some types of questionnaires by follow-up observations of respondent behaviour at the present time or at some time in the future. In some situations, overt behaviour can be observed without invading the privacy of respondents.

Reliability of questionnaires may be inferred by a second administration of the instrument, comparing the responses with those of the first.

Research shows that a number of myths about postal questionnaires are not borne out by evidence. Response levels to postal surveys are not invariably less than those obtained by interview procedures. Frequently they equal, and in some cases, surpass those achieved in interviews. A number of factors, as identified by Hoinville & Jowell (Cohen & Manion, 1980 : 111-112) were considered in securing a good response rate to the administered questionnaires used in this survey. These were:

- The appearance of the questionnaire was easy and neat, with plenty of space for questions and answers.

- There was clarity of wording and simplicity of design, with clear instruments to guide the respondents.

- The arrangement of the questionnaire maximised co-operation.

- Instructions to assist the respondent were clearly indicated.

- Selected responses had to be ticked so that the questionnaire was filled with ease.

- Instructions were repeated as often as necessary to ensure that the respondent knew exactly what was required.

- Varying types of questions were used to retain interest.

- Clear unambiguous wording was used.

- Finally a brief note appeared at the end to thank the respondent for his participation.

5.4.1 Reliability of the questionnaire

According to Smit (1983 : 25) psychological measurement is primarily a quantitative measurement of behaviour but also permits, like questionnaires, qualitative judgement. He points out that this judgement must be based on validated information in order to be of any practical value with regard to behavioural description. The validity of the research instrument therefore refers to the degree to which variable factors have an influence on the measurement of the research instrument. It refers to the degree of consistency and/or accuracy to which the research instrument measures (De Wet, Monteith, Venter & Steyn, 1981 : 131). A research instrument with a high degree of validity will restrict the influence of variables to a minimum and vice versa.

Harris (1997: 78) defines the validity of a research instrument as "a quality that makes the same result possible if the measurement is repeated in an identical manner." Smit (1983 : 29-35) refers to this as content-reliability, review-reliability and equivalent-form-reliability.

Reliability refers to consistency, but consistency does not guarantee truthfulness. An instrument being reliable does not mean that it is a good measure of what it seems to measure. The reliability of the question is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent's true feelings. A reliable measure is not necessarily valid. A demonstration of reliability is necessary but not conclusive evidence that an instrument is valid. Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable kinds of error. Sources of error that affect reliability include:

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or other temporary differences among members of the group being measured.

- Variations in the conditions of administration from one testing to the next. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise, to inconsistencies in the administration of the instrument, such as oversights in giving directions.

- Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what an observer notices, and error in computing scores.

- Random effects by respondents who guess alternatives without trying to understand them.

Test-retest reliability is the oldest and most intuitively obvious method for demonstrating instrument consistency. It involves re-administration of the questionnaire. Alternate-form reliability attacks the problem of memory effects upon the second administration by having the researcher write two essentially equivalent forms of the same instrument. Split-half reliability yields a measure of test consistency within a single administration. It allows the developer to obtain the two necessary scores from the same group of people by taking two halves of the items comprising an instrument and treating them as two administrations.

5.4.2 Validity of the questions

The validity of the questionnaire as a research tool relates to it's appropriateness for measuring what a questionnaire is intended to measure (Mahlangu, 1987 : 83). Smit (1983 : 46) points out that the validity of the questionnaire cannot be assumed, it must be established.

Validity indicates how worthwhile a measure is likely to be, in a given situation. Validity should show whether the instrument is giving you the true story, or at least something approximating the truth. A valid instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some "real" ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the test user can identify and characterise. If the ability or attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent's answers to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield essentially the same results (Harris, 1997 : 79).

The validity of an instrument reflects the sureness with which one can draw conclusions. Validity is the extent to which one can rule out interpretations of the instrument's results other than the one the researcher wishes to make. Establishing an instrument's validity requires that the researcher anticipate the potential arguments that sceptics might use to dismiss the researcher's results. Respondents have an idea of which answers are socially desirable. Not wishing to appear deviant, they hide their true feelings and bend their answers to conform to a model of how they ought to answer. Where this happens, the instrument is of course not measuring true perceptions, rather; it is detecting people's ideas about what is socially acceptable. Such an instrument is invalid and useless.

Validity is concerned with an instrument's appropriateness for accomplishing the researcher's purposes. With regard to validity one can distinguish mainly between content validity, construct validity and criteria related validity. Construct validity refers to how well the instrument measures what it claims to. Demonstrating construct validity demands clear definition of construct, the presentation of logical arguments, credible opinions, and evidence from correlational or criterion-group studies, all aimed at ruling out alternative explanations of the instrument's results. Content validity refers to how well the items give appropriate emphasis to the various components of the construct.

Concurrent validity is calculated when the researcher uses the results of one measure to predict the results of an alternative contemporaneous measure. Predictive validity justifies a questionnaire's usefulness for making decisions about people. The credibility of the researcher's evaluation depends on the use of valid instruments. Since there is no one established method for determining validity, the researcher is required to do his best in constructing, administering, and interpreting the instrument to anticipate scepticism about the results (Harris, 1997 : 80).

5.5 PILOT STUDY

The pilot study, sometimes referred to as pilot testing, is a preliminary or "trial run" investigation that precedes the carrying out of any investigation or project (Moser & Kalton 1971 : 398). The basic purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the design of the subsequent study can be improved and to identify flaws in the instruments, e.g. questionnaires or textual materials, to be used. The number of the participants in the pilot study or group is normally smaller than the number scheduled to take part in the subsequent study.

Harris (1997 : 85) gives the following purposes of a pilot study which were applied:

- It permitted a preliminary testing of the hypothesis, that leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study.

- It provided the researcher of this study with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study.

- It permitted a thorough check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data.

- It greatly reduced the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study resulted in redesigning the main study.

- It saved the researcher major expenditures of time and money on aspects of the research which would have been unnecessary.

- It was possible to get feedback from research and other persons involved that led to important improvements in the main study.

In the pilot study, the researcher tried out a number of alternative measures and then selected those that produced the best results for the main study.

Harris (1997 : 80) asserts that the pilot run is done with a sample which is similar to the group from which the sample will be selected. The researcher of this study decided to conduct a pilot study with a group of fellow researchers and colleagues to test questions for inter alia, vagueness and ambiguity, to ascertain whether questions were correctly structured or not, and to identify questions of a sensitive nature. Space was provided at the end of the pilot questionnaire for the respondents to make the required comments.

The questionnaires were completed by the following during the pilot study conducted at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus:

- a random selection of 30 first, second and third year economics students,

- selected lecturing staff involved in current research projects, and,

- fellow student colleagues involved in educational research.

In this way the researcher of this study tried to conduct as thorough a pre-test as possible of the questionnaires before using them in his study.

Naidoo (1997: 56) refers to the pilot survey as "the dress rehearsal." They also see pre-testing and pilot surveys as "standard practice with professional survey bodies and are widely used in research surveys." Through the use of pre-testing and pilot study, the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked were largely meaningful, because clear responses were received from the respondents.

Therefore, pre-testing and pilot study provided guidance in the present study on the suitability of questions and valuable supporting evidence.

5.6 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Ary *et al.* (1979 : 352) suggests that researchers may find it useful to mail an introductory letter to potential respondents in advance of the questionnaire itself. This alerts the subject to the study rather than overwhelm them with the questionnaire package. In any case, a cover letter addressed to the respondent by name and title must accompany the questionnaire. The cover letter serves to introduce the potential respondents to the questionnaire and "sells" them on responding. The cover letter should include the purpose of the study, a request for co-operation, the protection provided the respondent and request for immediate return.

The researcher did not, however, follow Ary *et al.*'s (1979 : 352) suggestion to the letter, but used their suggestions as a guide in the administration process. An introductory talk was given to each set of respondents and the aims and objectives of the research study explained to them in fine detail. The researcher then distributed the questionnaires and supervised the groups as they responded and explained questions as and when they were posed. There were no non-responses as the researcher waited for all to complete the questionnaires and retrieved same immediately. (A copy of the questionnaire is included at the back of this dissertation).

5.7 PROCESSING OF THE DATA

5.7.1 Descriptive statistics

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 192) claim that descriptive statistics transform a set of numbers or observations into indices that describe or characterise the data. Descriptive statistics (sometimes referred to as summary statistics) are thus used to summarise, organise, and reduce large numbers of observations. Usually the reduction results in few numbers, derived from mathematical formulas to represent all observations in each group of interest. Descriptive statistics portray and focus on what is relevant to the data. The use of descriptive statistics is the most fundamental way to summarise data, and it is indispensable in interpreting the results of quantitative research.

5.7.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 192), are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn. Since many research questions require the estimation of population characteristics from an available sample of subjects or behaviour, inferential statistics are commonly used in reporting results.

In the processing of data in this research, the researcher employed only descriptive statistics.

5.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

5.8.1 Limitations of the scope

The researcher recognises that the proposed study focuses on only one delineated aspect of a larger research problem. The scope of the study covers only those students enrolled for economics at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus. This restricted scope of the population resulted because other economics students in the region were not easily accessible. The study, itself, is targeted at a university in the Durban-South region, and not at the whole of the region. The scope is further restricted to a historically black university and not all universities in the area.

5.8.2 Limitations of the design

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 572) claims that stating the design limitations illustrates the researcher's knowledge of the threàts to internal and external validity in the proposed design. They state further that it is better for the researcher to recognise the limitations rather than claim he or she has the "perfect" design. In light of the preceding statement, the researcher acknowledges that he does not have the "perfect" design, but with the time and resource constraints faced with, the present design is the most convenient and appropriate for the research under study.

5.8.3 Methodological limitations

Methodological limitation refer specifically to validity and reliability of the proposed instrumentation or instrument(s) that have been developed (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993 : 573). The instrument that best served the needs of this study, given the time and resources constraints, was the questionnaire. The limitations of the questionnaire are listed in section 5.3.4. In spite of these limitations, the researcher found that the advantages of the questionnaire outweighed the disadvantages, for this study. The reasonable safe level of reliability and validity of the questionnaire further supports its use for this project.

5.9 SUMMARY

Chapter five serves to outline the criteria and procedures that the researcher had to consider in the planning of the research. Planning incorporated permission, selection of respondents, the research instrument employed (in this case, the questionnaire), validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the pilot study, how the questionnaire was administered, processing of the data and the limitations of the investigation. All of the above aspects served in the construction of a credible research design.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION OF DATA

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION OF DATA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Altogether, the researcher distributed 304 self-administered questionnaires to students enrolled for Economics I, II and III at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi Campus. During the appointed time of contact with the students, the researcher was afforded the opportunity, through the permission of the respective lecturers, to have a brief meeting with the prospective respondents. In each case, the objectives of the research project were outlined. This helped motivate all targeted students to respond, and, because the researcher waited to collect the completed questionnaires at the end, there were no non-responses. An analysis of the retrieved data is provided in this chapter.

6.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Each of the questions presented in the questionnaire is evaluated independently. The researcher established that a simple tabulation of the data was sufficient to reflect the direction of the responses, hence, the use of this statistical tool is employed to depict the responses received to each of the questions asked.

The questionnaire was divided into two parts. In part A respondents were expected to provide idiographic information. To provide a holistic view, the instructions that appeared in the questionnaire have been repeated and appear bold and italicised. The table quantifying the responses, and a brief comment, follows each question.

The following instruction preceded the questions in part A:

Please indicate your personal details in the spaces provided:

6.2.1 **Age** (table 2)

Age in years	Number of respondents
less than 26	84
26-35	142
36-45	68
older than 45	10

Table 2

The University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi Campus is an extra-mural division of the main campus and was created to service working people who wished to engage in tertiary education. It is for this reason that the majority of students (72 %) are over the age of 26. This question helped assertain the maturity level of the respondents.

6.2.2 **Gender** (table 3)

Female	Male
166	138

Table 3

As typical of an emerging, democratic economy, the number of female students (54%) is larger than that of their male counterparts. With women's rights enshrined in the new constitution, larger numbers of females are participating in the work force. Most of the women respondents stated that they viewed the acquisition of a degree a pre-requisite to a better job. Once they had obtained the same, they felt that they could not be discriminated against in terms of educational qualifications. A degree could enhance their chances of being considered for more senior, higher-level, management positions.

6.2.3 **Registered degree** (table 4)

Registered degree	Number of respondents
B A	56
B Com	90
B Admin	140
B Paed	18

Table 4

As expected, most students (46%) were registered for the Bachelor of Administration degree. This is because most of them expect the government to create more jobs for them. In the majority of cases, government officials are required to have a minimum qualification of a B Admin. Degree qualification at least to be considered for employment. Government jobs are viewed as secure employment, with adequate fringe benefits e.g. housing subsidy, medical aid and pension fund benefits. Further, in most of the job-creating ventures of the government, the proposed expansion of the public sector is seen as potentially good employment opportunities.

6.2.4 Level of Economics enrolled for (table 5)

Level of economics	Number of respondents
Economics I	142
Economics II	114
Economics III	48

Table 5

The larger numbers of students (47%) enrolled for level one and level two indicate that most students enrol for economics as 'filler courses' to make up the minimum number of subjects required to complete a degree. The relatively small number of third year students can be attributed to the fact that a 'quantitative analysis' module is taught at that level, and, because many students have little or no mathematical schooling, they are afraid to attempt the course. Many students, however, claim that the study of economics, even at first-year level, is sufficient to enable many of them to acquire employment.

Part B was divided into five categories viz. a) Self-information (SI), b) Decision making (DM), c) Career information (CI), d) Integration of self-information with career-information (I) and e) Career planning CP). In part B of the questionnaire, the respondents were given the following instruction:

Answer the questions on the answer sheet by marking a (X) in the particular box that best represents your view.

A Self-information (SI)

In fashioning his theory of career development, the pioneer in this field of educational research, Donald Super, appears to have been under the strong influence of the self-concept theory, in which he suggested that behaviour is a reflection of an individual's attempt to implement his self-descriptive and self-evaluative thought. With particular reference to vocations, Bordin (Osipow, 1983 : 152) proposes the notion that responses to vocational-interest inventories represent an individual's projection of self-concept in terms of stereo-types held about occupations. A person selects or rejects an occupation because of the belief that the field is or is not consistent with his self-view.

The fact that most vocational-choice theories are grounded in the self-concept warrants an exposition of the concept of the self.

6.2.5 I have a clear mental picture of what my life will be like in my future occupation (table 6)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
230	64	10

Table 6

230 (76%) out of the 304 respondents have already developed clear mental pictures of their future occupations. This augurs well for aspiring workers in that it helps define clearly formulated objectives and career- acquiring strategies that may help facilitate the achievement of their aspirations. In spite of this, it is saddening to note that 64 of the respondents are still unsure about their future occupation, and a further

10 do not have a clear picture of what the future holds in store for them in terms of employment opportunities. Some of this pessimistic attitude may have developed as a result of the high level of unemployment (approximately 37%) prevalent in South Africa at present.

6.2.6 I know my strengths and weaknesses (table 7)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
268	34	2

Table 7

268 (88%) Respondents have strongly indicated that they are aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Being able to identify one's strengths is the first step in becoming successful in one's future occupation. By identifying one's strengths one can identify possible work opportunities that require that particular skill. In this way the worker will become proficient in his work and enjoy exploiting what he is good at. This may lead to a win-win situation to both the employer and employee in that work productivity may be high while job satisfaction may also take an elevated status by the worker excelling in what he is good at. Being able to identify one's weakness is also positive in that much may be done to overcome the weakness once it has been positively identified. The technical and scientific nature of certain careers requires a long period of education; therefore the young job seeker that wants to follow such a career is required to make a career decision early. Being able to make an early diagnosis of one's strengths and weaknesses facilitates an early career decision.

6.2.7 I know the things I am good at (table 8)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
264	34	6

Table 8

As technological society increases in complexity, the new job entrant needs help in choosing a career. A provisional career choice is often desirable in helping to choose the necessary subjects and training. In order to make a realistic choice, Gerdes (Louw, 1995: 431) states that several factors should be considered, one of which is the individual's abilities. When 264 (87%) respondents indicated that they know the things they are good at, they have positively identified what their abilities are. According to Gerdes, this helps make a realistic career choice.

6.2.8 I consider it important to use my abilities to the fullest in my future occupation (table 9)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
286	18	0

Table 9

When the employee-employer contract is entered into, both parties have willingly consented to maximising their benefits in the process. The employee aims at maximising his utility by getting the highest reward possible for his service and productivity. The employer in return aims at maximising his profit, which implies he aims to get the maximum returns on the employee he has invested in. When 286 (94%) respondents agree that they consider it important that they utilise their abilities to the fullest in their future occupations, they show serious commitment to increasing their levels of productivity. In this way society gains and the Gross Domestic Product of the country may be significantly increased. With positive attitudes and aspirations, not only may the level of unemployment be reduced, but many of the other unemployment-related socio-economic problems may be addressed simultaneously.

6.2.9 I want to choose an occupation that allows me to do what I believe in (table 10)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
278	22	4

Table 10

Not very often in the past have future employees been directed by a moralistic and ideological evaluation of the future workplace. 278 (91%) is strongly indicative that this aspect of choosing a future employer is highly influential in the selection of one's future employment. Not only are workers committed to engaging in mundane production, they are also directed by the effect their production has on society. It is for this reason that the majority has indicated that they will want to work in a workplace that is congruent with their beliefs, goals, causes and ideologies. Workers are seen to be exercising their rights as enshrined in the workers' equity bill by not actively being engaged in work activity they are supportive of or believe in.

6.2.10 **I want to enjoy my future career** (table 11)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
296	4	4

Table 11

As the work force is becoming more sophisticated in terms of gaining higher levels of education, acquiring more job-related skills and higher levels of competencies, many of them are not attracted to a particular job just because the pecuniary reward alone is attractive. Placed very high on the agenda is the level of job satisfaction. It is for this reason in particular that 296 (97%) have strongly indicated that they wanted to enjoy their future career. It has been observed that unhappy workers are not the most productive workers. When workers have emphatically stated that they wanted to enjoy their future employment, they show their determination to want to make a positive contribution to the economy, but at a price. That price is better job satisfaction.

6.2.11 **When I am really interested in what I am doing, I can keep at it for hours** (table 12)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
220	56	28

Table 12

In order to make a realistic career-choice, Gerdes (Louw, 1995: 431) stated that the individual's interests should be considered. The young adolescent's understanding of a career is often sketchy and his interests, needs and abilities are still developing and are thus subject to change. This statement is well supported by 220 (72%) of the respondents when they indicate that it is interest that can keep them gainfully occupied for considerable lengths of time. Hence, to have a highly productive worker it is imperative that the type of work expected to be executed by the worker should be within the ambit of his field of interest. By the same token, a worker who shows no or little interest in a particular work-type should not be coerced into that field. His production levels will not be equitable to that of an interested worker.

6.2.12 I believe that an important part of work is the satisfaction one gets from doing it (table 13)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
278	18	8

Table 13

Very often, the level of salary offered for that position motivates applicants to a specific job. It is not unusual these days to find that an increasing number of job applicants consider job satisfaction an equally important factor in the selection of one's career. The findings reflected in the above statistics support this by the 278 (91%) responses that indicated that they agreed that job satisfaction is a benefit accrued from the work environment.

6.2.13 At present I feel that other people are more concerned about my future plans than I am (table 14)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
92	82	130

Table 14

Most of the respondents (43%) disagreed with the given statement. This helps confirm that they are sure that they are the ones who are actively concerned about their own careers as compared with other interested parties. This is an important starting-point, as one tends to aspire even more when one is committed to one's own future rather than having a situation where one is coerced into taking career decisions. Voluntary choice allows a person the opportunity and freedom to act without undue duress and external pressure. Under these conditions the individual is afforded to make independent, well-informed and personal career choices. It appears that the 92 respondents that agree are of the opinion that others are more concerned about their future plans than they themselves are.

6.2.14 I fully understand why some people can be so certain about what they want to become one day (table 15)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
166	118	20

Table 15

Although a large portion (54%) of the sample fully understand why some people are very certain about their future careers, a degree of concern emerges from the number that indicated that they were either uncertain or remained neutral. When one plans one's future career it is assumed that the person concerned has at least decided on what he is aspiring towards and that he has a devised action plan relating to how he intends achieving those objectives or goals. When a large number indicate uncertainty concerning their seriousness of their future objectives, one begins to question whether the person concerned has really set his future aspirations and objectives. If one is uncertain about one's future aspirations, very little may be done to assist him achieve his future career plans.

6.2.15 I find that the demands made on me are in conflict with one another (e.g. university, home, sport, community and friends) (table 16)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
146	72	86

Table 16

As mentioned earlier, the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus was established to assist working people acquire further tertiary education. Most of the students are employed parents who are exposed to different roles, all of which compete for their scarce resource, time. The fact that most of the respondents (48%) agreed to the given statement confirms this belief. Home duties, sport commitments, business and work requirements, etc. all add pressure to the students' devotion to his study time. Conflict is interpreted to mean a disagreement in the manner the studying student has decided to allocate his non-employment time. Very often students bend under the strain of not being able to cope with all their activities, including studying, have on them.

6.2.16 **It does not matter what occupation I choose as long as it pays well** (table 17)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
82	30	192

Table 17

192 (63%) respondents disagreed with the statement indicating that the majority considers the type of job they do or the position they hold more important than the money they earn from doing it. This reinforces a similar opinion expressed in 6.2.12 above. Future employees consider other factors and not salary alone important criteria in the selection of a future career.

B Decision-making (DM)

6.2.17 **I have a clear goal in mind when I think about my future occupation** (table 18)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
254	40	10

Table 18

Most theorists recommend that before engaging in any career choice, the future employee must establish clear, well-defined goals. This research study indicates that most of the respondents (84%) have taken that advice seriously and have indicated accordingly in the answering of this question. Their response indicates that they have been schooled in some aspects of career decision-making and have indicated this in their response.

6.2.18 **I am an effective decision-maker** (table 19)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
202	94	8

Table 19

The cornerstone to effective career-choice is the ability to take decisive decisions. The response to this question indicates that the majority (66%) of those that responded is of the opinion that they are effective decision-makers. 94 respondents (31%), however, are uncertain and 8 (3%) do not think that they can make effective decisions. It is the latter two groups that may not be adequately empowered to make correct career choices.

6.2.19 **When I start something, I can usually see it through** (table 20)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
214	76	14

Table 20

The manner in which the respondents answered this question indicates their degree of perseverance in seeing the realisation of their career aspirations to its fruition. It has been established and is evident in the workplace that those who quit can never achieve their desired aspirations. Most of the respondents (70%) indicated that they could persevere until they achieve. This is the determination that is necessary so that success may be achieved.

6.2.20 I am aware of possible alternatives I can consider in my chosen occupational field (table 21)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
232	66	6

Table 21

Very often, future job seekers set a specific career target in mind and aspire to achieve that specific goal only. The work environment is becoming increasingly dynamic and demands of different jobs are affected accordingly. In this regard, the career that one is aspiring towards may become redundant, as no job opportunities may be available, as is the case of the teaching fraternity presently. In order to be gainfully employed at the end of one's study period, it is imperative that students have alternative fields or jobs that they could enter should their particular aspiration be unavailable. The respondents have indicated that most of them (76%) have alternative avenues that they could follow should doors be closed in the direction of their chosen career aspirations.

6.2.21 **When it comes to choosing an occupation, I will make up my own mind** (table 22)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
272	28	4

Table 22

A sense of individualism and independent decision-making skills is evident by the responses evident in this question. Most future employees want to take control of their career destinies and are not willing to compromise their decisions by the interference of others. This strength evident in these respondents (89%) is the very ingredient supported by most career choice theorists. It is the individual that has to cope in his workplace and it is he that must make a direct impact in that particular career niche.

6.2.22 **I can usually think of ways to solve important problems in my daily life** (table 23)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
268	30	6

Table 23

Most future employers are looking for future employees who possess good problem-solving skills. Most jobs have transformed from routine, repetitive chores to conflict management and problem-solving scenarios. Most of these prospect candidates (88%) consider themselves good problem-solvers. This will serve in their best interest to exercise this potential to the full, as more careers are becoming centres of problem-solving activities. It is not unusual that persons who have good problem-solving abilities are the ones that are first identified for career advancement and promotion.

6.2.23 I am motivated to make the necessary career decisions that are expected of me at this stage

(table 24)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
242	46	16

Table 24

A major component of planning one's career path is motivation, a sustained effort required to achieve the desired goal. 242 (80%) respondents indicated that they are motivated to reach their aspirations. The response also indicates that they have researched their fields of interest and that they have made necessary decisions to reach their desired targets. Decision-making and target setting contribute to the realisation of one's aspirations.

6.2.24 There is more than one way to go about reaching the goal I set for myself (table 25)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
248	32	24

Table 25

The response expressed to this question (82% that agreed) reaffirms the response to question 6.2.20. In as much as aspiring candidates set different and varied goals, so too do they have contingency plans and programmes to arrive at those destinations. This is extremely important in career planning because not all plans follow the path they were intended to. When deviations do appear, it is very important that the student can solve his problems at that stage. Should he arrive at a dead end, it will be in his interest to have alternate route available to his so that he may reach his chosen career.

6.2.25 I prefer others to make decisions for me concerning important matters such as choosing an occupation (table 26)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
38	8	258

Table 26

The strong degree of disagreement evident by the responses (85%) to this question supports the belief expressed in question 6.2.21 where students have indicated that they need their individualism and independence in decision-making concerning their career plans. As is characteristic of emerging adult students, the sense of independence and freedom of choice is reverend and will not be compromised even in the selection and implementation of careers.

6.2.26 **It is sensible to try out several occupations, and then choose the one I like the best** (table 27)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
140	70	94

Table 27

It is understandable why there seems to be an even spread throughout all the categories available for the responses to this question. This stems from the teachings of different ideologies concerning the selection of a life career. The 140 (46%) that indicated that they agree with the statement believe that only one's own experiences are the best exposure experiences. It is their belief that after being exposed to numerous careers of interest, the individual is best equipped to make an experience and educated choice. The 94 that disagreed follow the teaching that one can acquire information about different careers via other people, the media, employment agencies, career counsellors, etc. They are of the opinion that there can never be enough time available to the individual to experience many careers before a choice may be made. The 70 that remained neutral or uncertain seem to be caught in between the two extreme cases cited earlier. They may be inclined to go either way depending on the opportunities that are available to them.

6.2.27 I see choosing an occupation as a trial-and-error action rather than a planned decision-making process (table 28)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
102	68	134

Table 28

The 134 (44%) that answered negatively to the question indicate that they believe that proper and logical though and planning is necessary in the career decision-making process. They believe that nothing happens accidentally and that all careers follow a pre-destined plan. Nothing is left to chance and fate. Those that agree (34%) support the sentiment expressed to the previous question where they express the opinion that experience is the best teacher. To they time does not appear as a constraint, but that as each career proves unsuccessful to them they just quit and start with something new, hoping that it will work out somehow. This type of behaviour is characteristic of those candidates who do not have clearly defined aspirations or career plans.

6.2.28 It is necessary to spend great effort on the choice of an occupation (table 29)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
278	20	6

Table 29

It is evident that as much as many of the respondents differ greatly in their responses to many of the previous questions, there appears some unanimity (92%) in their response to this question. This stems from their independent interpretation of the concept 'great effort'. Some see this to mean spending a great deal of time trying to find a suitable career. Others believe 'great effort' is necessary in the planning of ones career path. It is even meant to imply 'great effort' in the means of achieving the desired future career by rigorously studying or training to become adequately equipped to enter a desired profession. 'Great effort' could mean the cost of aspiring toward a career in terms of foregone pecuniary, social and psychological costs.

C Career information (CI)

6.2.29 **I am aware of related occupations in the occupational field I am interested in** (table 30)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
244	42	18

Table 30

In acquiring career information, the prospective candidate consults all possible resources to gain as much information as he possibly can. It is imperative that, in order to make an educated decision or choice, the candidate should be exposed to as much information as possible available on the subject. For this reason most of the respondents (80%) agree that they have acquired adequate information to enable them to acknowledge that there are related careers to those they aspire toward. This serves as a useful contingency plan should the main idea be frustrated.

6.2.30 I have already spoken to people who are employed in the occupation I am considering at present (table 31)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
180	50	74

Table 31

Teachers of guidance and career counsellors alike agree that the best sources of information about specific careers are those persons that are actively involved in that sphere of work. It is evident that most of the aspiring respondents (59%) followed that advice in having consulted with these persons prior to making career plans. First-hand information often reveals information that is often ignored in written texts and questions that may arise out of the situation may be answered as well. This helps remove doubts that may exist and provides the aspiring candidate a clearer and well-defined picture of his future work place.

6.2.31 I know what a typical workday will be like in the occupation that I am considering (table 32)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
180	86	38

Table 32

The media often presents a normal workday as one that is enjoyable and exciting if it is targeted to attract personnel to join a particular career. This may in fact not be the case. 180 (59%) of the respondents indicated that they are aware what a typical workday in their future career is like. This augurs well for those that have acquired this information in that it helps confirm their will to want to join a given career. Those persons (28%) that are uncertain cannot be in a position to make a well-educated career choice as they are not familiar with the demands of that particular work place demands. It is the lack of this vital information that often makes a person leave his employment because his expectations of the work place were far removed from the real situation.

6.2.32 I have already consulted pamphlets and books about future occupations (table 33)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
164	60	80

Table 33

Most writers on career choice recommend the written media as a useful primary source of information about the work place. 164 respondents followed that recommendation by indicating in the affirmative to this question. The 80 (26%) that disagreed may have found other sources of information more applicable and useful to their particular needs. A relatively large part of the sample (20%) responded that they were uncertain. It is uncertainty of this nature that proves to be a hindrance in the selection and planning of one's future career.

6.2.33 I know what the most suitable training would be for the occupation that I am interested in (table 34)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
218	68	18

Table 34

When one embarks on career planning, the selection and identification process serves as the first step. The next logical step is the acquisition of information on training institutions that may assist them with programmes designed to accomplish their goals. 218 (72%) respondents claim that they have acquired this information by stating that they have identified the most suitable institution and training that can help prepare them for their desired future employment. The use of the words 'most suitable' indicates that they have identified numerous such institutions and that they have selected the one that best serves their needs. 68 respondents are uncertain which could mean that they still have to gain information on which institutions are available to help train them.

6.2.34 I am aware of alternative ways in which I can obtain training for my future occupation (table 35)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
206	72	26

Table 35

The response to this question is similar to the previous question in that it helps confirm that the respondents (68%) have gained adequate information on alternative ways of obtaining training. Some have cited attending the university, a technicon or a technical school on a full-time basis. Others have suggested part time attendance. Some favoured correspondence distance-learning courses, but admit that the practical experience would be lacking in such cases. In some cases, some employers have organised their own in-service training programmes in which specific job-types are taught.

6.2.35 I have an idea of the salaries people earn in the occupational field I am interested in (table 36)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
172	82	50

Table 36

As mentioned earlier, the most potent driving force behind a person wanting to enter a particular career is the financial gains associated with such a profession. 172 Respondents (57%) claim that they are aware of the earnings of people employed in the career they wish to enter. This helps confirm that prospective employees have researched their future employment prospects well enough to help them make a good choice. Altogether 132 respondents (43%) are either uncertain or disagree with the given statement. This could indicate that they did not consider salary as the most important criteria for choosing a particular career. Other factors may have served as the attraction criteria.

6.2.36 I know what the future outlook for employment is in the occupational field that I am interested (table 37)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
204	78	22

Table 37

With the transformation that is evident in the South African work place, it is imperative that the future employee selects a career that would demand his services. Some training periods extend over a considerable length of time. This could be problematic in that those sectors of the economy that previously needed workers may have changed during the training phase to such an extent that no future demand for workers exist. 204 Respondents (67%) have indicated that they have such information of the dynamic work place. It could serve as an irrecoverable loss of resources if people trained for careers that did not offer adequate future employment.

6.2.37 I am sure that my choice of subjects is suitable for the occupation I have in mind (table 38)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
280	20	4

Table 38

Each career has a specific job description and the studying of general courses in this working climate serves no vocational purpose. It is for this reason that most training institutions have reconstructed and refined their courses so that they are targeted to a particular job type. In this regard, the economics curriculum for marketing may by constructed differently from the economics curriculum for bankers. 280 Respondents (92%) are sure that the choice of subjects they have made is sufficient to assist them acquire their desired future employment. Specialisation is the trend that the work place is following and in keeping with this demand, most tertiary and training institutions are gearing their teaching and training to satisfy that particular need.

6.2.38 I know what study courses to take to prepare for my future occupation (table 39)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
270	28	6

Table 39

When a candidate has identified the career he intends to aspire toward and is settled on the institution in which he will train, the next logical step is the selection of his courses. 270 students (89%) indicated that they were adequately informed and guided to have made a selection of courses that could help them reach their desired employment. The marginal percentages of respondents (2%) that disagree serve to reinforce the positive counterpart of this question. This helps confirm that most students are fully capable of selecting correct study courses.

6.2.39 I have identified occupations that suit me (table 40)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
242	46	16

Table 40

When a future employee is planning a career, his primary task is to obtain as much information that he can on all possible careers available in his field of interest. He identifies his strengths and weaknesses, the nature of his personality, and by a process of matching, he is able to identify those careers that he may best enjoy or be successful at. 242 Respondents (80%) have identified occupations that suit them. The implication is that they have made an educated choice by considering the various options available to them. Of major concern are the 62 respondents (20%) who are either uncertain or are not sure about what career they are aspiring toward.

6.2.40 Knowing about the work conditions of a job is important to me (e.g. working with people/things, indoors/outdoors, etc.) (table 41)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
268	30	6

Table 41

Various aspects constitute the entire composition of the work place and the work condition is becoming a more important aspect as the worker is becoming more educated and more aware of his rights. In the selection process, the prospective worker places a great emphasis on how best his personality fits the job he wishes to do. 268 Respondents

(88%) consider this component of the workplace a very important criterion that influences their future career choice.

D Integration of self-information with career-information (I)

6.2.41 **I understand how to apply my abilities and potential in the occupation I am considering** (table 42)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
208	94	2

Table 42

In acquiring information about the workplace, future applicants match their abilities to these requirements to establish whether a good 'fit' may exist. 208 Respondents (68%) understand how to apply their abilities and potentials to the occupation they are considering. Only 2 (1%) disagreed with the statement indicating that they were either not well matched to their future occupations or that they had not acquired sufficient information to make a well-informed decision. 94 Respondents (31%) remain uncertain which could indicate that they have not as yet identified their abilities and potentials or that they lack information about their future occupations.

6.2.42 I know how my interests and abilities might relate to different kinds of jobs (table 43)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
184	116	4

Table 43

Prior to embarking on a career search, most applicants identify their interests and match these with their abilities in order to identify a career that will suit them best. 184 Respondents (61%) know how their interests and abilities might relate to different jobs. This is extremely helpful in that when one career becomes unavailable, they may use their knowledge to adapt to other related careers.

6.2.43 I have the personal qualities that are needed for the career I am considering (table 44)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
232	64	8

Table 44

As most careers require that one work with other people, having good 'people skills' or good 'inter-personal relationships' may help enhance success in a particular career. 76% (232) of the respondents recognise that they have the personal qualities that are needed for the careers they are considering. 21 % of the respondents are uncertain about whether they have the personal qualities needed to be successful in their future careers. 8 Respondents (3%) are adamant that they do not have the required personal qualities. A major question arises as to why they would indeed plan for a career that they do not have the personal qualities for.

6.2.44 **It is important to know how a certain occupation will affect my lifestyle** (table 45)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
268	28	8

Table 45

The aims of education are to prepare the student so that he may contribute to the work force, be gainfully employed and to become a responsible citizen. In this regard it is vitally important to understand how a career may affect a person's lifestyle. Where the effects are positive, the achievement of the above-mentioned educational objectives may be realised. If the effects are negative, the results may a detrimental effect on the person in particular and society in general. 88% of the respondents recognise that it is important to realise how their future occupations may affect their lifestyles. 9% are uncertain and 3% do not consider it important.

6.2.45 **Before making a career decision, I will first obtain information about different jobs** (table 46)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
250	20	34

Table 46

In many cases, the choice of the first career results in a person remaining in that job throughout his working life. It is for this reason that when a choice is made one need to be absolutely sure about it.

Information on different careers may assist the decision-maker to make an informed choice. 82% of the respondents intend to obtain information about different jobs first before making a career decision.

6.2.46 **In making an occupational choice, I need to know what kind of person I am** (table 47)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
260	16	28

Table 47

If a person's personality is incompatible with the requirements of a particular career, there is bound to be disharmony and discord. This will eventually result in a divorce between the person and his career. Problems of this nature will lead to wastes of useful resources that could otherwise have been converted into productive gains to the employer, the employee and to society at large. The importance of knowing one's self before making an occupational choice cannot be over stated. 86% of the respondents supports this belief by agreeing to the given statement.

6.2.47 **I would very much like to work in an occupational environment in which I can be myself** (table 48)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
262	22	20

Table 48

Each person has his own set of values, morals, beliefs and expectations. Combinations of these qualities paint the pictures of different employee characters. When one is compelled to work in an environment that conflicts with one's beliefs, one embarks on a career that is forced or coerced. Productivity and job satisfaction will suffer and work will be undertaken under frustration. When the values and aspirations of the job coincide with those of the individual, the employee is motivated to achieve more. Productivity and job satisfaction will be high. This line of reason is confirmed by 86% of the respondents who agree that they would like to work in an occupational environment in which they can be themselves.

6.2.48 I know I have the personal qualities that are required in my planned occupation (table 49)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
220	80	4

Table 49

73% of the respondents claim that they have identified future careers that their personal characteristics may match. 26% are not sure that they have the personal characteristics required for their planned future occupations. 1% do not agree with the statement.

6.2.49 **I am realistic in terms of the way in which I see myself in a specific occupation** (table 50)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
228	74	2

Table 50

There is a major difference in the possible career outcomes between persons that are idealistic and those that are realistic about their future careers. 75% of the respondents are realistic in terms of the way they see themselves in specific future occupations. Being realistic offers the option to adapt and disappointments in one career may be converted into opportunities in another. Being idealistic may be detrimental in that if one is unsuccessful in a career, one may become so despondent that all future plans and career decisions may be jeopardised. 24% of the respondents are uncertain about whether they are realistic or not. Very often these 'neutral' respondents join the realistic ones when they discover that career opportunities are becoming scarce.

6.2.50 **I know my abilities and the world-of-work well enough to know how they can best fit together** (table 51)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
192	100	12

Table 51

The response to this question supports the response obtained to statement 6.2.41. 63% responded that they agree to the statement which states that they know their abilities and the world-of-work well enough to realise how they can best fit together. This response confirms that they have employed the matching of 'self' with 'work' in obtaining the best possible 'career fit'.

6.2.51 **I have the intellectual ability to make a success of the career I am interested in** (table 52)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
246	52	6

Table 52

Broadly speaking, a person needs to have physical skill as well as intellectual ability to be successful in any specific career. Different careers place different demands on these two skills and require different combinations of them in the execution of their duties. In trying to fit a particular career, aspiring employees need to identify what intellectual capacity is needed to achieve success in that occupation. 81% of the respondents have identified that they have the intellectual abilities required for their future occupations. 17% are uncertain and 2% do not agree with the statement. It may be recommended that the 2% change their aspirations if they are sure that they do not have the required intellectual ability.

6.2.52 **I am sure that my future occupation will provide me with the opportunity of being the person I would like to be** (table 53)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
274	30	0

Table 53

Aspirations comprise dreams and desires. When one chooses a particular career, one dreams of achieving that particular status some day. Very often these aspirations are realised by being successful in the careers that they choose. 90% of the respondents are confident that their future occupations will provide them with opportunities to become the persons they would like to be. 10% are uncertain. None of the respondents disagreed.

E Career planning (CP)

6.2.53 **It is very clear to me what I have to do to reach my career goals** (table 54)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
244	52	8

Table 54

From the data obtained, it is evident that 80% of the respondents have very clear ideas on what career planning was necessary in their particular cases. As most of them had earlier indicated, they had obtained adequate information about the work place and training facilities available. They were able to effectively use all this information to plan for their future careers. It is presumed also that they have contingency plans available should deviations occur along the way. 17% of the respondents are uncertain. This may be attributed to a lack of relevant information or the lack of planning skills. Only 3% disagreed with the statement.

6.2.54 **I know where to contact a trained professional (such as a guidance counsellor) if I have a career problem that I wish to discuss** (table 55)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
172	86	46

Table 55

57% of the respondents stated that they were aware of where to contact a trained professional person who may assist they with their career problems. 43% are either uncertain or do not know where to find such a person. This lack of information could imply that they have not researched this aspect well enough of it could be the case that there are not enough such trained personnel in the area. The latter may be the case as exposed by Naidoo (1997) that the region was not afforded the benefit of having trained vocational guidance counsellors or teachers of guidance at their schools. It is evident also, that most of the tertiary education institutions in the area do not have trained personnel to assist students that have career and study-related problems.

6.2.55 **I have already taken steps to better equip myself for my future career** (table 56)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
244	38	22

Table 56

Most of the respondents (80%) are not waiting for things to be done for them by outside forces. They have taken the initiative to better equip themselves for their future careers. In many sectors of the economy, most of the unemployed are waiting for handouts and are living on charity and donations. It is encouraging to conclude that most of the targeted population is taking positive steps to better themselves. 13% are not sure about this. Education is necessary to help them realise that they have to carve out their own career destinies. The 7% that do not agree with the statement may be under the false assumption that some outside force, like the government may take it upon them to assist them.

6.2.56 **I often discuss my future plans with people whose opinion I value** (table 57)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
254	36	14

Table 57

Throughout one's life one establishes role models that one aspires toward or whose advice one reverends. 84% of the respondents support this theory when they agree that they often discuss their future plans with people whose opinion they value. This is an extremely important check and balance in that when one blindly aspires towards a chosen career, one tends to ignore the dangers that may exist in the process. By constantly discussing one's plans with someone who knows, pit-falls and obstacles may be removes and danger may be averted. All these factors may contribute to the realisation of one's future career.

6.2.57 I have previous experience of what is expected of me in the career of my choice (table 58)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
168	60	76

Table 58

It is often stated that experience is the best teacher. Gaining first-hand experience of the kind of work that one is expected to do may help the candidate in the selection of his future career. It may confirm that this is what he really wants to do and thereby make plans to achieve his goals. Work experience may also prove to the candidate that the real thing does not coincide with what his expectations were and this may enlighten him to change his future career. 55% of those who responded claimed that they had previous work experience. 45% will have to choose a future career without having hands-on experience.

6.2.58 **I feel capable of completing all the necessary training and study for the career I am considering** (table 59)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
258	40	6

Table 59

To be capable of completing all the necessary training and study for the career one is considering would imply that one has all the resources necessary to be able to achieve this. Money is the first career hurdle, followed by time and thirdly, the institution available for training. Other prior requirements are the intellectual ability and the will to persevere and succeed. 85% of the respondents are confident that they have the capacity to prepare adequately for their future careers.

6.2.59 **I regard career planning as a process that continues throughout life** (table 60)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
282	10	12

Table 60

Most career theorists concur that a person's career may be classified into three stages viz. The early career, the mid-career period and the period prior to retirement. It is no wonder, therefore, that career is viewed as a process that continues throughout life. The career itself is dynamic and responds to changes in the environment and changes in the demands of society. Constant adjustment and retraining may at times be necessary. As old methods are being replaced by modern technology, so too must the employee constantly keep up with these changes to be gainfully employed. 93% of the respondents seem to understand this dynamic process of change when they agreed with the statement. The 7% that are either uncertain or do not agree may not be aware of the potential of change to the work environment.

6.2.60 **I am confidently preparing myself for the occupation I want to enter** (table 61)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
272	24	8

Table 61

Having all the other resources to be able to achieve one's future career may be of no benefit if one does not have the will to succeed. 89% of those questioned feel confident that they are adequately preparing for their future careers. Having the confidence is like having the battle half won. 8% are uncertain and 3% do not have the confidence.

6.2.61 **I am capable of overcoming financial barriers to achieve my career aspirations** (table 62)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
182	78	44

Table 62

One of the major constraints facing candidates that wish to study is their inability to acquire financial support. Bursaries are few and far in-between, banks will not grant study loans to candidates who have no co-laterals and private sponsors are hard to find. In spite of these drawbacks, 60% of the respondents agree that they are capable of overcoming financial barriers to achieve their career aspirations. This may be attributed to the fact that a large proportion of the students studying at this campus is already engaged in employment. However, 40% of those questioned feel that financial barriers will hamper them.

6.2.62 I am certain about what study courses to take to help me achieve the occupation of my choice (table 63)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
262	40	2

Table 63

The response to this statement coincides with the response received to statement 6.2.37. With all the necessary information about their future careers available to them, future employees are able to select the correct subject sets necessary for their future occupations. 86% of those questioned agreed that they were certain about their subject choices. 14% were either neutral or disagreed.

6.2.63 I have a specific career in mind with the course I am taking at the moment (table 64)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
268	30	6

Table 64

As is the result of adequate information and proper, intensive career planning, most of the respondents (88%) have positively identified specific careers for which they have embarked on a study programme. 10% are uncertain about their future careers and may, therefore, be studying and hoping for the best to happen to them incidentally. 2% do not agree and imply that they are studying with no specific career in mind.

6.2.64 **I am making every serious effort to reach my desired career** (table 65)

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
288	16	0

Table 65

This final statement tests the seriousness of the future employee to his commitment in aspiring towards his future career. An overwhelming 95% of those questioned indicated that they were making every serious effort to reach their desired careers. 5% were neutral. None disagreed with the statement.

6.3 SUMMARY

An analysis of the data retrieved during this study revealed that most of the students were over the age of twenty six. This was attributed to the fact that the Durban-Umlazi campus was created to serve working students. The five components of the second section of the questionnaire highlighted the following findings:

- Self information: In establishing a future career, students began with an analysis of their own personalities, strengths, weaknesses, potentials, values, beliefs and aspirations. In most cases, candidates were able to identify their characteristics and were able to use these as criteria to help them identify a career that they might be suited to.

- Decision making: Students were rated on their decision-making skills. It was evident that most of them preferred to make their own decisions after being exposed to all the information available about the work place. In some cases, students solicited the opinion and advice of persons whom they held in high esteem.

- Career information: Sources of career information were identified. Some of the respondents assimilated information from written literature, the broadcast media, by contact with persons at work and through information centres viz. technikons, employment agencies, universities, Manpower, etc.

- Integration of self information with career information: Candidates were rated on their abilities to match their self information with that of careers in order to identify the best possible future career they may aspire toward. Most students were able to identify particular careers or specific sectors of interest.

- Career planning: Steps in career planning were identified. Most students followed logical career planning procedures. Where adequate information was available, students were able to make well informed career plans. In some cases, students did not make clear plans and waited on chance and good luck to steer a career in their direction.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This research study was initiated so that more information, debate and attention may be focused on the importance attributed to the career aspirations of students in general and undergraduate economic students in particular. Students were solicited to express perceptions on their career aspirations and on those factors that influenced the choice of their future careers.

7.2 SUMMARY

7.2.1 Statement of the problem

There appears to be tremendous shortages of personnel skilled in the economic sciences and as a result more students have undertaken to study economics so that they may have the necessary qualifications to gain access to economically linked careers. By directing this research specifically at the career aspirations of undergraduate students, much could possibly be done in teaching and guiding them toward the realization of their aspirations.

7.2.2 Achievement motivation

The discussion concerned the nature of achievement motivation The nature of motivation, in terms of both the process and the content theories, and the nature of achievement were considered in order to set the achievement motivation construct in its context. Thereafter, the various theories of achievement motivation were considered.

Gender issues in terms of achievement motivation were then discussed which involved discussion of the differences between the achievement motivation of males and females and possible explanations for these differences. Occupational level issues on achievement motivation were then considered including a consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees, followed by a discussion of the achievement motivation of managerial and then non-managerial women.

It has been shown that traditional males have higher levels of achievement motivation than females and that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial employees are. Further, it has been found that managerial women have levels of achievement motivation, which are similar to those of males and higher than those of non-managerial are.

It has been argued that managerial women have adapted to the culture of the male-dominated workplace and overcome the traditional gender-related suppression of achievement motivation. Non-managerial women, however, display lower levels of achievement motivation possibly due to the effect of primary socialization and sex role training. It seems that achievement motivation does play a role in the upward occupational mobility of women in the sense that higher achievement motivation levels of managerial women facilitate their upward mobility, while the lower levels of non-managerial women place a restriction on their upward mobility.

7.2.3 Career choice

On reflecting on the theories and models discussed in this chapter, there is evidence of movement to a developmental frame of reference and to greater consideration of the contexts of decision making. Previously, the primary task of guidance specialists had been seen as being to diagnose the individual's attributes and to prescribe appropriate occupations. Now their tasks are increasingly seen as facilitating the individual's decision making processes and developing decision-making skills. However, for the South African situation there is too much emphasis on the one-to-one counseling situation and the expertise of the counselor. Such counseling is a luxury most South African schools and institutions cannot afford. There have been some attempts in the theoretical literature to address the issue of group counseling, for example, Crites' comprehensive counseling and the programmatic implementation of the theories of Super, Holland and Tiedeman do offer some solutions.

What is relevant to this research project then, is that career development should be a holistic, ongoing developmental process linked to the development and growth of the self-concept of the individual. Moreover, it should enable students to clarify their personal values and help them make decisions for themselves considering the impact of environmental opportunities and constraints. Since career decision making is not a one-off event, but a series of decisions which continue throughout the life-span, helping the individual to develop ways of making decisions taking into account as many of the variables as possible, is an important aim. Adequate work information will enable students to challenge their fantasies about the world of work, to broaden their knowledge of opportunities and limitations and to base their decision-making on the realities of the current situation.

7.2.4 Self-concept

The self-concept is the sum total of the views that a person has of himself and consists of beliefs, evaluations and behaviuoral tendencies. This implies that the self-concept can be considered to be a plethora of attitudes towards the self, which are unique to each individual. The self-concept is important in explaining behaviour because it maintains consistency of behaviuor, determines the interpretation of experience, and provides a set of expectancies. James, Cooley and Mead stand out as early influences in this area concerning the development of theory about the self-concept. Finally, the chapter is concluded by relating the self-concept to the focus of this study by highlighting the importance of the self-concept in Super's career-choice theory.

7.2.5 Planning of the research

Chapter five served to outline the criteria and procedures that the researcher had to consider in the planning of the research. Planning incorporated permission, selection of respondents, the research instrument employed (in this case, the questionnaire), validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the pilot study, how the questionnaire were administered, processing of the data and the limitations of the investigation. All of these aspects served in the construction of a credible research design.

7.2.6 Analysis and presentation of data

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the data collected from the questionnaires completed by 304 undergraduate economic students of the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi campus and to offer comments and interpretations on the findings. At the outset, an explanation and description concerning the methodology and analysis of the data, was provided. This was followed by the presentation and discussion of the responses to the statements in the questionnaires. A summary of the findings follows in section 7.3.

7.2.7 Purpose of the study

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.5) to determine the course of this study. These aims were realized through a literature study, together with an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire. On the basis of the aims and the findings of the study, certain recommendations (cf. 7.4) are offered.

7.3 FINDINGS

Through the review of literature, general observations, informal discussions and the use of the principal research instrument, the questionnaire, the researcher established the following:

7.3.1 There are more female than male students enrolled for further education

As typical of an emerging, democratic economy, the numbers of female students actively engaged in further education and training, is larger than their male counterparts. With women's rights firmly enshrined in the new South African constitution, larger numbers of females (cf. 6.2.2) are participating in the work force. Most of the women interviewed stated that they viewed the acquisition of a degree a pre-requisite to a better job. Once they had obtained a degree, they felt that they could not be discriminated against in terms of educational qualifications. A degree could enhance their chances of being considered for more senior, higher-level, management positions.

7.3.2 Self-information

The following details concerning the students' self-information emerged from the data:

- 76% have a clear mental picture of what their lives will be like in their future occupation (cf. 6.2.5).
- 88% know their strengths and weaknesses (cf. 6.2.6).
- 87% have identified the things that they are good at (cf. 6.2.7).
- 94% consider it important to use their abilities to the fullest in their future occupations (cf. 6.2.8).
- 91% want to choose an occupation that allows them to do what they believe in (cf. 6.2.9).
- 97% want to enjoy their future careers. Strangely, 1,5% are neutral and 1,5% disagree with the statement (cf. 6.2.10).
- 72% maintain that when they are interested in what they are doing, they can keep at it for hours (cf. 6.2.11).
- 91% believe that an important part of work is the satisfaction one gets from doing it (cf. 6.2.12).
- 43% feel that at present they are personally more concerned about their future plans (cf. 6.2.13).
- 54% fully understand why some people can be so certain about what they want to become one day (cf. 6.2.14).
- 48% find that the demands made on them are in conflict with one another (cf. 6.2.15).
- 63% claim that it matters what occupation they choose and that salary is not the only influential factor (6.2.16).

7.3.3 Decision –Making

The following perceptions were realized from the questionnaire responses concerning the decision-making abilities of the respondents:

- 84% have a clear goal in mind when they think about their future occupations (cf. 6.2.17).
- 66% claim that they are effective decision-makers (cf. 6.2.18) and 31% are uncertain about their decision-making skills (cf. 6.2.18).
- 70% stated that when they started something, they could usually see it through (cf. 6.2.19).
- 76% are aware of possible alternatives they can consider in their proposed occupational fields (cf. 6.2.20).
- 89% claim that when it comes to choosing an occupation, they will make up their own minds (cf. 6.2.21).
- 88% are confident that they can usually think of ways to solve important problems in their daily lives (cf. 6.2.22).
- 80% are motivated to make the necessary career decisions that are expected of them (cf. 6.2.23).
- 82% have identified more than one way to go about reaching the goals they set for themselves (cf. 6.2.24).
- 85% do not prefer others to make decisions for them concerning important matters such as choosing an occupation (cf. 6.2.25).
- 46% suggested that it is sensible to try out several occupations and then choose the one they liked the best (cf. 6.2.26).
- 44% do not see choosing an occupation as a trial- and error action rather than a planned decision making process (cf. 6.2.27).
- 92% feel that it is necessary to spend great effort on the choice of an occupation (cf. 6.2.28).

7.3.4 Career information

The following details concerning career information was obtained from the responses:

- 80% of the respondents are aware of related occupations in the occupational field they are interested in (cf. 6.2.29).
- 59% have already spoken to people who are employed in the occupational field they are considering (cf. 6.2.30).
- 59% know what a typical workday would be like in the occupation they are considering (cf. 6.2.31).
- 54% have already consulted pamphlets and books about future occupations (cf. 6.2.32).
- 72% know what the most suitable training would be for the occupation they are interested in (cf. 6.2.33).
- 68% are aware of alternative ways in which they can obtain training for their future occupations (cf. 6.2.34).
- 57% have an idea of the salaries people earn in the occupational fields they are interested in (cf. 6.2.35).
- 67% know what the future outlook for employment may be in the occupational fields they are interested in (cf. 6.2.36).
- 92% are sure that their choices of subjects are suitable for the occupation they have in mind (cf. 6.2.37).
- 89% know what study courses to take to prepare for their future occupations (cf. 6.2.38).
- 80% have identified occupations that suit them (cf. 6.2.39).
- 88% consider knowing about the work conditions of a job important to them (cf. 6.2.40).

7.3.5 Integration of self-information with career-information

The respondents' responses to their abilities to integrate self-information with career-information are summarized below:

- 68% understand how to apply their abilities and potentials in the occupational field they were considering (cf. 6.2.41)
- 61% know how their interests and abilities might relate to different kinds of jobs (cf. 6.2.42).
- 76% feel that they have the personal qualities that are needed for the careers they are considering (cf. 6.2.43).
- 88% claim that it is important to know how certain occupations may affect their lifestyles (cf. 6.2.44).
- 82% intend to first obtain information about different jobs before making a career decision (cf. 6.2.45).
- 86% sated that, in making an occupational choice, they needed to know what kind of person they were (cf. 6.2.46).
- 86% would very much like to work in an occupational environment in which they can be themselves (cf. 6.2.47).
- 73% are confident that they have the personal qualities that are required in their planned occupations (cf. 6.2.48).
- 75% are realistic in terms of the way they see themselves in specific occupations (cf. 6.2.49).
- 63% know their abilities and the world-of-work well enough to know how best they can fit together (cf. 6.2.50)
- 81% are sure that they have the intellectual abilities to make successes of the careers they are interested in (cf. 6.2.51).
- 90% are confident that their future occupations will provide them with opportunities of being the persons they would like to be (cf. 6.2.52).

7.3.6 Career planning

A summary of the respondents' career planning abilities are summarized below:

- 80% claim that it is very clear to them what they have to do to reach their career goals (cf. 6.2.53).
- 57% know where to contact a trained professional (such as a guidance counselor) if they should have a career problem that they wish to discuss (cf. 6.2.54).
- 80% have already taken steps to better equip themselves for their future careers (cf. 6.2.55).
- 84% often discuss their future plans with people whose opinions they value (cf. 6.2.56).
- 55% had previous experience of what may be expected of them in the careers of their choices (cf. 6.2.57).
- 85% feel capable of completing all the necessary training and study for the career they were considering (cf. 6.2.58).
- 93% regard career planning as a process that continues thruoghout life (cf. 6.2.59).
- 89% are confidently preparing themselves for the occupations they want to enter (cf. 6.2.60).
- 60% are capable of overcoming financial barriers to achieve their career aspirations (cf. 6.2.61).
- 86% are certain about what study courses to take to help them achieve the occupations of their choice (cf. 6.2.62).
- 88% have a specific career in mind with the course they were taking at that time (cf. 6.2.63).
- 95% were making every serious effort to reach their desired careers (cf. 6.2.64).

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on both the literature study and the empirical findings, the researcher offers the following recommendations that could serve as a catalyst for more research, debate and improvement to the assistance offered to students concerning their future career aspirations.

7.4.1 Provision of career resource centers in tertiary education institutions

(1) Motivation

The targeted university did not have a career resource center available on the campus. Further investigation revealed that even at the main campus, no serious effort was being made to incorporate this vital facility for their students. This posed a problem to students in that they have to obtain information about available careers from other outside sources. As most of the students are employed, most of them do not have the time or the contact to obtain work-related information; hence they do not make well-informed career decisions.

(2) Recommendations

Every effort must be made to establish career resource centers at all campuses of tertiary educational institutions. Where funds are not available, every effort should be made to invite donors from the private sector and business to establish educational/career partnerships.

7.4.2 Availability of trained vocational and subject advisors at tertiary educational institutions

(1) Motivation

During the research study it emerged that no trained vocational counselor was available on the campus. This posed the problem that when students were faced with career-related problems they were not exposed to an expert to assist them overcome their problems. Help had to be obtained from family, friends and third parties, all of who very often had no training in the field of career guidance. This drawback could not offer the student proper advice and frustrated his attempts to solve his career problems.

(2) Recommendations

Every possible attempt should be made by tertiary educational institutions to make the services of a trained career guidance counselor available to their students. Where it may not be possible to employ a person on a full time basis, attempts should be made to provide a part-time service at least.

7.4.3 The establishment of employment contact offices at tertiary educational institutions

(1) Motivation

One major drawback in the labour market is that after students have acquired appropriate training; they are faced with the scenario that no employment opportunities exist. They are obliged to register at outside employment agencies and are placed in queues of waiting lists. If they fail to establish a reasonable contact with these agencies, they are often sidelined and ignored for employment. This marginalises the chances of deserving and achieving students who do not have good leads for employment.

(2) Recommendations

Future employers should be motivated to establish employment contact links with tertiary institutions so that deserving students may be recommended for certain employment positions and articleships.

7.4.4 An active mechanism should be set into motion at tertiary educational institutions to assist pupils to 'know themselves' and to develop their decision-making skills

(1) Motivation

The research study revealed that many students do not have the skills and the 'know-how' to help them realize and identify their potentials, interests, strengths, weaknesses and how to make well-informed decisions. This hampers their abilities to choose an appropriate career.

(2) Recommendations

Special courses that teach decision-making processes could be introduced at tertiary institutions. This could be supplemented with workshops and exposure to short questionnaires that may assist them to identify their personal traits.

7.5 CRITICISM

Criticism that emanates from this study is categorized as limitations of the scope (cf. 5.8.1), limitations of the design (cf. 5.8.2) and methodological limitations (cf. 5.8.3), all of which were discussed in more detail in chapter five.

7.6 FURTHER RESEARCH

During the course of the investigation the researcher became aware of many areas of concern regarding the career aspirations of undergraduate students in general. Many of these areas were briefly touched upon in the study, but require in-depth research as they are most certainly influential as far as the future of the individual and the country are concerned.

An investigation into the following areas should be considered for further research:

- Career aspirations of undergraduate students in general.
- Diversification of university curriculums to meet the needs of commerce and industry.
- Implementation of in-service training programmes at tertiary institutions.
- Evaluation of job-related training programmes at tertiary institutions.
- Evaluating links between education and the world of work.
- Establishment of self-evaluation programmes at tertiary institutions.

- Creating jobs for the jobless.

- Self-employment skills training programmes.

7.7 FINAL REMARK

According to Visser (Naidoo, 1997 : 168-172), career counselling is traditionally done in the clinical practice by clinical or counselling psychologists on a one-to-one basis. The other alternative, is the educational milieu where career counsellors do basic career counselling in the classroom set-up and only those pupils with serious career problems, are referred to the educational psychologist that again sees the pupil on a one-to-one basis. This model has the following implications:

- It is very costly from an economical point of view.

- Only a selected few people can obtain career counselling.

- Attention is only given to pupils with a serious problem with regard to career choice and those pupils who seem to be able to make a choice of their own, are left to their own devices - no thought is given to the correctness of their choice.

This means that most South Africans at present, do not receive appropriate career guidance and have to rely on their own resources that sadly seem to lack a good basic knowledge of the various careers.

One of the objectives of this research study was to initiate discussion and debate on the plight of work seekers. It is envisaged that the problem will receive the rightful attention it deserves and that those in power might be motivated to help solve it.

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APPENDIX A

CAREER DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

CAREER DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (CDQ)

GENERAL INFORMATION

1. INTRODUCTION

Everyone has to plan his career and make decisions concerning his occupation. If we make effective decisions, it means we enter occupations in which we can achieve and be happy. The questionnaire you are requested to complete, is known as the Career Development Questionnaire (CDQ).

2. AIM

The aim of the CDQ is to indicate in which particular area(s) of career choice and development you may possibly experience problems. Obtaining this information makes corrective measures possible. In this regard, it is hoped to established how the study of Economics may influence career choice and aspiration.

3. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This is a questionnaire and ***not*** a test. Consequently, there are no correct or incorrect answers. The questionnaire contains a number of statements related to career choice and development. Please read each statement carefully and decide whether you *Agree*, *Disagree* or remain *Neutral/Uncertain*.

4. ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please fill in your personal details in ***Part A***, then answer the questions in ***Part B*** on the answer sheet by marking a cross(X) in the particular box that best represents your view.

EXAMPLE

(a) I constantly think about the occupation that I intend entering.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

In ***Part C*** please answer the two questions posed to you.

PART A

Please indicate your personal details in the spaces provided :

1 AGE: ____________

2 SEX: ____________

3 REGISTERED DEGREE (e.g. B.A; B.Com;etc): ______________________

4 LEVEL OF ECONOMICS ENROLLED FOR: ___________

PLEASE MAKE SURE THAT ALL PARTICULARS ARE COMPLETED CORRECTLY AND IN FULL.

PART B

A SELF-INFORMATION (SI)

1 I have a clear mental picture of what my life will be like in my future occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

2 I know my strengths and weaknesses.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

3 I know the things I am good at.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

4 I consider it important to use my abilities to the fullest in my future occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

5 I want to choose an occupation that allows me to do what I believe in.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

6 I want to enjoy my future career.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

7 When I am really interested in what I am doing, I can keep at it for hours.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

8 I believe that an important part of work is the satisfaction one gets from doing it.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

9 At present I feel that other people are more concerned about my future plans than I am.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

10 I fully understand why some people can be so certain about what they want to become one day.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

11 I find that the demands made on me are in conflict with one another (e.g. university, home, sport, community and friends).

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

12 It does not matter what occupation I choose as long as it pays well.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

B DECISION MAKING (DM)

13 I have a clear goal in mind when I think about my future occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

14 I am an effective decision maker.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

15 When I start something, I can usually see it through.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

16 I am aware of possible alternatives which I can consider in my chosen occupational field.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

17 When it comes to choosing an occupation, I'll make up my own mind.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

18 I can usually think of ways to solve important problems in my daily life.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

19 I am motivated to make the necessary career decisions that are expected of me at this stage.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

20 There is more than one way to go about reaching a goal I set for myself.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

21 I prefer others to make decisions for me concerning important matters such as choosing an occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

22 It is sensible to try out several occupations, and then choose the one I like the best.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

23 I see choosing an occupation as a trial-and-error action rather than as a planned decision-making process.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

24 It is necessary to spend great effort on the choice of an occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

C CAREER INFORMATION (CI)

25 I am aware of related occupations in the occupational field I am interested in.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

26 I have already spoken to people who are employed in the occupation that I am considering at present.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

27 I know what a typical workday will be like in the occupation I am considering.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

28 I have already consulted pamphlets and books about future occupations.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

29 I know what the most suitable training would be for the occupation that I am interested in.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

30 I am aware of alternative ways in which I can obtain training for my future occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

31 I have an idea what salaries people earn in the occupational field I am interested in.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

32 I know what the future outlook is for employment in the occupational field I am interested in.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

33 I am sure that my choice of subjects is suitable for the occupation I have in mind.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

34 I know what study courses to take to prepare for my future occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

35 I have identified occupations that suit me.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

36 Knowing about the work conditions of a job are important to me (e.g. working with people/things, indoors/outdoors, etc.).

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

D INTEGRATION OF SELF-INFORMATION WITH CAREER INFORMATION (I)

37 I understand how to apply my abilities and potential in the occupation I am considering.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

38 I know how my interests and abilities might relate to different kinds of jobs.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

39 I have the personal qualities that are needed for the career I am considering.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

40 It is important to know how a certain occupation will affect my lifestyle.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

41 Before making a career decision, I will first obtain information about different jobs.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

42 In making an occupational choice, I need to know what kind of a person I am.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

43 I would very much like to work in an occupational environment in which I can be myself.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

44 I know I have the personal qualities that are required in my planned occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

45 I am realistic in terms of the way in which I see myself in a specific occupation.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

46 I know my abilities and the world-of-work well enough to know how they can best fit together.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

47 I have the intellectual ability to make a success of the career I am interested in.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

48 I am sure that my future occupation will provide me with the opportunity of being the person I would like to be.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

E CAREER PLANNING (CP)

49 It is very clear to me what I have to do to reach my career goals.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

50 I know where to contact a trained professional (such as a guidance counsellor) if I have a career problem that I wish to discuss.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

51 I have already taken steps to better equip myself for my future career.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

52 I often discuss my future plans with people whose opinion I value.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

53 I have previous experience of what is expected of me in the career of my choice.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

54 I feel capable of completing all the necessary training and study for the career I am considering.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

55 I regard career planning as a process that continues throughout life.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

56 I am confidently preparing myself for the occupation I want to enter.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

57 I am capable of overcoming financial barriers to achieve my career aspirations.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

58 I am certain about what study courses to take to help me achieve the occupation of my choice.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

59 I have a specific career in mind with the course I am taking at the moment.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

60 I am making every serious effort to reach my desired career.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

THANK YOU FOR ANSWERING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. I HOPE YOUR DREAMS TURN TO REALITY.