Exploring links between gender, dwelling and career interests among black emerging adults

by

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DECLARATION

I, MOKGATA ALLEN MATJIE, student number 47191694, declare that the dissertation of limited scope entitled, "**Exploring links between gender, dwelling and career interests among African emerging adults",** is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. The dissertation has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

I further declare that ethical clearance and permission to conduct the research was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Tshwane University of Technology. In addition, permission was obtained from the participants to conduct the research. As such, the study was carried out in strict accordance with the ethical clearance and permission from Tshwane University of Technology. I took care to ensure that the research was conducted with the highest integrity, taking into account Unisa's Policy for Infringement and Plagiarism.

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MOKGATA ALLEEN TSHEPO MATJIE

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JUNE 2018

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

SUMMARY

EXPLORING LINKS BETWEEN GENDER, DWELLING AND CAREER INTERESTS AMONG BLACK EMERGING ADULTS

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The objectives of the research were (1) to establish the theoretical and empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and the career interests of young African emerging adults; and (2) to determine whether gender and dwelling positively and significantly predict the career interests of young black emerging adults. The participants comprised a convenience sample of 159 black African final-year students at a South African tertiary institution (57% rural, 43% urban; 63% females, 37% males). Primary data was collected by means of a biographical questionnaire and the Career Orientations Inventory (COI). Regression analysis showed that gender significantly explained the variance in the participants' entrepreneurial creativity interests, while dwelling significantly explained the general management, service dedication to a cause and technical and functional career interests. The Wilcoxon two-sample test further revealed significant differences in the career interests of the participants residing in rural areas and those in urban areas. Males had a stronger interest in the entrepreneurial creativity career orientation compared to their female counterparts. The findings should extend career development theory pertaining to black African emerging male and female adults by providing new insights into the career interests of Africans living in rural and urban areas.

Keywords: black African emerging adults, career interests, career orientations, career anchors, gender, dwelling, career choice

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLRATION ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT iii

SUMMARY iv

TABLE OF CONTENTS v

CHAPTER 1 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH 1

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY 1

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT 5

1.2.1 General research questions 11

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH 11

1.3.1 General aim 12

1.3.2 Specific aims: Literature review 12

1.3.3 Specific aims: Empirical study 12

1.4 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE 12

1.4.1 Humanistic-existential paradigm 13

1.4.2 Positivist research paradigm 14

1.4.3 Conceptual descriptions 15

1.4.3.1 Emerging adulthood 15

1.4.3.2 Career interests 15

1.4.3.3 Gender 16

1.4.3.4 Dwelling 16

1.4.4 Central theoretical statement 17

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN 17

1.5.1 Research approach 18

1.5.2 Methods used to ensure validity and reliability 18

1.5.2.1 Validity 19

1.5.2.2 Reliability 19

1.5.3 Research variables 20

1.5.4 Unit of analysis 20

1.5.5 Ethical considerations 21

1.5 RESEARCH METHOD 22

1.6.1 Phase 1: Literature review 23

1.6.2 Phase 2: Empirical study 23

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT 26

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY 26

CHAPTER 2 27

LITERATURE REVIEW: CAREER INTERESTS, GENDER AND DWELLING 27

2.1 THE THEORY OF EMERGING ADULTHOOD 28
2.1.1 **Conceptualization of emerging adulthood theory** 29
2.1.2 **Global literature on emerging adulthood** 31
2.1.3 **Emerging adulthood is Africa and South Africa** 33
2.1.4 Criticism of emerging adulthood 34
2.1.5 Emerging adulthood and Millennials 35
2.1.6 Emerging adulthood as a developmental theory 36
2.2 CAREER INTERESTS 37
2.2.1 Schein's career anchors model 37
2.2.1.1 Conceptualization of career anchors 38
2.2.1.2 Types of career anchors 39
2.3 THE SOCIAL CONGINTIVE CAREER THEORY (SCCT) 43
2.3.1 Conceptualization of SCCT 44
2.4 VARIABLES INFLUENCING THE CAREER INTERESTS OF EMRGING ADULTS 45
2.4.1 Dwelling or geographic location 45
2.4.2 Gender stereotypes 47
2.5 **CHALLENGES FACED BY AFRICAN EMERGING ADULTS IN SOUTH AFRICA** 51
2.5.1 Career myths 51
2.5.2 Lack of self-concept 53
2.6 INTERGRATION: THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER, DWELLING AND CAREER INTERESTS OF AFRICAN EMERGING ADULTS 53
2.7 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS: OF GENDER AND DWELLING ON CAREER INTERESTS OF AFRICAN EMRGING ADULTS 55
2.8 CRITICAL EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS 57
2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY 58

CHAPTER 3 59
RESEARCH REPORT 59
3.1 INTRODUCTION 59
3.1.1 Key focus of the study 59
3.1.2 Background of the study 61

3.1.3 Trends arising from literature 65
3.1.4 Research objectives 67
3.1.5 Value added by the study 67
3.1.6 To follow 67
3.2 RESEARCH REPORT 68
3.2.1 Approach 68
3.2.2 Research methods 68
3.2.2.1 Participants 68
3.2.2.2 Measuring instruments 69
3.2.2.3 Procedure 70
3.2.2.4 Statistical analysis 70
3.3 RESULTS 71
3.3.1 Descriptive statistics 72
3.3.2 Correlations 72
3.3.3 Inferential statistics: regression 76
3.3.4 Inferential statistics: Test for significant mean differences 77
3.3.4.1 Significant mean differences: gender 77
3.3.4.2 Significant mean differences: dwelling 77
3.3.5 Decisions regarding research hypotheses 80
3.4. DISCUSSION 81
3.4.1 The biographical sample profile 81
3.4.2 The relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests. 83
3.4.3 Gender and dwelling dimensions as predictors of career interests. 84
3.4.4 Significant differences between the biographical groups 85
3.4.4.1 Age 85
3.4.4.2 Gender 86
3.4.4.3 Dwelling 87
3.5 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH 87
3.5.1 Conclusions 87
3.5.2 Limitations 89
3.5.3 Recommendations for future research 90
3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY 91

CHAPTER 4 92

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 92

4.1 CONCLUSIONS 92

4.1.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review 92

4.1.1.1 The first aim: To conceptualise the construct of career interests and explore through the literature review the influence of age (emerging adulthood), dwelling and gender on individuals' career interests. *92*

4.1.1.2 The second aim: To theoretically identify the implications of the relationship between the career interests of emerging adults, gender and dwelling for career development theory and practice. *93*

4.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study 95

4.1.2.1 To empirically determine the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests (using Career Orientations Inventory (COI)) of African emerging adults. 95

4.1.2.2 To empirically determine whether gender and dwelling act as predictors of career interests of African emerging adults. 95

4.1.2.3 To determine whether biographical variables of emerging adults from different age groups (moderator), gender, and dwelling differ significantly with regard to their career interests. 96

4.1.2.4 Based on the findings, to make recommendations for future research and the Career Counselling field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. 96

4.2 LIMITATIONS 97

4.2.1 Limitations of the literature review 97

4.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study 97

4.3 RECOMMNDATIONS 97

4.3.1 Recommendations for career development practices 98

4.3.2 Future research 99

4.4 INTEGRATION OF THE STUDY 99

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY 100

REFERENCES 101

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 *Flow Diagram of the Research Method* 22

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 *Overview of the Conceptual Descriptions, Theoretical Models and Measuring Instruments* 16

Table 1.2 Overview of Research aims, Research Hypotheses and Statistical Procedures 24

Table 2.1 *Arnett's Characteristics of the Emerging Adulthood stage* 28

Table 2.2 *Characteristics of the Eight Career anchors* 40

Table 3.1 *Demographic Variables Characteristics of the Sample* 68

Table 3.2 *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations* 75

Table 3.3. *Regression analysis: Biographical Variables as Independent Variables and COI constructs as Dependent Variables.* 78

Table 3.*4* *Test for Significant Mean Differences: Gender and Dwelling* 79

Table 3.*5* *Decisions regarding the research Hypotheses* 81

CHAPTER 1
SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

This study focused on exploring the links between gender, dwelling and career interests among African emerging adults. This chapter discusses the background to and motivation for the research topic: formulates the problem statement and the research questions; states the general and specific theoretical and empirical objectives; discusses the paradigm perspective that guides the boundaries for this study; and describes the research design and methodology. The chapter concludes with and the chapter layout of this dissertation of limited scope, as well as a chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The context of this research was the career development of emerging young black Africans. More specifically, the research focused on linking gender, dwelling and career interests as important aspects of career guidance and career choice for African emerging adults.

At some stage, every individual has to make career-related decisions when he or she reaches the relevant career development stage. The emerging adulthood life and career stage is one of the most critical stages in every individual's life (Arnett, 2000). According to Arnett (2000), the 21st century presents numerous opportunities and challenges when it comes to career-related choices for individuals in the emerging adulthood stage. During this stage, emerging adults should attempt to engage in career exploration by assuming adult responsibilities through short-term work possibilities (Arnett, 2000). Individuals are referred to as young emerging adults during this stage, because they are no longer adolescents, but not yet adults. Since its inception, the emerging adulthood stage has been widely researched across disciplines and has been touted as the new paradigm for understanding development from the late teens through the twenties (Arnett, 2015; Trible, 2015).

Emerging adulthood stage involves a period of career exploration and personal growth in individuals between the ages of 18–28 to 30 years, depending on the context and country (Arnett, 2000; 2015; Trible, 2015). At the same time, career choice is increasingly a challenging task for young adults in globalising work economies in which careers of choice may not be tied to physical or geographical boundaries (Maree, 2016; Nyamwenge, 2016). This would be the case with information-based careers or those of an entrepreneurial nature as with emerging business niches.

Career self-concept or one's work experiences self-knowledge and career-related information resourcing may be tied to gender and geographical location identities so that career orientations profiles may be explained by these two socio-ecological variables (Matshabane, 2016; Shepard & Marshall, 2000; Schein, 1996; Super, 1990; Weishew & Penk, 1993).

When choosing a career, it is important for emerging adults to assess their own interests, abilities and opportunities, and accept or reject particular careers as possible options for themselves. However, African emerging adults residing in rural or township locations develop career interests based only on the current contextual information, because they lack career guidance and counselling services and have limited exposure to career-related information, role models and experiential work, which help to develop their self-concept (Matshabane, 2016; Shepard & Marshall, 2000; Schein, 1996; Super, 1990; Weishew & Penk, 1993). Lack of a strong sense of self and a healthy self-concept leads to inappropriate career choices being made during the emerging adulthood stage (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Self-concept is an important prerogative for emerging adults, more especially African emerging adults. This is so because career choices based on the career self-concept require self-knowledge and a clear understanding of one's interests, abilities, ambitions and resources (Watson & Stead, 2013). Lack of self-concept leads to poor career decisions, because such decisions are made on the basis of environmental or contextual factors rather than on individuals' own talents, abilities or interests (Williams, Grobler, & Grobler 2014; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Studies show that because black and coloured emerging adults tend to lack a self-concept, they struggle with or delay making career decisions (Blomerus, 2016; Themba, 2010).

There is evidence to suggest that geographical residence (i.e. urban versus rural) and gender may influence young adults' career interests or orientations and self-concepts (Bandura et al., 2001; Callahan, 2017; Hewitt, 2010; Maite, 2005; Matshabane, 2016; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Watson, McMahon, Foxcroft, & Els, 2010). Moreover, studies have found that black South Africans lack a self-concept because of inadequate career counselling and guidance services in rural and township schools (Maree, 2013; Stead & Watson, 1999; Watson & Stead, 2013). The result of this is that, contextual factors such as gender stereotypes and their geographic location play a pivotal role in development of emerging adults' career interests (Abrahams, Jano, & Van Lill, 2015; Silva, Trevisan, Veloso, & Dutra, 2016; Ekore, 2014; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Tebele et al., 2015). Gender and dwelling (geographical location) have a huge influence on the career development of the majority of South Africa's youth (Ortlepp et al, 2002; Stead & Watson, 1999), thus determining their career interests (Domenico & Jones, 2007). As such, African emerging adults struggle during the career development stages because they are unable to navigate the intricate world of career

choices (Arnett, 2000). Schein (1990) regards the career self-concept as crucial in the development of career interests, and assessing individuals' career interests generally provides an indication of the crystallisation of the career self-concept.

Experiences and challenges during the emerging adulthood stage vary from context to context, depending on the personal situations of emerging adults (Arnett, 1998, 2000; Trible, 2015). Context refers to the geographical location in which an individual resides, social class such as rich or poor, as well as socioeconomics and sociodemographics, which have a major impact on emerging adults from rural areas or previously disadvantaged groups during the emerging adulthood stage (Trible, 2015). Countries differ in terms of their development and cultural practices. A country is either developed or developing, which defines the economy of a country and the differences between social classes and cultural practices. In Africa, all countries, including South Africa, are developing countries, which implies that there are social imbalances and various factors such as unemployment and poverty that might affect the career decisions of emerging adults (CHE, 2013, Foko; 2015).

For example, African cultures and rural locations present different experiences and challenges to emerging adults as opposed to Western cultures and more suburban locations. During the emerging adulthood stage, career interests should be turned into actionable career decisions, which means that career choices are made. However, given contextual factors such as their gender and dwelling, this choice is difficult for certain emerging adults because of their lack of self-knowledge or self-concept. Contextual influences such as gender and dwelling are considered as they affect vocational interests, choice goals and behaviours and might be barriers to the career choices available to black emerging adults (Albien & Naidoo, in press; Buthelezi et al., 2009).

Culture is defined as structures and practices that uphold a particular social order by legitimising certain values, expectations, meanings and patterns of behaviour (Hui, 2017). In light of this, it would seem that in terms of socialisation, there is a strong link between cultural contexts and the development of gender roles (Wood, 1994). The manner in which emerging adults develop their identity, including gender identity, does not originate from a completely personal or particular standpoint, but rather from the perspectives of others and the cultural values they embody (Eagly & Wood, 2003). Thus, as Mierriam and Ntseane (2008) posit, our reality as human beings is created intersubjectively, and our identity formed in webs of affiliations.

African countries are known for their patriarchal culture that encourages males to prosper in any career and discourages women from entering certain careers (Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Nsamenang, 1992;

Urban, 2010). Geographical dispersions are also common in Africa and South Africa (Foko, 2015). As a result, there are some individuals who reside in rural areas who do not have career counselling and guidance and who live far from tertiary institutions or do not have career-related information other than the limited information they are exposed to. Individuals residing in urban areas have access to a wealth of career information and experiential opportunities, as well as adequate career counselling and guidance. Moreover, in South Africa during the apartheid era, black males and females were denied access to certain careers, while females were also pushed into certain feminine careers (Maree, 2016; Watson & Stead, 2013). Hence, blacks and females might still have their minds set on certain careers even after the post-1994 countermeasures in place to encourage freedom of career choices (Garg & Bhide, 2017; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010).

Gender stereotypes are practised and encouraged mostly by rural-based parents, communities or society in which emerging adults grow up. This is because parents are generally more interested in crafting careers for their children based on economic reasons rather than developing career interests relating to constructing a career that requires further education (Kniveton, 2004; Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Nyamwenge, 2016; Weishew & Penk, 1993). Research studies have found that gender stereotypes influence the career interests of male and female youth in different ways when they lack a self-concept. For example, there are notable differences in the career choices of young males and females because of parental stereotyping of careers (Ganesan, 2014; Ramaci et al. 2017; Shabir, Shakeel & Zubair, 2017).

Besides cultural gender stereotypes, geographical location or dwelling was also identified as a factor that influences the career interests of emerging adults (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012). Rural dwelling was found to limit access to role models and tertiary education and career-related information for rural-based emerging adults (Nsamenang, 1992; Robinson & Diale, 2017), as well as career counselling and guidance services (Maree, 2016; Stead and Watson, 2013). The reason for this is that the context in which individuals live influences their career choices (Bandura et al., 2001; Watson et al., 2010). Moreover, owing to the prevalence of low-income families in rural areas, students from disadvantaged or rural communities tend to avoid careers that seem to require a long period of training which their finances simply cannot support (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012).

The aforementioned implies that the context in which the individuals grow up does not always afford them adequate scope to make independent decisions on their careers. There are low-income families or unemployed parents, inadequate educational resources, a lack of career centres and career counselling in rural-based or township schools (Maite, 2005; Miles &

Naidoo, 2017). Geographic location limits exposure to a wide array of careers, thus confining young black adults from rural areas to certain careers, owing to a lack of resources, exposure and relevant career information (DeLong, 1984; Kim & Cho, 2009).

Despite the fact that African emerging adults experience problems and challenges during their career development stage, there is a paucity of research to address these problems. Studies show that emerging adults can benefit from career development support if they are to negotiate the complexities of career life transition to adulthood (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016), and have positive outlook on life (Coetzee, 2014; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Moreover, various studies indicate that there is a need to understand career development from an African perspective to add more African-specific knowledge of and insight into the field (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016; Koekemoer, 2015; Maree, 2013).

The aim of the present study was to explore the differences in career interests between emerging adults living in rural and urban areas and between males and females. Understanding whether gender and dwelling predict career interests, and how these manifest in urban and rural areas among male and female emerging adults, should enrich career development theory in the developing country context.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Career decision making is a critical decision any person has to in life. Everyone has to enter the stage of making a career choice. Career decisions last a lifetime – hence the need for any individual to make a career decision on the basis of a carefully considered process, backed by self-knowledge.

The career decision-making process is almost inevitable when an individual enters the emerging adulthood stage of 18 to 30 years. Such an individual has just been through the adolescent stage during which he or she fantasises about starting a career and developing career interests. A thorough self-knowledge and career-knowledge crusade is essential during the emerging adulthood stage if correct and appropriate career decisions are to be made. It becomes a challenge for individuals who might lack self-knowledge and career-knowledge to actually make career decisions before they reach the age of 30.

Appropriate career decisions in South Africa would go a long way to alleviate the mismatch between the available career opportunities and the pool of qualified people. However, the

apartheid legacy of people classification according to race and social class, and denying other races access to certain careers in the past, continues to dog the country (De la Rey, 1999; Mubiana, 2010). Hence, career development cannot be studied in isolation from the past influences on social and economic disparities in South Africa (Mubiana, 2010). Owing to the post-apartheid movement, currently 54% of black township people show that they do have a career choice compared to the situation during the apartheid years (Dodge & Welderufael, 2014). This is a dramatic improvement and implies that emerging adults are now able to choose any career they prefer. However, 25 years after the democratic dispensation, young adults from rural areas and townships still lack adequate self-knowledge and career-knowledge support mechanisms such as career counselling and guidance (Watson & Stead, 2013).

Young South African adults are confronted with various issues during their emerging adulthood stage when they have to make career decisions. These issues include gender stereotypes, cultural stereotypes and a lack of access to career-related information due to their geographical context and socioeconomic factors. To successfully navigate this stage and emerge with a suitable career choice, they need to have a clear self-concept or self-knowledge (Mubiana, 2010). Self-knowledge is defined as "insight into one's personality which enables him to know what he is capable of" (Mbetse, 2002, p. 83).

Self-knowledge is crucial during this career development stage (Di Fabio & Maree, 2013). Career development is a process during which emerging adults come to understand themselves as they relate to the world of work and their role in it (Cook & Maree, 2016; Hansen, 1976). To understand themselves, they need adequate career counselling and guidance. However, career guidance at previously disadvantaged schools is still under-resourced and under-emphasised **(**Akhurst & Mkhize 2006; Miles, 2015), 20 plus years into South Africa's democracy. Moreover, township or rural-based schools do not have life orientation teachers who are qualified and experienced to provide career guidance (Du Toit, 2010), leaving learners unprepared to navigate their career exploration on their own when they reach tertiary levels. Even programmes such as the 2010 Nelson Mandela Career Guidance Campaign that targeted rural-based schools imparting information on tertiary institutions, courses and training opportunities, financial aid and bursary schemes, have failed to make a significant difference (Abrahams, Jano, & Van Lill, 2015).

Inadequate career guidance is a major problem for African emerging adults when they have to make career decisions during the emerging adulthood stage (Dodge & Welderufael, 2014; Maree, 2015**).** By implication, most African rural or township-based emerging adults in South

Africa do not have access to career facilitation services (Du Doit, 2010; Miles, 2015). As such, lack of self-knowledge makes these emerging adults vulnerable to be influenced by gender and dwelling as contextual factors. Both gender stereotypes and dwelling or geographical location have been found to act as barriers in relation to the career choices of emerging adults (Albien & Naidoo, in press; Buthelezi et al., 2009; Domenico & Jones, 2007; Ortlepp et al, 2002; Stead & Watson, 1999).

Both self-concept and career maturity are important for individuals during the emerging adulthood stage because a lack of these concepts affects career interests. The following quotation from the Nelson Mandela Career Guidance Campaign aptly describes this situation.

> *In rural areas, money and jobs are scarce, the land itself is harsh and demanding, and the schools, which straddle the old rural routines and the glittering prospect of a different life heralded by political and economic change in the far-away cities, are often ill-equipped, under-resourced and poorly staffed to support emerging (young) adults to develop career interests and ultimately make appropriate career choices*
> (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005)

The available research on career maturity among Africans shows that black learners have lower career maturity compared to their white counterparts (Mkhize & Frizelle, 2000). These findings were a direct result of blacks having inadequate access to career information. Over the years, research studies have provided evidence of the career immaturity of both African and coloured young adults in relation to their white counterparts (Blomerus, 2016; Pieterse, 2005).

Owing to the former apartheid policies, African emerging adults' career interests, even after the formation of the new democratic government, have shown an inclination towards the social and or education fields of study compared to the education fields of study chosen by their white counterparts (Maree, 2016; Watson & Stead, 2013). However, this inclination was more because of their own gender, cultural stereotypes and lack of access to career-related information, role models and self-knowledge as a result of their rural or township existence (Garg & Bhide, 2017; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010).

Globally, there is evidence to show that males and females have different kinds of jobs (Reskin 1993; Jacobs 1995a). According to Correll (2001), cultural beliefs about gender differentially influence the relevant career decisions taken by men and women during the emerging adulthood stage. Cultural beliefs lead to self-bias in the sense that individuals doubt their own

competence in performing various career-relevant tasks, thus limiting their actual ability. This adds to the extent to which individuals then act on gender-differentiated perceptions when making career decisions (Correll, 2001). Ultimately, these cultural beliefs about gender channel men and women in substantially different career directions. Numerous research studies have confirmed the existence of a relationship between gender and career choice (Erwee, 1990; Hewitt, 2010; Kniveton, 2004; Morgan, De Bruin, & De Bruin, 2015; Schein, 1978; Williams, Grobler, & Grobler, 2014). It has also been reported that such gender differences are consistent across countries (Van Tongeren-Alers, Dielissen, & Van Leerdam, 2014).

According to the social cognitive career theory (SCCT), without clear career concept individuals are more likely to be affected by their context or environment when making career choices (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994), and also by their culture (Kochung & Migunde, 2011; Ekore, 2014; Shepard & Marshall, 2000). In addition, without clear a self-concept or career guidance, individuals are bound to make career decisions based on situational/environmental factors and not on their personality (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Recent studies have shown the relationship between both gender and dwelling and the career interests of young emerging adults (Callahan, 2017; Cleland et al., 2014; Hewitt, 2010; Matshabane, 2016; Mtemeri, 2017). The career interests of emerging adults from rural or township schools are negatively impacted by a lack of finance, lack of career information, poor academic performance and unsatisfactory career counselling services (Bojuwoye & Mbanjwa, 2006; Maree, 2009; Maree & Beck, 2004; Shumba & Naong, 2012). A Canadian study by Shepard and Marshall (2000) concluded that young rural-based adults, especially women, have limited access to a wide variety of role models combining work and family, which limits their career interests. In addition, rural family members have been found to be significantly more traditional than urban family members, especially in gender role socialisation (Ekore, 2014; Shepard & Marshall, 2000).

Research from Western settings shows an interest in technical, entrepreneurial and managerial occupations to be associated with urban rather than rural residence (DeLong, 1984; Joo, 2011; Kim & Cho, 2009). Differences in career orientation by geographical location have been explained in terms of occupations opportunity structure in urban settings in favour of those seeking technical or entrepreneurial careers premised on advanced vocational training and education (Canadian Rural Partnership, 2000). The occupations opportunity structure in Western countries appears to offer fewer opportunities to those aspiring to technical or entrepreneurial careers (Cooper, 1985; Henderson, 2002; Henderson &

Robertson, 1999). In developing African countries settings, a whopping 30% to 60% of citizens work in the informal job markets in which they are self-employed and with strong links to rural markets for labour and/or resources (Jackson, 2016). It is unclear as to whether findings from Western settings would generalise to developing world country settings with their strong rural-urban social networks, such as with migrant labour markets as well as small business trades that traffic between urban and rural settings.

Studies also provides evidence that gender has been associated with differences in career orientations with females preferring service type professions and males with an interest in technical-managerial professions (Callahan, 2017; Hewitt, 2010; Matshabane, 2016). This effect may be explained by opportunity structure by which females being historically recent entrants to the job market occupy service positions, which may require less preparatory time than would technical –managerial positions. Gender differences in occupational preferences also may be explained by socialization by which males may be socialized to prefer and value technical –managerial positions more than females who may be socialized to service type of professions (Ganesan, 2014; Ramaci et al. 2017; Shabir, Shakeel & Zubair, 2017). The cross-cultural transportability of Western findings on gendered career opportunity structures and socialization to developing country settings cannot be assumed without prior study.

In South Africa, research findings indicates that technical-managerial positions in the formal employment sector are largely urban based and requiring advanced vocational education preparation (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Weishew & Penk, 1993, Maree, 2016; Van Rensburg, 2017). Young adults from South African urban areas, much like their peers in the developed countries may be more aware of and aspire to technical-managerial careers compared to their counterparts from rural communities (Williams, Grobler & Grobler 2014). However, this historic divide in career orientation by area of geographical origin cannot be assumed among college educated young adults. Moreover, the South African senior high school curriculum, which serves as preparatory to university study provides a career-counselling curriculum, which in part, informs would be university students and other of the work opportunities in the South African economy. Nonetheless, South African rural schools tend to provide unsatisfactory career counselling services from a lack of resources (Abrahams, Jano &Van Lill, 2015; Bojuwoye & Mbanjwa, 2006; Maree, 2009; Maree & Beck, 2004; Shumba & Naong, 2012).

Madikizela and Haupt (2010) into gender discrimination in the construction industry led them to conclude that women face various barriers, such as gender-based discrimination, lack of

sufficient knowledge of the industry itself, and a shortage of successful women in construction to act as role models for entry into this male-dominated sector. These factors discourage women from viewing such a sector as a possible career interest (Garg & Bhide, 2017; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010).

Black South Africans have in the past experienced exclusions or restrictions to certain educational and career options (Maree, 2016; Watson & Stead, 2013). As a result, Black South Africans are relatively recent entrants to the full scope of the labour market, having been historically excluded during the apartheid days and with participation of mostly service type professions or unskilled as well as semi-skilled jobs. Historically, rural-urban migration was the norm for Black South Africans seeking careers in the towns. This means occupations in the cities were held in higher prestige than in the deprived rural areas. This may still be the case today, although the influence of historic influences on the present career orientations of young Black South African is a matter for study. Nonetheless, young Black South African from both urban and rural South Africa may be with similar career orientation. The same may hold for career orientation by gender. Patriarchal African culture perceives different careers for male and females. Males have support, resources and advantages for any career choice at their disposal, while women are directed towards teaching, service-related, clerical or secretarial career choices (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Urban, 2010). From an African perspective, the development of the self is linked to community, culture and the fulfilment of certain key roles (Nsamenang, 1992). Thus, gender socialization might make for differences in career orientations between female and male Black South Africans.

Research into gender-based discrimination in South Africa suggest that women face various employment barriers enough to discourage or restrict their career choices (Garg & Bhide, 2017; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010). As such, it does appear that gender does have a role to play during the career decision-making process of African emerging adults and it is worth exploring in the South African context. Moreover, young black adults from South African rural areas may lack in careers orientation from a lack of resources, role models, exposure to and relevant career information (DeLong, 1984; Kim & Cho, 2009).

This study should have value, especially for African emerging adults in South Africa, to fully explore their interests amidst the gender and dwelling effects. The literature provides substantive evidence that both gender and dwelling or geographic location can negatively affect the career interests and ultimately the career choice of emerging adults. The findings of this study should provide the career counselling field of industrial and organisational psychology with valuable information for career counsellors to consider when assessing young

African emerging adults for career choice. The impact of their gender and background in terms of where they grew up should be taken into consideration when counsellors make recommendations.

1.2.1 General research question

The general research question for this research was formulated as follows:

- What is the nature, direction and extent of the relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults?

The two core questions that the literature review endeavoured to answer were formulated as follows:

Research question 1: How is the construct of career interests conceptualised in the research literature and what is the influence of age (emerging adulthood), dwelling and gender on individuals' career interests?

Research question 2: What are the implications for career development theory and practice?

The problem and the general questions formulated above were addressed by means of specific literature-related and empirical questions:

The empirical study

Research question 1: What is the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults?

Research question 2: Does gender act as a predictor of career interests?

Research question 3: Does dwelling act as a predictor of career interests?

Research question 4: What recommendations can be made for future research on career interests and for the career development practices for young emerging adults?

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Based on the above research questions, the following general and specific aims were formulated:

1.3.1 General aim

The general aim of this research was to explore the links between gender, dwelling and career interests (measured by the Career Orientations Inventory [COI]) of African emerging adults, and to explore whether gender and dwelling positively predict their career interests and the extent of this influence.

1.3.2 Specific aims for the literature review

Research aim 1: To conceptualise the construct of career interests and explore through the literature review the influence of age (emerging adulthood), dwelling and gender on individuals' career interests.

Research aim 2: To theoretically identify the implications of the relationship between career interests of emerging adults, gender and dwelling for career development theory and practice.

1.3.3 Specific aims for the empirical study

Research aim 1: Empirically explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults.

Research aim 2: Empirically explore whether gender and dwelling act as predictors of career interests.

Research aim 3: Determine whether males and females, and individuals living in rural and urban dwellings differ significantly regarding their career interests.

Research aim 4: Based on the findings, make recommendations for future research and the career counselling field of industrial and organisational psychology.

1.3 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

A research paradigm is "the set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed" (Kuhn, 1962). A paradigm is best described as a whole system of thinking (Neuman, 2011). More specifically, a paradigm includes the accepted theories, traditions, approaches, models, frames of reference, bodies of research and methodologies, and it can be regarded as a model or framework for

observation and understanding (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). A paradigm constitutes the abstract beliefs and principles that shape how a researcher sees the world, and how the researcher interprets and acts within that world. It is the lens through which a researcher looks at the world. It is the conceptual lens through which the researcher examines the methodological aspects of their research project to determine the research methods that will be used and how the data will be analysed (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

1.3.1 Humanistic-existential paradigm

The literature review on the variables was presented from the humanistic-existential paradigm perspective. This paradigm views individuals as being growth driven, in control of their own destiny and with self-actualisations as their main objective. This is evident in Super's theory (Super, 1990), which was used as the foundation for the current study. People are focused on the development of self, and according to Super, various life and career stages have to be experienced before someone can reach his or her full potential. In the current study, emerging adults are regarded as being in their exploration and adolescent life and career stages before they enter the establishment career stage and adulthood (Arnett, 2015).
According to Meyer, Moore, and Viljoen (2008), the following are the assumptions of the humanistic paradigm.

(1) Individuals are dignified human beings and have higher psychological dimensions that distinguish them from animals and lifeless objects. This is the logical and systematic way of doing things, which distinguishes humans from animals.
(2) The conscious processes of the individual dictate individual decision making.
(3) Humans have a positive nature and are basically good or at least neutral.
(4) Individuals are active beings and thus participate actively in determining their own behaviour. Active participation means free choice and individuals are therefore responsible for the course their life takes. The psychologically healthy person should be the criterion in examining human functioning.
(5) The individual should be studied as an integrated and unique whole or Gestalt.

The life experiences of African emerging adults should be understood and brought into focus. It is in these adults' nature to stay positive and actively strive to make decisions that determine their own future behaviour. In this study, the African emerging adults' decisions were brought into focus to order to promote a better understanding of their world. When they reach the adulthood development stage, emerging adults consciously face decisions about career choice. They apply logic and all the resources at their disposal to make appropriate career

choices. Emerging African adults strive to make appropriate career choices because they inherently believe in a positive future. With (or without) all the resources at their disposal, emerging adults actively attempt to (or fail to) make positive career choices that will shape their lives.

1.3.2 Positivist research paradigm

The positivist research paradigm perspective was used for the empirical part of this study. This paradigm predominates in science and assumes that science quantitatively measures independent facts about a single apprehensible reality (Krauss, 2005). In other words, the data and its analysis are value free and data do not change because they are being observed. Hence, scientific methods are applied to analyse the data or reality of the participants. A positivist research approach is objective and the researcher remains objective and independent of the study, with the knowledge being discovered and verified through direct observation or by measuring the phenomena under investigation (Maxwell, 2013). Positivist researchers also have to make other assumptions, including the fact that they should operate within agreed norms and practices, as well as the idea that it is possible to distinguish between more and less plausible claims and that science cannot provide all the answers (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Owing to the cross-sectional nature of the current research, the focus was not on cause effect, but only on assessing the nature, direction and magnitude of the association between gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults. A cross-sectional survey design lends itself to the examination of stable, long-term states or conditions and allows the researcher to make inferences from a sample to a population, measuring the different individuals at different points in time (Winner, 2009). Positivism is seen as the way in which truth is acquired (Krauss, 2005).

The positivist research paradigm has had its own share of criticism, which resulted in the development of post-positivism research paradigm *(*Creswell, 2014; Teddlie & Johnson, 2009*).* Creswell (2014) sees post-positivism as an extension of positivism because it represents the thinking after positivism, challenging the traditional notion of the absolute and objective truth of knowledge in the social sciences. Gratton and Jones's (2010), view of post-positivism is that in reality, it is not possible to gain understanding merely through measurement. Post-positivists believe that positivist research is often difficult and impractical for many forms of social research (Glicken, 2003).

Positivism contends that there is an objective reality out there to be studied, captured and understood, whereas post-positivists argue that reality can never be fully apprehended, only approximated (De Vos et al., 2011b, p. 7). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011a, p. 8), post- positivism relies on multiple methods for capturing as much of reality as possible. At the same time, the emphasis is placed on the discovery and verification of theories.

However, the positivist approach through quantitative approaches undeniably has strengths, notably in terms of precision, control and objectivity (Gratton & Jones, 2010, p. 25), Positivist research is also generally more straightforward in terms of planning, simply because the data is collected all at once, and the analysis of all the data occurs at the same time. In the current study, career interests were measured by means of a quantitative measure that has been scientifically proven valid and reliable even though the norms were for people over the age of 30. The study's quantitative research approach allowed for the collection, measurement and statistical analysis of data, and enabled the researcher to compare the three variables (Muijs, 2007). In the case of this study, the intention was to explore whether there is a relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults, with gender and dwelling being predictive constructs of emerging adults' career interests.

1.3.3 Conceptual descriptions

1.3.3.1 Emerging adulthood

Emerging adulthood is a new conception of development for the period from the late teens through the twenties, with a focus on the ages 18–25–28. The life/career stage falls between adolescent (pre-18 years of age) and young adulthood (post 30 years of age). At the end of this period, the late twenties, most people have already made their life/career choices with enduring ramifications (Arnett, 2000). In the current study, the age group of the participants was limited to participants between ages of 17 and 30, thus falling within the emerging adulthood life stage.

1.3.3.2 Career interests

Career interests were approached from the perspective of Schein's (1978) career anchors theory. A career anchor is something that develops over time, evolves into a self-concept, shaping an individual's personal identity or self-image, and includes talents or skills, motives or needs and attitudes or values (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Coetzee et al. 2007; Schein,

1996, 2006). Career anchors were measured using the Career Orientation Inventory (COI). There are eight career anchors or categories in the COI, namely (1) security/stability; (2) autonomy/independence; (3) lifestyle integration; (4) sense of service/dedication to a cause; (5) pure challenge; (6) managerial competence; (7) technical and functional competence; and (8) entrepreneurial creativity.

1.3.3.3 Gender

The current study included males and females to enable the researcher to examine the differences between the two genders, because the literature indicates that there are notable differences between the career interests of males and females.

1.3.3.4 Dwelling

Dwelling is an environmental factor, and means the environment in which a person is raised (rural/urban), or a situational factor, which refers to the circumstances in which a person has been raised, for example, a school in a poor rural area (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994, 2002). There are notable differences between individuals residing in rural and urban areas. In rural areas, cultural practices are common, and females tend to experience gender stereotypes relating to career choices. Rural areas, in contrast to urban areas, are also characterised by a lack of career-related role models, information, opportunities, access to tertiary institutions for distance and financial reasons and a lack of adequate career counselling.

Table 1.1

Overview of Conceptual Descriptions, Theoretical Models and Measuring Instrument

Construct	**Description**	**Theoretical model**	**Measuring instrument**
Career interests	There are eight career anchors or categories, namely (1) security/stability; (2) autonomy/independence; (3) lifestyle integration; (4) sense of service/dedication to a cause;	Schein (1978, 1990, 1996, 2006)	Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

	(5) pure challenge; (6) managerial competence; (7) technical and functional competence; and (8) entrepreneurial creativity		
Emerging adulthood (career choice)	Age group/life stage (17–30 years)	Arnett's (2000) Emerging Adulthood Theory	Career Orientations Inventory (COI)
Gender	Male and female	Bandura's self-efficacy (gender stereotypes) Bandura (1977), Lent, Brown, and Hackett, (1994): SCCT	Biographical survey
Dwelling	Urban and rural	Lent, Brown and Hackett, (1994): SCCT	Biographical survey

1.3.4 Central theoretical statement

The central hypothesis of the study was formulated as follows:

There is a theoretical and empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests of males and females, and individuals living in urban and rural dwellings differ significantly regarding their career interests.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Any scientific research project should follow stringent steps to satisfy the scientific nature of the step-by-step process, with careful consideration of the researcher's conduct and the freedom and anonymity of the participants, and on how results are interpreted and conclusions drawn. According to Creswell (2014), the research design includes a description of the way in

which a researcher intends on conducting his or her research by focusing on the end product, with the formulation of a research problem as the point of departure. Research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between the research questions and the execution or implementation of the research (Creswell, 2014). This strategic framework is developed through a process of reflection that produces a coherent guide for action aimed at providing valid answers to the research questions.

According to Welman *et al*. (2009), is best described as the overall plan, according to which the respondents of a proposed study are selected, as well as the means of data collection or generation. The research design also entails a detailed plan, according to which research is undertaken Babbie and Mouton (2009). Mouton (2001), a research design is the research plan and structure of a given research project, which involves validity and reliability, the unit of analysis and ethical considerations. The research design is the systematic and scientific plan and structure used for the research project so that its findings are accepted as valid and reliable. Research design entails three factors that should be carefully chosen, namely the unit of analysis, the type of objective and the research strategy (Creswell, 2014).

1.4.1 Research approach

A distinction can be made between three types of research, namely, exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Creswell, 2014). The descriptive research design was chosen for the current study. Descriptive research involves explaining situations and events and often focuses on the relationships between variables in the research domain (Creswell, 2014). In the current study, hypotheses were formulated regarding the probable relationships between the career interests, gender and dwelling of African emerging adults. The descriptive research design allowed for empirical testing of the relationships between these variables. Gender and dwelling were chosen as the independent variables and the career interests of emerging adults as the dependent variable.

1.4.2 Methods used to ensure validity and reliability

The research study was quantitative because the variables were precisely identified (Creswell, 2014). To ensure that the findings of any type of measurement are accurate and constant, the following two factors should be considered:

1.4.2.1 Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which the measurement instrument accurately measures the concept it is intended to measure (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013), and is concerned with the meaningfulness of the research components (Drost, 2011). Internal validity addresses the extent to which the research design ensures that the only possible explanation for the results is the effect of the independent variable (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Internal validity in the current study was ensured at a contextual level through the use of a scientific model and theory. The measurement method was chosen in a responsible and representative manner and was presented in a standardised way.

The external validity of a study or relationship implies generalisation to other persons, settings and times, as well as to well-explained target populations, but should be clearly differentiated from generalising across populations (Reiss 2018). In the current study, external validity was ensured by selecting a sample that was representative of the total population, making use of purposive sampling. Validity is also important in the empirical part of the study and this ensured by the use of validated psychometric instruments. The researcher also made sure that standard data collection processes were used for all the participants and standard instructions and information were issued to all of them.

The validity of the data gathering instruments was ensured as follows:

- The models and theories were selected in a representative manner and presented in a standardised way.
- The constructs of this research were measured in a valid manner using questionnaires that have been tested in scientific research and have been accepted as the most suitable in terms of face validity, content validity and construct validity.
- Efforts were made to ensure that the data collected was accurate, and was accurately coded and appropriately analysed to ensure content validity.
- The presentation, analyses, reporting and interpretation were done according to standardised procedures.

1.4.2.2 Reliability

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), the main consideration in the process of data collection is that of reliability. Reliability is defined as the use of a valid measuring instrument with different groups of people under different sets of circumstances, resulting in the same observations and

results (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013). Reliability is used to describe the consistency of a measurement and an assessment tool that demonstrates high reliability in producing accurate results (SHL, 2013). The reliability of the observations or data is influenced by the following four variables: the researcher, the participants, the measuring instrument and the research context (Reiss 2018).

Reliability was ensured by the fact that the measuring instrument had been tested and had adaptive norm groups for South African individuals. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire. Appropriate statistical techniques that are congruent with the aims of this research were used to analyse the data.

1.4.3 Research variables

A variable represents a measurable attribute that changes or varies across the experiment whether comparing results between multiple groups, multiple people or even when using a single person in an experiment conducted over time (Agravante, 2018). According to Regoniel (2012), the outcomes will vary among elements of the population. The most useful way to categorise variables is either as independent or dependent. An independent variable is the presumed cause of the dependent variable, with the assumption that the independent variable influences the dependent variable (Coaley, 2014).

In this study, gender and dwelling were the independent variables, and career interests the dependent variable. Owing to the cross-sectional nature of the research, the focus was not on cause effect, but only on assessing the nature, direction and magnitude of the association between emerging adults' gender, dwelling and career interests. The study focused on establishing whether there was an empirical relationship between the variables, and whether the independent variables (gender and dwelling) positively predicted the dependent variable (career interests).

1.4.4 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis in a study refers to the object, phenomenon, entity, process or event that the researcher is interested in investigating (Mouton, 2006). Identification of unit of analsysis is an important part of any research process. This is to assist the researcher in the process of deciding on a research method and how you will operationalize that method (Cole, 2018). In this study, the unit or object of analysis was individual tertiary students

(emerging adults) at a tertiary institution. Subgroups for the study were classified according to then gender and dwelling of the emerging adults.

1.4.5 Ethical considerations

Ethics in research is of paramount importance. Ethical clearance for the research was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of Tshwane University of Technology. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the University.
During the process of the research study, the following important factors were taken into consideration:

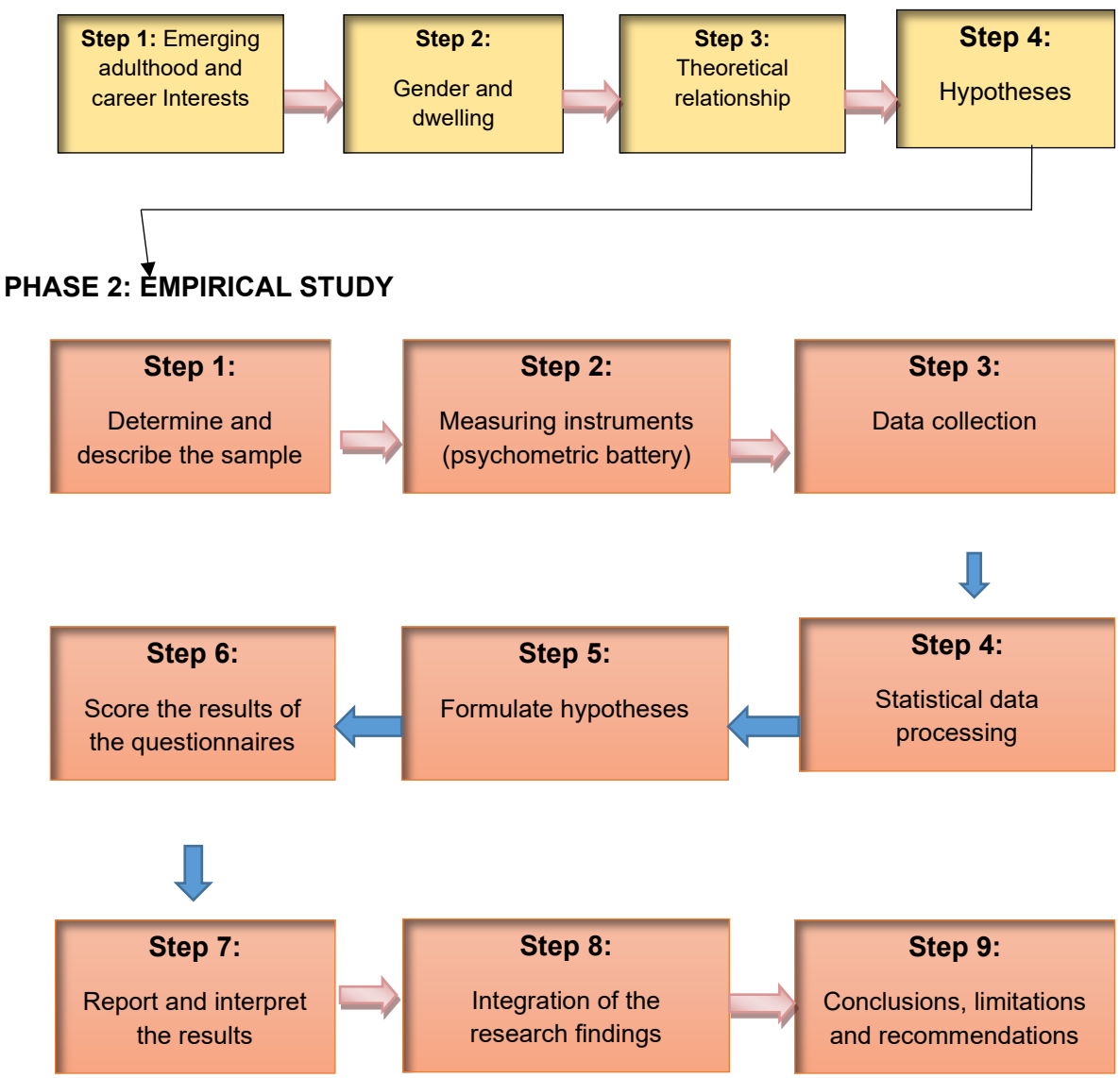
- *The participant at minimal risk.* The process followed during the research study took into account the wellbeing, rights and interests of human participants, and no harm was done to or discomfort experienced by the participants. All participants were respected, and their rights and interests protected, including their dignity, privacy and confidentiality, as well as their cultural differences. All participants were treated as unique human beings and were respected in what is sacred and secret by tradition.
- *Fairness, responsibility and informed consent.* A clear and fair agreement was established with the participants prior to their participation, and each participant signed an informed consent form before the commencement of the research. The principles of integrity, respect, transparency and accountability were adhered to at all times, and the researcher refrained from abusing his position or knowledge for personal power and gain.
- *Confidentiality.* All the data, information and results were kept confidential, and participants were assured of their anonymity and privacy. When the results were captured, the participants' names were omitted and a number was assigned to each participant. Only the researcher and the supervisor had access to the completed questionnaires. The data was captured on a password protected Excel spreadsheet and only the researcher, supervisors and statistician had access to the data.
- *Freedom from coercion.* Participants were given the option to participate in the study and were told that they could withdraw at any time. All the information necessary was explained to the participants before they took part, including the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.
- *Ethical guidelines and standards.* The researcher conducted the research according to the guidelines laid down by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) and the Research Ethics Policy of the research institutions (Tshwane University of Technology and the University of South Africa [Unisa]).

1.5 RESEARCH METHOD

The research methodology selected for this study, was divided into two phases, namely phase 1, the literature review, and phase 2, the empirical study, thus corresponding with research aims formulated. Figure 1 below indicates the various steps followed to ensure the systematic and rigorous execution of the empirical study.

Figure 1.1

Flow Diagram of the Research Method



1.5.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review consisted of the following four steps:

Emerging adulthood and career interests were explored, clarified and defined.

Step 2: Gender and dwelling were explored, clarified and defined.

Step 3: The theoretical relationship between the career interests of emerging African adults, gender and dwelling was investigated. The associations between the variables for the career development of emerging African adults were identified and solutions proposed.

Step 4: The research hypotheses of the study were formulated in order to achieve the study objectives.

1.5.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical investigation comprised the following nine steps:

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample (research participants)

More details on the determination and description of the sample are provided in chapter 3 (the research article).

Step 2: Choosing and justifying the choice of psychometric battery (measuring instruments)

Step 2 relates to the selection of the measuring assessment that was used for this study namely the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 2006). The psychometric properties of the measurements are outlined in detail in chapter 3. In addition to the measuring instrument that was used in the study, a biographical questionnaire was administered to determine the age, gender and dwelling of the participants.

Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery (research procedure)

Step 3 involved gathering the research data. This included informed consent, biographical information and the administration of the COI for manual completion. The research procedure is explained in detail in chapter 3.

Step 4: Scoring the psychometric battery

Data analysis was conducted using the Microsoft Excel 2010 for capturing and SAS System for analysis. The COI was scored in accordance with directions of the test developer (Schein, 2006). Chapter 3 provides more details.

Step 5: Formulation of research hypothesis

A hypothesis is a formal statement that indicates the expected relationship between an independent and a dependent variable (Creswell, 1994). A problem cannot be scientifically solved unless it is reduced to hypothesis form. Research hypotheses set the groundwork for tests on the significance of the observed differences, and a well-formulated hypothesis ensures the explicit identification of the predictor and outcome variables (Fincher, White, Huang, & Schwartzstein, 2010).

In table 1.2 the research aims, research hypotheses and the applicable statistical procedures are described.

Table 1.2

Overview of Research Aims, Research Hypotheses and Statistical Procedures

Empirical research aim	**Research hypothesis**	**Statistical procedure**
Research aim 1 Empirically explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between the gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults	H1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between the gender, dwelling and career interests of emerging African adults.	Correlational statistics: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients
Research aim 2 Empirically explore whether gender and	H2: Gender (male/female) and dwelling (rural/urban) positively	multiple regression analyse

dwelling act as predictors of career interests	and significantly predict career interests.	
Research aim 3 To explore whether individuals from different age groups, gender and dwelling differ significantly with regard to their career interests	H3: Males, females and individuals living in rural and urban dwellings differ significantly with regard to their career interests.	Test for normality to assess whether parametric or non-parametric procedures should be used to test for significant mean differences. Based on tests for normality, the Wilcoxon two-sample test was conducted to test for significant differences: all biographical variable groups (age, race, gender and dwelling) were categorised in two subgroups.

Step 6: Statistical processing of the data

A quantitative research approach was used for this study and the statistical data was processed and analysed by means of descriptive (Cronbach alpha coefficients, means and standard deviations), correlational and inferential statistics. The statistical process relates to identifying relationships between the variables and explains the methods used to express individual differences in quantitative (numerical) form. The processes followed are discussed in detail in chapter 3.

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

The results were compiled and presented in tables and graphs and the findings explained in a clear and articulate manner. The findings were presented in the form of a research article (chapter 3).

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

The research findings were integrated into the findings of the literature review and the results reported in the form of a research article. Firstly, in the introduction, the key focus of the study, the background to the study, trends arising from the literature research objectives, and the

potential value-add of the study were discussed. Next, the research design was explained, including the research approach adopted in the study, the research method and an overview of the sample as well as the measuring instruments and procedure used to collect data. The research hypotheses were subsequently formulated. The statistical procedures employed were then explained and the statistical results of the study reported in terms of descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics. Thereafter, the results were summarised and the research results integrated. Finally, the article concluded with recommendations for career development and wellbeing practices, for the field of industrial and organisational psychology as a whole, and for possible further research, and an explanation of the limitations of the study.

Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The conclusions of the study were formulated on the basis of the stated aims of the research study, while possible limitations were discussed with reference to the literature review and the empirical study. Recommendations were made for the management of job satisfaction, and topics for possible future research were discussed.

1.6 CHAPTER LAYOUT

This study contains the following chapters:

Chapter 2: Literature review: Emerging adulthood, career interests, gender and dwelling

Chapter 3: Research article

Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the scientific orientation to the research. In addition, it described the background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, and the aims of the study, the paradigm perspectives, and the research design and methodology chosen for the study. The motivation for this study was that there is a relationship between the gender, dwelling and career interests of emerging adults. Based on the results of the study, career counsellors might be able to assist emerging adults with their career choices. Chapter 2 comprises an in-depth literature review of the constructs of emerging adulthood and career interests and their relationship with gender and dwelling.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW: EMERGING ADULTHOOD, CAREER INTERESTS, GENDER AND DWELLING

Chapter 2 conceptualises the factors affecting career interests, gender and dwelling. The practical implications of the theoretical relationship between these constructs are explained using relevant models.

2.1 THE THEORY OF EMERGING ADULTHOOD

The emerging adulthood theory was introduced in 1994 by Jeffrey Arnett. In 1998, Arnett postulated that that an individual's transition into adulthood is a process extending over several years. Emerging adulthood is defined as "a period of development bridging adolescence and young adulthood, during which young people are no longer adolescents but have not yet attained full adult status" (Arnett, 2004, p. 312) (see table 1 below). The age span of emerging adulthood is from 18 to 25 years of age, but the upper age boundary is flexible and may be extended to the age of 29 (Arnett, 2004), depending on the country or context.

As developed in the early 2000s, the emerging adulthood theory identifies the following five distinct characteristics of the emerging adulthood stage:

(1) It is a time for identifying and exploring, specifically work possibilities.

(2) Emerging adulthood is a period of instability because of the changes taking place in an individual's life.

(3) Emerging adults tend to be extremely self-focused as they attempt to become autonomous individuals.

(4) Emerging adulthood is characterised by the feeling of being in-between (transition).

(5) Emerging adulthood is also a time of possibility in the sense that emerging adults are hopeful for their futures and ready to change things that have occurred in the past (Arnett, 2000, 2004).

Table 2.1

Arnett's Characteristics of the Emerging Adulthood Stage

Characteristics	*Explanation*
Time for identity exploration	Arnett (2000) argues that identity exploration should continue into emerging adulthood stage, which started during the adolescence stage (Erikson, 1950, 1968). The emerging adulthood stage compels young adults to explore and understand themselves so that they can develop appropriate career interests and make successful career choices by delaying marriage, experimenting with different jobs, starting tertiary education, and become fully independent from parental and contextual influences.
Period of instability	Emerging adulthood is a turbulent period for individuals. During the tertiary education stage, emerging adults experience deviations such as dropping out, starting again later, and switching back and forth between full-time and part-time work/school. Because of the exploratory nature of this stage, most emerging adults hold their first job for less than one year, and during the first 10 years of employment, they might have an average of seven jobs (Arnett, 2004). When the turbulence levels drops, they develop clear career interests and make career choices to take on more enduring adult roles (Iacovou, 2002; Arnett, 2004).
Self-focused	Arnett (2015, p. 14) describes "the self-focus of emerging adulthood as a stage during which emerging adults *develop skills at daily living*, gain a better understanding of *who they are and what they want from life,* and begin to *build a foundation* for their adult lives. The goal of their self-focusing is to *learn to stand alone as a self-sufficient person,* but they do not see self-sufficiency as a permanent state. Rather, they view it as a *necessary step before committing themselves* to enduring relationships with others, in love and work".. The self-focus in emerging adulthood, then, could be viewed as "normal, healthy, and temporary" (Arnett, 2015, p. 14), and even, perhaps, wise and well-timed.
Feeling in-between and in transition	Few people consider themselves adolescents after they turn 18, since they have completed secondary school, finished the biological

	changes of puberty, and are no longer living under the rules of their parents (Arnett, 2000, 2016). The criteria deemed important by young people today have been categorised broadly into the following domains: *independence* (e.g. being financially independent from parents) *interdependence* (e.g. developing greater consideration for others) *role transitions* (e.g. parenthood, finished with schooling) *norm compliance* (e.g. avoid becoming drunk) *family capacities* (e.g. becoming capable of caring for children) *relational maturity* (e.g. accepting responsibility for the consequences of your actions) (Arnett, 2004; Badger, Nelson, & Barry, 2006; Nelson & Barry, 2005).
A time of possibilities	During this stage, until a career choice is made, the possibilities remain open (Arnett, 2015). Emerging adulthood is a particularly optimistic time for people who come from dysfunctional or impoverished families (Arnett, 2004). The optimism should give emerging adults a chance to redirect their lives in a way that will position themselves positively for the future before they enter into more permanent adult roles (Arnett, 2004).

2.1.1 Conceptualisation of emerging adulthood theory

At some stage in a person's life, he or she becomes curious about his or her future in terms of career interests and choices (Arnett, 1998). These interests are usually developed within the confinement of a person's context or circumstances (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; 2002), for example, growing up on a farm and wanting to become a farmer or growing up with parents who are medical doctors and wanting to become a doctor.

The stage occurs across racial, cultural and socioeconomic groups. Hence, the experience of the emerging adulthood stage also varies among groups. In some countries and based on the culture and context, people from suburban areas and in wealthy families, this stage starts later than 18 years of age, compared to the situation in developing countries, rural areas and poor societies, where this stage starts early because individuals are forced to grow up and fend for themselves economically by any means. They have babies at a young age, marry young and search for work early in life (Arnett, 2015).

Arnett (2000) recognised that emerging adulthood may or may not be a universal phenomenon. He cited the importance of culture in influencing the transition into adulthood.

He (2004) theorised that emerging adulthood is a new period of human development that has come to the fore as part of living in an industrialised society. However, researchers have studied the features of emerging adulthood in countries such as Japan (Rosenburger, 2007) and Israel (Mayseless & Scharf, 2003), and in religious subcultures (e.g. Nelson, 2003) in the United States of America (USA). Society also dictates the experience of this stage. Arnett (1998), for example, found that most Americans do not view marriage and other role transitions as markers of adulthood. This is so because Americans marry young and rely on their parents to financially provide for the wedding and buy them a house after the wedding. Instead, they mark independence from others as well as being able to stand alone, essentially being self-sufficient (Arnett, 1998). Because American culture is individualistic, the qualities of character are emphasised. Three criteria for American adulthood include accepting responsibility for one's self, making independent decisions and achieving financial independence (Arnett, 1998).

"During this stage, young emerging adults begin the development of the capacities, skills, and qualities of character deemed by their cultures as necessary for completing the transition to adulthood" (Arnett, 1998, p. 312). The capacities, skills and qualities as influenced by the culture lead to the development of career interests. It is a stage when an individual begins experimenting with life and work possibilities in preparation for the adult world of work (Arnett, 2000; Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016; 82; 89). During the emerging adulthood stage, many young people obtain the level of education and training that will provide the foundation for their incomes and occupational achievements for the remainder of their adult work lives. It is for many people a time of frequent change as various possibilities in love, work and worldviews are explored (Erikson, 1968; Rindfuss, 1991).

By the end of this period, the late twenties, most people have made life choices that have enduring ramifications (Arnett, 2000). Career choices are usually made during a stage where a person transits from adolescence into a stage where he or she starts taking responsibility and being independent (Arnett, 2000). During this stage, however, it should be noted that such individuals do not usually have adequate and necessary information to make appropriate lifetime career choices, especially South African youth (Watson & Stead, 2013; Bandura et al., 2001; Udoukpong, Emah, & Umoren, 2012; Ortlepp, Mahlangu, Mtshemla, & Greyling, 2002; Stead & Watson, 1999).

However, in South Africa and for African emerging adults, culture and context are major barriers to career decision making during the emerging adulthood stage, and by the end of this stage, they have generally not made solid career choices. Young women and young adults from rural areas find it difficult to develop a career self-concept. They do not seem to have

knowledge of their own qualities, abilities or capabilities because they lack adequate career counselling and guidance services. In addition, they lack role models, career-related information, support and encouragement from parents, financial resources and access to tertiary institutions. For females or women, the lack of self-concept can also be attributed to the patriarchal African culture.

Emerging adulthood has been posited as a new developmental phase in which the individual graduates from adolescence, but has not yet accomplished the milestones traditionally associated with adulthood (e.g. beginning a long-term partnership, having a family and starting a career). Despite increased numbers of young people who are delaying adulthood in one way or another, research on career development during emerging adulthood is lacking (Cobb, 2013).

2.1.2 Global literature on emerging adulthood

Individuals all over the world go through the stage of emerging adulthood and experience it differently. According to Arnett (2004), emerging adulthood occurs under different social and economic conditions, which are becoming more widespread because of the globalised economy. The increasing globalisation of the world economy is providing more higher-paying jobs that require educated people (Arnett, 2004). Tertiary schooling is becoming the norm for emerging adults in industrialised nations (Arnett, 2000, 2004). These education trends in industrialised nations push the emerging adulthood stage to earlier because of how quickly they become financially independent, learn to accept responsibility and are able to make independent career and life decisions amid a multitude of factors, including parents. However, not all emerging adults in the world have access to education because of differences in each economy, cultural values, history and the traditions of every country (Arnett, 2000). It is because of these differences, emerging adulthood is not considered a universal period of human development.

Emerging adulthood is more likely to exist in industrialised and post-industrial nations (Arnett, 2004). Even within developed nations, emerging adulthood may potentially only exist for the economically advantaged members of those societies (e.g. the upper and middle classes). These individuals have the economic resources to put off adult roles in order to explore and experiment (Arnett, 2004). For example, many upper and middle class youth have the opportunity to pursue higher levels of education compared to the lower-class youth. Higher education provides additional time for identity exploration, contributing to a feeling of being in-between, and increasing opportunities for one's future, which raises optimism, whereas the lower-class emerging adult has no such opportunities. Black South Africans are mostly in the

lower class and thus tend to experience the emerging adulthood stage early, because they are not always able to attend high school, and thus lack access to tertiary education, which might afford them opportunities for self-exploration and making appropriate career decisions while delaying adulthood or adult roles.

Emerging adulthood exists in cultures or contexts rather than in countries. In a country like South Africa, some young individuals experience emerging adulthood, while others in the same country (including those in different subcultures) do not (Arnett, 2004). For example, rural-based emerging adults in South Africa may not have the opportunities the urban-based young people have to explore during their late teens and early twenties (Arnett, 2004) such as access to tertiary education, taking a gap year, and so on.

Again, other emerging adults in South Africa may experience the stage if their culture permits, while others may not. As a rule, the black or African cultures promote only male access to education. As a result, they have time to experience this stage, whereas girls are encouraged to think about marriage and starting families from a young age.

It is not only in South Africa that emerging adulthood is experienced differently because of the country's unique cultural values. For instance, Asian and Latin emerging adults in the USA tend to feel increased family obligations as they reach their twenties instead of focusing on the self (Fuligni, 2007). Religious groups, such as the Mormons in the USA, may also have beliefs that make their experience of emerging adulthood noticeably different from those in the majority culture of the country (Nelson, 2003).

In Argentine, the most highly developed nation in Latin America, there is still a large proportion of impoverished people (Facio & Miccoci, 2003; Galambos & Martinez, 2007). This was found to be a result of reaching the stage early because of parenthood – that is, family values as opposed to being educated and being financially independent (Facio & Miccoci, 2003). As Galambos and Martinez (2007) suggest and Facio and Miccoci (2003) found, the experience of emerging adulthood in Argentine is influenced by the collectivistic values emphasised in Latin culture. Emerging adults in Argentine highly endorse the criteria relating to having a family and relatives (interdependence), reflecting the Latin emphasis on family values (Facio & Miccoci, 2003), as in rural African communities. In Romania, societal norms or culture influence emerging adulthood stage in that young adults become adults earlier and thus do not have a chance to experience the stage and explore their own interests in order to make a career decision (Nelson, 2009).

China's criteria for the emerging adulthood stage covers all the American criteria and go further to include the collectivistic values of Confucian doctrine such as becoming less self-oriented, developing greater concern for others and being able to support one's parents

financially. This was identified in a study on how a country's culture or economic conditions may influence emerging adulthood (Nelson, Bager, & Wu, 2004) involving college students in China. The results indicated that the majority felt that they had achieved adulthood because they could already fulfil the criteria. Additional criteria in China's emerging adulthood stage include norm-abiding behaviour such as avoiding excessive use of alcohol, using illegal drugs and shoplifting. These behaviours where observed less among Chinese college students. This implies that in China, the emerging adulthood stage may be a shorter time period.

2.1.3 Emerging adulthood in Africa and South Africa

Existing African gender stereotypes and geographical location or disparity, are the main influencing factors that cannot be ignored by emerging adults because they have a great influence on career interests (Ortlepp *et al.*, 2002; Stead & Watson, 1999; Domenico & Jones, 2007).

The African culture is similar to the Chinese culture in terms of the prescribed criteria for emerging adulthood stage. They both have less self-orientation, having greater concern for others and being capable of supporting their parents financially. However, the African prescribed criteria for emerging adulthood of accepting responsibility for one's self, making independent decisions and being financially independent (Arnett, 1998) only apply to males or boys. The patriarchal African culture leads to the emerging adulthood stage being experienced differently by males and females. Males have support, resources and advantages for any career choice at their disposal, while women are not supported in all career choices (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Urban, 2010). As such, males in South Africa experience the stage, whereas females tend to become parents earlier and start families as the norms and culture of society dictate.

In this section, emerging adulthood worldwide and in an African context was conceptualised. Valuable information was found more especially with regard to various prescribed criteria for emerging adulthood. However, owing to the current paucity of research on emerging adulthood in the African or South African context, there are no prescribed criteria for emerging adults in the African context. The African culture promotes collectivism, and is more like the Chinese culture, but the gender stereotypes (where females are guided towards certain careers) and geographic location should provide valuable information to establish African prescriptions for Africans.

2.1.4 Criticism of emerging adulthood

The concept “emerging adulthood” as a stage of career development was based on research among Caucasian American college students enrolled at universities offering four-year courses. Hence this limits the possibility of generalising the findings on emerging adulthood to diverse groups. Emerging adulthood stages may vary on the basis of a number of variables such as one’s country, socioeconomic status, educational attainment, race and ethnicity, all of which each merit further exploration (Arnett, 1998, 2000; Kins & Beyers, 2010).

Emerging adulthood has been described as a stage occurring within a particular age range (Hendry & Kloep, 2007a; Hendry & Kloep, 2007b), which is typically a characteristic associated with organismic theories. Thus, emerging adulthood has received some of the same criticisms as organismic theories in general. A number of critics argue that development is not truly unidirectional, as organismic theories often posit (Fawson, 2009). In particular, Hendry and Kloep (2007a) argue that Arnett appears to suggest that once a person reaches adulthood, there is no returning to previous stages. Hendry and Kloep (2007a) posit that there are certainly times in which an individual moves back home to his or her family of origin after having lived alone, and they challenge Arnett to consider where those people would fall within the stage progression. However, it should be noted that the stage of emerging adulthood is not defined solely by role transitions such as these, with psychological characteristics perhaps being more important (Arnett, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2004; Cote, 2000; Lopez et al., 2005; Tanner, 2006).

However, the theory of emerging adulthood differs from most organismic theories in a number of significant ways. Arnett’s (1998, 2006) theory, unlike most of these theories contends that the progression through stages varies – instead of all individuals moving from adolescence to emerging adulthood to adulthood, some are said to completely skip emerging adulthood.

Related to this, Arnett (2000) specifically states that emerging adulthood is not a universal stage, but is influenced by different sociocultural forces. In some ways, this appears more consistent with a contextual framework than an organismic one. Some argue that this proposed stage is actually a manifestation of differences in social class, with emerging adulthood being a luxury (Hendry & Kloep, 2007a). This idea ties in with Erikson’s (1959) original conceptualisation of prolonged adolescence as being more common in cultures of relatively high socioeconomic status, allowing more opportunities and time for self-exploration before having to commit to adult roles. Those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to perceive that they have reached adulthood than their counterparts from wealthier families of origin (Arnett & Tanner, 2011). It would seem that those from lower socioeconomic

backgrounds adopt a less individualistic perspective than their wealthier counterparts (Arnett & Tanner, 2011). However, there is evidence that individuals of lower socioeconomic status actually tend to be more optimistic about the future than their middle-class counterparts (Arnett, 2004; Arnett & Tanner, 2011).

It should also be noted that the effects of socioeconomic status and international differences on emerging adulthood appear somewhat convoluted, with emerging adulthood more commonly occurring in wealthier, industrialised nations (Arnett, 2015). As a rule, industrialised nations are more likely to allow individuation and self-exploration to take place for extended periods of time (e.g. beyond adolescence). In both Europe and Latin America, emerging adulthood is experienced more fully in countries of higher socioeconomic status (Douglass, 2007). As such, not only may socioeconomic status influence the tendency for individuals to experience emerging adulthood, but also cultural norms in different countries that relate to their national economy may be associated with differences in the tendency of citizens to display the characteristics of emerging adulthood.

South Africa is a country with different cultures, a culture of segregation and social divisions. As such, the emerging adulthood theory should be able to reveal and clearly explain the existing discrepancies that affect emerging adults, especially black emerging adults. Hence it is hypothesised that gender stereotypes (females) and the living context and situations of black emerging adults would play a major role in their career interests, and such career interests would differ from emerging male adults and urban-based participants. The primary reason for this the way in which they experience this stage and how their culture and location impede their career maturity.

2.1.5 Emerging adulthood and Millennials

Individuals who fall in the age range of emerging adulthood (at the time of this research study) have been referred to as “Millennials,” “Generation Y,” or “Nexters” (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). Millennials are those individuals born between 1982 and 2003, while others use cut-offs as early as 1979 or 1980, or as late as 1983 (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Ng et al., 2010; Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005), which include only those individuals aged 19 to 25 to 30. All participants born between 1989 and 2000 are classified as Millennials, regardless of the definition used.

It appears that many of the same characteristics that people often attribute to emerging adults are also assigned to millennials. For example, these groups are often accused of being self-focused, entitled (Deal, Altman & Rogelberg, 2010), overly optimistic (Hauw & De Vos, 2010)

and in need of hand-holding (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Also, like emerging adults, Millennials have been said to be more likely to delay child-rearing and other life transitions later into adulthood than those in previous generations (Deal et al., 2010). Similarly, Millennials have been said to be heavily supported by parents, teachers and other adults throughout their childhood.

Emerging adulthood appears to be a stage of development between adolescence and adulthood that is experienced by many individuals between the ages of 18 and 25 and is increasingly common. Although it is certainly not a universal stage, with some differences existing between nations, socioeconomic classes, and racial and ethnic groups, the conceptualizstion of emerging adulthood does appear to be useful. In particular, there appear to be key themes of emerging adulthood (e.g. self-exploration, independence and responsibility) that may make this group distinct from adults. This may also be linked to differences in career development processes between emerging adults and adults. Given that career is a developmental process that occurs over the course of the entire lifespan, it is necessary to explore how career development may be unique during the emerging adulthood years. While some research has been conducted on the differences in the career-related variables of Millennials as opposed to those of previous generations, the present study included only Millennials as participants and explored the differences between emerging adults and adult Millennials.

2.1.6 Emerging adulthood as a developmental theory

During the emerging adulthood stage (17–25–30 years of age), an individual‘s career development moves horizontally between the years until he or she makes a career decision before reaching the age of 30. During this stage, individuals’ environment plays a huge role on what career decisions they make (such as lack of career information or self-knowledge), and also during this stage, individuals interact with their parents, teachers, peers and other role models that dictate the direction their career takes (amidst a lack of self-knowledge). As such, emerging adulthood theory falls within the organismic, mechanistic and contextual theories of career development. Organismic theories tend to view development as universal, and typically argue for a series of stages that individuals tend to move through in a predictable manner (Lerner, 2002; Overton & Reese, 1973). Mechanistic theories pay greater attention to the role of the environment; although they generally contend that development occurs predictably across individuals if given the same environmental stimulus (Overton & Reese, 1973). Thus, both rely upon “absolute laws, or constancies” to understand and predict development (Lerner, Skinner, & Sorell, 1980, p. 226). Contextual theories, however, argue

that development is a product of interactions between individuals and their ever-changing environments, with universality or absolute laws being impossible (Lerner, 2002; Lerner, Skinner, & Sorell, 1980).

For the purpose of this research study, the emerging adulthood theory was deemed an appropriate developmental theory to understand how emerging adults come to make career decisions in the midst of all the contextual challenges.

2.2 CAREER INTERESTS

The following section focuses on the career interests of emerging adults using the career anchors model:

2.2.1 Schein's career anchors model

Career anchors theory was conceptualised by Edgar Schein at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in the 1960s (Yarnall, 1998). The concept of career anchor evolved out of the longitudinal study of Sloan School alumni ten to 12 years after their graduation (Schein, 1978). Schein re-interviewed 44 MBA graduates using in-depth interviews to examine their histories and the reasons behind their career decisions (Erdoğmus, 2004). When Schein (1978) examined the reasons for career decisions, he found that there was a clear pattern of responses, and that these reasons became more clear and stable as the individuals accumulated job experience. While Schein's (1978), research was originally developed by studying managers, career anchor theory is now applied to all levels of employees, and has been studied widely in various occupations and in different contexts, countries and organisations (Erdoğmus, 2004).

Schein (1996, p.18) defines the career anchor as the "one element in a person's self-concept that he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices". Anchors can create the basis for career choices because an individual is likely to select a job or organisation that is consistent with his or her self-image.

A career anchor is described as an individual's evolving self-concept consisting of the following three elements (Schein, 1990; Yarnall, 1998):

1) self-perceived talents, skills and competence (allowing strong and weak points to be discovered through actual successes in a variety of work settings)

2) self-perceived motives, needs, drives and goals (originating from opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations and feedback from others, to discover what they ultimately seek from their career)
3) self-perceived attitudes and values (originating from actual encounters between the individual and the norms and values of the employing organisation and work settings, to realise what environments they wish to be associated with)

Based on the first two elements, self-perceived talents, skills, competence and self-perceived motives, needs, drives and goals, a career is based on actual experience in a work setting and anchored in a set of needs and motives which the individual is attempting to fulfil in his or her work either through tangible and non-tangible rewards (Danziger & Valency, 2006; Schein, 1978). The third element, self-perceived attitudes and values, highlights the notion that a career can be anchored in a set of job descriptions and organisational norms where individuals react to these various norms and values according to the different social and work situations encountered (Danziger & Valency, 2006; Schein, 1978). However, the self-perceived talents, skills, competence and self-perceived motives, needs, drives and goals for emerging adults can also be achieved through thorough career counselling and guidance with use of psychometric assessments that can depict such information.

2.2.1.1 Conceptualisation of career anchors

Career anchors are described as patterns of self-perceived talents and abilities, basic values, motives and needs that pertain to careers, thus influencing individuals' career-related decisions (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009a; Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 2010). For the purposes of this study, a career anchor was defined as that one element in an emerging adult's self-concept that he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices such as the contextual factors (Schein, 2006, p. 6).

According to Schein (1978), the early career is a time of mutual discovery for emerging young adults and the career anchor concept can be viewed as a useful tool to explain why individuals match themselves with certain careers over others (Larsson et al., 2007). The career anchor concept emerged as a way of explaining the pattern of reasons given by individuals as they progressed through their careers (Yarnall, 1998). An individual's career self-concept or career anchor is built on feedback and self-insight, which matures with experience (Schein, 1978).

Schein (1978, 1996) proposed that career anchors evolve as one gains occupational and life experiences, but once the self-concept has been formed, it functions as a stabilising force or

“anchor”. Schein (1978, p. 128) defined a career anchor as “that concern or value which the person will not give up, if a choice has to be made”. It is through being forced to make choices that individuals become aware of what is important to them in terms of self-development, family or career (Schein, 1996).

Talents and abilities do not become an active part of the self-concept until they are tested and verified in a career counselling process (Schein, 1978). According to Schein (1978), career anchors are the result of the early interaction between the individual and his or her environment. They are “inside” the person, functioning as a set of driving and constraining forces on career decisions and choices. If one moves into a setting in which one is likely to fail or which fails to meet one’s needs or which compromises one’s values, one will be “pulled back” into something more congruent – hence the metaphor of “anchor” (Schein, 1978, p. 125)

An individual’s career self-concept influences career choices, affects decisions to move, shapes career aspirations, determines an individual’s view of the future, sways employee reactions to work experiences and influences perceptions of career success and satisfaction (Bigliardi et al., 2005; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012).

2.2.1.2 Types of career anchors

Career anchors are described as being broader than just values as they are personal characteristics discovered through work experience, and explain how and why an individual interacts with the organisation in a certain way (Yarnall, 1998).

According to Feldman and Bolino (1996), career anchors can be classified by integrating them into the following three dimensions based on the elements of self-concept:

1) Technical/functional, general managerial and entrepreneurial creativity competencies are grounded in individuals’ work talents where they focus on the day-to-day type of work.
2) Security and stability, autonomy and independence, and lifestyle competencies are predominantly grounded in individuals’ motives and needs where they focus on how to structure their work roles to keep them consistent with their basic personal desires and their personal lives.
3) Service/dedication to a cause and pure challenge competencies are grounded in individuals’ attitudes and values where they focus on their identification with their occupation and the culture of their organisation.

Table 2.1 provides an overview of the eight career anchors and the typical rewards that motivate individuals with each relevant anchor (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Table 2.2

Characteristics of the Eight Career Anchors (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011)

Career anchor	Characteristics
Technical/functional competence	Identity built around content of work – the technical/functional skill in which the individual excels; challenging work that allows application of expertise rewards Rewards Desire to be paid according to skills level Opportunities provided for self-development in a particular field
General managerial competence	High levels of responsibility; challenging, varied and integrative work; leadership opportunities that allow contributions to organisation; measure self by pay level – desire to be highly paid Rewards Bonuses for achieving organisational targets; promotion based on merit, measured performance or results Promotion to a position of higher responsibility – rank, title, salary, number of subordinates, size of budget
Autonomy/independence	Clearly delineated, time-bounded kinds of work within area of expertise; clearly defined goals which allow means of accomplishment to the individual; do not desire close supervision Rewards Pay for performance, bonuses Autonomy-oriented promotion systems

Security/stability	Stable, predictable work; concerned about the context of the work and the nature of the work itself; prefer to be paid in steady, predictable increments based on length of service; benefit packages that emphasise insurance and retirement programmes Rewards Seniority-based promotion systems with published ranks spelling out how long a person must serve in any given grade before promotion is preferred Recognition for loyalty and steady performance Assurance of further stability and steady employment
Entrepreneurial creativity	Enjoy creating new products or services, building new organisations through financial manipulation, or by taking over an existing business and reshaping it in one's image Obsessed with the need to create, requiring constant new challenge Rewards Wealth Ownership Freedom and power
Service/dedication to a cause	Work towards some important values of improving the world in some manner; prefer helping professions (e.g. nursing, teaching, ministry) Rewards Fair pay Recognition for one's contributions Opportunities to move into positions with more influence and freedom
Pure challenge	Pursue challenge for its own sake; jobs where one faces tougher challenges or more difficult problems irrespective of the kind of problem involved; highly motivated Rewards Adequate opportunities for self-tests

Lifestyle	Desire to integrate the needs of the individual, family and career; flexibility; organisational attitude that respects personal and family concerns and that makes renegotiation of the psychological contract possible Rewards Company benefits that allow options for travelling or moving when family issues permit, part-time work if life concerns require it, sabbaticals, paternity and maternity leave, day-care options, flexible arrangements

According to Feldman and Bolino (1996), other significant dimensions that determine the impact of career anchors on career decisions and outcomes include how self-aware individuals are of their career anchors and how important anchors are in guiding their career decisions (i.e. the salience of career anchors).

Career anchors distinguish a career as the "internal career" in which individuals have an internal picture of how their work life will be and what role they will play in that life (Schein, 1990). Internal career anchors refer to an individual's self-concept, which influences the psychological attractions that serve to guide his or her career choice (Schein, 1990). According to Schein (1978), it is important for people to gain self-awareness of their career anchors in order to make more informed career choices at critical points in their lives. Once the self-concept has been formed, it guides and stabilises individuals' careers and helps them to realise which values and motives they will not give up if forced to make a career choice (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016; Schein, 1990). People's insight into themselves becomes more refined as they gain more experience and their self-concept is honed (Schein, 1990). As individuals reach the end of their early career life stage, they begin to make career decisions, which have an impact on the balance of personal and work life situations (Schein, 1990, 1996).

The characteristics of the eight career anchors can be used to explain why individuals choose certain careers over others (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016, Schein, 1978). Table 2.2 above provides an overview of the eight career anchors and the typical rewards that motivate individuals with each relevant anchor (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016; Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Kniveton, 2004; Schein, 1990).

Career anchor theory is particularly significant in the South African context because of an environment characterised by high unemployment, large-scale retrenchments, no-fault terminations, employment equity targets, fewer employment opportunities, education and skill shortages and financial and emotional stressors (Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000). In the multicultural South African work environment, it is also imperative to investigate the career anchors of different races in order to take into account their diverse needs and values (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Rothman & Cilliers, 2007). Recent research on career anchors in the South African context has included predominantly black samples, with the COI indicating acceptable psychometric validity and reliability in a multicultural South African context (Bezuidenhout, Grobler, & Rudolph, 2013; Oosthuizen, Coetzee & Mntonintshi; 2014).

In the context of this study, the emphasis was on the construct of career orientation as a central part of the concept of career anchors and for which measurement can be operationalised by means of Schein's (1990) COI. This is also in line with other research on career anchors, such as that of Coetzee and Schreuder (2008, 2009a) and Coetzee et al. (2007)

2.3 THE SOCIAL COGNITIVE CAREER THEORY (SCCT)

The SCCT developed by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994) draws on Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. It outlines career development, and accounts for the interaction between educational and career interests. The SCCT emphasises the collaboration of personal attributes, external environmental factors and behaviour in career decision making. A significant contribution of this theory to the career development sphere is that it focuses on the relationships between social cognitive variables (e.g. self-efficacy), and their relationships with other variables in the individual's sociocontextual environment, such as gender, race/culture, family, community and political constituents. Brown (1996) contends that the incorporation of self and social context affords individuals a chance to gain a sense of control over their career development and increases their career-related self-efficacy expectations. The theory states that if individuals have confidence in their own ability and have a clear expectation of the outcome of their behaviour, they will act in a way that will help them attain their goal (Herr, 2001).

Bandura's social cognitive learning theory (discussed later in this study) posits that behaviours are filtered through beliefs, which have been formed on the basis of experiences with one's environment. For example, if an adolescent girl grew up in an environment in which she was not expected to do well in mathematics or science, she may have formed low self-efficacy in

these areas and might be less likely to pursue a career in one of these fields (Bandura, 1977, 1997).

Social cognitive learning theory also illustrates how individuals may rule out particular career trajectories because career-related decisions and behaviours are filtered through their beliefs.

2.3.1 Conceptualisation of SCCT

This theory posits that individuals have learning experiences (either directly, vicariously, through social messages, or through physiological messages such as the body's response to stress) in which they develop beliefs and expectations about which outcomes are likely to follow certain behaviours (Bandura, 1977, 1997). Subsequent decisions and behaviours are then based on those beliefs. One particular type of belief is self-efficacy, in which individuals assesses whether or not they feel they are capable of accomplishing some particular task. If self-efficacy is low and the expectation is that any effort exerted is unlikely to pay off, the individual will typically not engage in the behaviour unless his or her determination or desire is especially strong (Bandura, 1977).

This relates to the work of Gottfredson (1981), who posits that gender stereotypes are learnt, often affect one's self-efficacy and other beliefs (e.g. a girl believing her efforts in mathematics are unlikely to lead to success), and in turn affect career decisions and behaviours (Betz, 2008). Similarly, individuals with lower socioeconomic backgrounds tend to be optimistic about their futures, but have relatively low career expectations (Pisarik & Shoffner, 2009). This hopefulness is perhaps a reflection of social messages such as the "American dream" (Pisarik & Shoffner, 2009), while the low outcome expectations are consistent with Gottfredson's (1981) notion of circumscription (e.g. realising one's social class and then excluding particular career options that are deemed incongruent). Based on SCCT, these low expectations will affect individuals' career-related behaviours and thus make it even more difficult for them to rise in socioeconomic status.

Empirical support for these ideas is strong, with self-efficacy having been consistently linked to the ability to make career choices and showing strong relationships with both outcome expectations and prior environmental learning experiences (Betz, 2008; Lent et al., 2003). Consistent with the idea that career development is relational in nature, there is evidence that self-efficacy is associated with social support, with higher levels of social support leading to more positive learning experiences (Quimby & O'Brien, 2004). Self-efficacy has also been shown to predict positive outcomes, such as self-efficacy in college courses relating to grade point average (GPA) at the end of the semester (Betz, 2008). Similarly, self-efficacy in

regulating one's own learning has been linked to both later high school GPA and graduation rates (Bandura *et al., 2001)*. Based on the empirical support for the predictive nature of self-efficacy, it appears to be worthwhile to assess potential differences in career decision self-efficacy among emerging adults and adults. Lastly, self-efficacy and identity status (e.g. having made commitments to lifestyle, career, romantic relationships and political affiliations) have been linked in the literature (Nauta & Kahn, 2007). Given that one of the themes of emerging adulthood seems to be exploration of one's identity, this suggests that differences may also be evident between emerging adults and adults in self-efficacy.

2.4 VARIABLES INFLUENCING THE CAREER INTERESTS OF EMERGING ADULTS

Several studies show that new students all over the world are usually faced with a dilemma in making a career choice decision in their lives (Bandura et al. 2001; Cherian 1991; Issa & Nwalo 2008; Watson et al. 2010). In most cases, the choice of careers, subjects and courses of study and the subsequent career paths to follow are a nightmare for prospective undergraduate students (Issa & Nwalo 2008). Most often, choosing the right subject combination leading to the right profession can make the difference between enjoying and detesting one's career in the future. Individuals undergoing the process of making a career choice are influenced by factors such as the context in which they live, their personal aptitudes and educational attainment (Bandura et al. 2001; Watson et al. 2010).

Variables such as biographical, environmental and cultural factors have been researched by different authors as influencing an individual's ability to make career decisions (Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Stead & Watson, 1999). In order to make effective career decisions it is imperative for individuals to understand themselves through self-awareness of their career choices and decisions (Hsu et al., 2003).

2.4.1 Dwelling or geographic location

Environmental factors such as place of residence have been influenced by an individual's ability to make career decisions (Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Stead & Watson, 1999). Studies have also investigated factors that influence career choice by high school students (Mudhovozi & Chireshe 2012). For example, in their study of sociodemographic factors that influence anchor career choice among psychology students in South Africa, Mudhovozi and Chireshe (2012) found that the participants who attended public schools in rural areas made delayed career decisions.

In their study, Shumba and Naong (2012) found that the poor financial base of students from disadvantaged communities deterred their choices of appropriate educational programmes and careers. Such students tend to avoid careers that appear to them to require long periods of training which their finances cannot support (Shumba & Naong, 2012). This suggests that students from lower socioeconomic families are not given adequate space to make independent decisions on their careers (Blomerus, 2016). It is clear from these findings that despite the limited state resources available, the shortage of high-level skills and a pressing need to raise income levels among the poor, the high student dropout and failure rates are a major problem at South African universities (Blomerus, 2016).

The issue of career choice and the aspirations of students can be a nightmare if students do not receive career counselling and support from their family (parents) and peers. For example, in their study of sociodemographic factors that anchor career choice among psychology students in South Africa, Mudhovozi and Chireshe (2012) found that the participants who attended public schools situated in rural areas made delayed career decisions because of lack of direction or self-knowledge. In his study of career choice of Nigerian youths, Salami (1999) found that many youths made the wrong career choices because of ignorance, inexperience, peer pressure, advice from friends, parents and teachers, or because of the prestige attached to certain jobs without adequate vocational guidance and career counseling. Similarly, Sax (1994) examined students' initial interest in science careers, factors influencing career choice during college and how these factors differ between men and women students.

Career information is necessary during the different stages of a career development process. According to Langley (1989), it is imperative for a person to have the aptitude to actively seek out career information. Individuals need to be encouraged to consult libraries, reference books, computer programs and the internet. They need to collect information on the various career fields as well as on particular jobs, training and admission requirements, salaries and prospects.

Tagay (2014) posit that one of the main elements that affect career decision making is lack of information. This element includes a lack of information about the steps involved in the career decision-making process, about the self and various occupations, and about ways of obtaining additional information. According to Arnold (Tagay, 2014), there is a need to have matching information about the two kinds of knowledge to ensure that progress is made in the career decision-making process.

One of the principal tasks a person performs in the career decision process is to collect information on the probable career options in which he or she is interested (Barker & Kellen, 1998). According to Baglama and Uzunboylu (2017), career development in individuals can be recognised through their augmented consciousness of prospects and selections in their way. Access to and the use of career information are vital and often an essential part of the decision-making process (Stead & Watson, 2013). However, there are signs indicating that there is lack of career knowledge as well as career fallacies among learners, parents and teachers alike in South Africa (Blomerus, 2016; Mbetse, 2002; Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Shumba & Naong, 2012).

2.4.2 Gender stereotypes

Career decision making may be influenced by social, cultural, political and economic factors (Blomerus, 2016; Schreuder & Theron, 1997). According to Eesley and Wang (2017) and Stead and Watson (1999), the cultural context in which individuals operate will change and have an effect on their process of career development through gender related stereotypes and socialization. The cultural influences are usually family during childhood, peers during adolescence and work and possibly a new family during early adulthood (Eesley & Wang, 2017). During middle adulthood, work continues to have a cultural influence on how an individual progresses through his or her career. These environmental influences have been instrumental in individuals developing self-awareness, which has led to greater career decision making skills, career competencies, career maturity and career success (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016).

Research has found that career anchors differ between the genders and thus impact on the career choices made (Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017; Bezuidenhout, Grobler, & Rudolph, 2013). Females focus more on attachment, affiliation, working conditions, child-care facilities, career stability and working hours. Males, however, tend to focus on the extrinsic rewards from their employment and are more likely to seek challenging work environments (Kniveton, 2004). According to Schreuder and Theron (1997), career choice may be influenced by gender because males and females are exposed to different environmental experiences. Research findings by Coetzee et al. (2007) indicated that race and gender groups differ significantly in relation to their career anchors. According to Coetzee et al. (2007), black male and female participants showed higher preference for values-based anchors (*service/dedication to a cause* and *pure challenge)* and the needs-based *lifestyle* career anchor. White female participants showed a preference for the lifestyle career anchor, while

the black and white participants showed a preference for the *autonomy* career anchor (Coetzee et al., 2007).

An individual's particular life stage, as expressed by a certain age group, has a significant influence on his or her career anchor preferences (Bonner & Marshall, 2003; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008, Kniveton, 2004; Silva et al., Dutra, 2016). According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2008), occupational position, gender and race also appear to influence an individual's career anchor preferences. Martin and Roodt (2008) assert that married females are committed to organisations, which provide them with the job and financial security and stability they need in order to maintain their family needs.

Since the variables of age, race, gender, marital status and educational levels have been shown to be related to employees' career orientations, it would be beneficial for organisations to focus on designing their career development policies, frameworks, interventions and reward systems by taking into consideration the different career needs and aspirations relating to these biographical factors (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008).

In South Africa, women comprise to 52% of the adult population, of which 41% are considered part of the active working population. Even though the ratio between male and female entrepreneurs in South Africa is not highly uneven, the majority of South African women entrepreneurs function within the crafts, hawking, personal services and retail sectors, in which little technology is utilised in the undifferentiated businesses concerned (Urban, 2010; Steyn & Jackson, 2015; Williams *et al.,* 2017). These findings clearly suggest that some form of gender division of labour persists in South Africa, with women still being tied to old-fashioned female functions, tending to concentrate on those activities that are well matched with their domestic and reproductive roles (Mahadea, 2001; Diale, 2017).

In industrialised countries, women and men commonly perform different tasks and work in different sectors, although both men and women (Messing, 2006) occupy some job titles in white-collar work. Men tend to be concentrated in the skilled trades and operative jobs, while women are mostly found in teaching, clerical and other service occupations (Renzetti & Curran, 1999; Steyn & Jackson, 2015; Williams *et al.,* 2017).

In developing countries like South Africa, women and men typically work at different tasks (Martin & Barnard, 2013; Diale, 2017) in mining, manufacturing and services (Steyn & Jackson, 2015; Williams *et al.,* 2017). Women, however are more likely to work in the informal economy sector and often do specific types of informal work, such as street vending, sex work

and domestic work (Martin & Barnard, 2013). This trend is atypical to the socioeconomic conditions that exist to make a male the provider and a female the caregiver. This trend filters down to their children through socialisation and gender stereotypes. In many countries, women occupy lower ranks than men (Messing, 2006). Generally, women tend to remain extremely under-represented in high status occupations and largely over-represented in the jobs with both the lowest wages and the lowest status (Young, 2010).

The Commission on Gender Equality (2001) further illustrates this point by showing that although women constitute the major segment of the South African population, they make up only a third of the labour force, and occupy few senior and top management positions. The source of this gender inequality in the workplace is once again believed to be cultivated in the context of job segregation and the perceived roles associated with gender groups (Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Mathur-Helm, 2005).

Catalyst (2004, in Mathur-Helm ,2005) reports that only 75% of South African businesses employ women in senior management positions, which seems positive in light of the fact that the global average is only 59%. However, while these figures indicate that South African women are allowed access to senior management positions, they appear to remain excluded from reaching the top positions of, say, board director and CEO. South Africa has a total of 11 (3%) female chairs of boards and only seven (1.9%) female CEOs. Not only does this strongly confirm the existence of the glass ceiling in South Africa, but also further serves to illustrate that patriarchy still prevails in many organisations, preventing women from fulfilling professional roles as decision makers (Mathur-Helm, 2005; Martin & Barnard, 2013).

Black women too were affected by patriarchal ideas and were further disadvantaged by the compounding effect of racist ideals. Hence they most frequently occupied positions as cleaners and tea ladies in office buildings and in rural areas where unemployment was high, most black women relied on the pay cheques of their migrant labourer husbands who worked in the mines (Diale, 2017).

With the demise of the apartheid government, South Africa has seen the introduction of formalised equality and affirmative action legislation. Despite this, it appears that organisational environments are still not beneficial to women as far as the legacy of discrimination based on race and gender appears to exist and act as a barrier to the realisation of legislation set out in the Employment Equity Act (Garg & Bhide, 2017; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010; Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004).

Research on the influence of differences in gender on career choices has also emphasised the existence of key inconsistencies between the two genders (Callahan, 2017; Hewitt, 2010;

Matshabane, 2016). For instance, women have been found to experience more intricacies in their career choices than men, because of the former's need to balance their work and family roles (Mahasha, 2016).

Family and peers

Some studies suggest that children are influenced in their career choice by sociodemographic factors, which include family, school and peers (Blomerus, 2016; Kniveton 2004; Mathombela 1997; Salami 2006).

In his study, Salami (2006) found that family involvement was the most significant predictor of career choice in gender-dominated occupations. Similarly, Kniveton (2004) reported that the family provides information and guidance directly or indirectly and influences young people's career choices. For example, parents offer appropriate support to their children for occupational choices which tend to follow their own (Sinkombo, 2016).

Other studies have separately examined the influences of each parent on the career choices of their sons or daughters and have found that mothers tend to have more influence on the career decisions/aspirations of their children than fathers do (Lawson, Crouter, & McHale, 2015).

Other studies show that peers play a major role in career choice of students (Mtemeri, 2017). Their peers easily influence adolescents because they rely on their friends to provide validation of the choices they make, including their career decisions (Bhayani, 2015).

Other family variables that have been shown to influence career aspirations include the parents' occupations (Tillman, 2015). The father's occupational status is highly correlated with his son's occupation (Conroy, 1997).

Schools

The school at which one is educated has a significant influence on one's career choice (Weishew & Penk, 1993). In his study, Garrahy (2001) noted that schools are social institutions that reinforce gender-appropriate behaviour, interests and occupations. Such constructs, including curricular subjects, quality of teaching, learner participation in school activities, school practices and policies and learning materials for the learners, were found to have an impact on learners' career choices (Blomerus, 2016; Bojuwoye & Mbanjwa, 2006; Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Shumba & Naong, 2012). Teachers, like parents, are viewed as key players in the career paths that young people eventually pursue, especially girls (Barnett, 2007). In

her study in Nigeria, Denga (2004) found that sex-role stereotypes exist among boys and girls in primary school as they aspire to traditional occupations. This implies that teachers' beliefs influence the children's self-perceptions of ability and consequently career choice. In fact, studies show that some teachers encourage students to take certain subject options that are congruent with aptitudes and abilities they identify in them (Falaye & Adams, 2008).

Schools need to provide career guidance to learners during their high school studies. Effective career guidance programmes guide learners in making their career choices and aspirations before entering university. Teachers, like parents, work closely with learners in schools and they know the abilities of their students in various subjects. Teachers should therefore guide their learners in their career choices and aspirations in line with their abilities in various subjects.

In order for learners to make the right career choice, the family (parents), teacher and peers should be encouraged not to force their children into careers based on cultural gender stereotypes. With parental guidance and support, children should be able to make the right career choice.

2.5 CHALLENGES FACED BY AFRICAN EMERGING ADULTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

The fact that emerging adults, more especially black emerging adults, face various challenges, prompted this study. Gender stereotypes present certain myths that discourage females and rural-based participants from venturing into certain careers. Also, lack of career counselling, say, in the form of self-knowledge or a self-concept, poses challenges for emerging adults when they have to make career decisions, as discussed below.

2.5.1 Career myths

A number of common myths that might misguide emerging adults around their careers have been identified over time (Albien & Naidoo, 2017). Amundson (1997, p. 77), for example, stated the following: "Once you make a career choice, you are committed for life"; "the choice you make needs to be totally fulfilling"; "successful career choices will guarantee a successful future"; and the career counsellor is "all-knowing" and does most of the work in determining which career would be a good fit.

Lewis and Gilhousen (1981) provided a more comprehensive list of career myths, including the following: individuals should have a clear career plan at all times; career decisions should

occur at a specific point in development (e.g. by the time the individual completes high school); an individual is a failure if he or she gives up on a certain career goal; a good job leads to transformation, self-actualisation or lifelong happiness; and individuals can have any career they desire if they put their mind to it. Dorn and Welch (1985, p. 137) provided yet another set of myths such as the following: college should be attended for the sole purpose of finding a job; there is a perfect job out there for everyone; a career choice will simply become clear over time; and if a person is interested enough in a particular career, the rest will fall into place.

Most (nine of 13) of the myths identified by these authors were found to be commonly endorsed by high school learners at the time (Dorn & Welch, 1985).

It has been argued that holding such myths affects individuals' career decisions and behaviours, regardless of where a person is in his or her career development process (Amundson, 1997; Liptak, 1989). For example, the endorsement of career myths among high school learners has been linked to greater levels of foreclosure, or prematurely deciding not to follow a particular career path (Cobb, 2013).

An association between aspirational goals and career myths has also been identified, with those endorsing larger numbers of myths generally having lower career aspirations. Similarly, there appears to be a link between career myths and indecision (Herring, 1990). It is therefore imperative for individuals to be aware of the career myths they hold (Palladino, Schultheiss, & Stead, 2004) and then address them in order to move forward in their career development (Albien & Naidoo, 2017; Amundson, 1997; Dorn & Welch, 1985; Lewis & Gilhousen, 1981). Such findings indicate a need for being aware of which myths may be most prevalent among various developmental groups (Ladany, Melincoff, Constantine, & Love, 1997).

According to Stead (1993), while some career myths may be specific to a given population, others have been shown to be universal across groups. Hence, a greater understanding of which specific myths are commonly endorsed by emerging adults may help career counsellors to refute those beliefs and replace them with ones that are more likely to foster informed career decisions in this population. Furthermore, it may be beneficial to examine whether or not emerging adults tend to endorse career myths relating to perceptions of adulthood (e.g. having to remain in a boring career path once adulthood has been reached).

This discussion relates directly to social cognitive learning theory, namely that career myths are essentially commonly held beliefs that affect individuals' career-related behaviours (e.g. whether or not they would apply for a particular job). Hence, an individual's behaviours will be

filtered in part through the career myths he or she adheres to. Consistent with Gottfredson's (1981) theory, many myths apply to the career trajectories of specific groups, thus affecting the career development of individuals within those populations.

2.5.2 Lack of self-concept

Self-knowledge refers to the insight into one's personality which enables them to know what they are capable of (Du Doit, 2015). One of the best-known theories that postulates the significance of self-knowledge in career decision-making processes is that of Super (1990), who states that most career choices attempt to objectify the skills, talents and interests of one's self concept (Gianakos, 1999). This knowledge helps one to make decisions that uphold effective and informed career decisions.

Ismail (2017) believes that effective career decision making cannot occur unless the person has the necessary insight and knowledge to combine self-knowledge and career knowledge. However, Bernhardt (1998) postulates that linking self-knowledge and career knowledge could pose the greatest problem for students. As specified by Maree (2015, 2016), self-knowledge is an essential attribute if young people are to make realistic career choices. It is therefore essential for individuals to have sound self-knowledge to ensure that they make effective and satisfactory career decisions for successful future career and employment prospects (Ismail, 2017). It is evident from research studies, that self-knowledge of or exposure to various careers can shape one's self-concept and promote clear career interests for African emerging adults.

2.6 INTERGRATION: THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER, DWELLING AND THE CAREER INTERESTS OF AFRICAN EMERGING ADULTS

An individual's emerging adulthood life/career stage has a significant influence on his or her career interests (Bonner & Marshall, 2003; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008, Kniveton, 2004). During this stage, career decision making may be influenced by social, cultural, political and economic factors (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

The context in which an individual lives will change and also influence his or her process of career development (Stead & Watson, 1999). However, an individual's ability to make career decisions may be influenced by the level of self-awareness he or she has during the emerging adulthood stage (Coetzee, 2008; Schein, 2006).

Socioeconomic and sociodemographic factors in South Africa result in the lack of self-concept for African emerging adults. Their apparent lack of self-concept leads to their career interests being influenced by their gender, which, in turn, affects the career choices they make (Kniveton, 2004). In addition, in the patriarchal African culture, males and females are exposed to different environmental experiences, preparing them for different careers (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

The literature review indicates significant differences between the career anchors of males and females (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2007; Danzinger & Valency, 2006; Ellison & Schreuder, 2000; Hardin, 1995; Kniveton, 2004; Marshall & Bonner, 2003; Ngokha, 2009). Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) found that the male participants in their study showed a significantly high preference for general managerial competence, pure challenge and entrepreneurial creativity career anchors, while the female participants indicated a higher preference for the security/stability career anchor. The cultural influences are usually parents during childhood, peers during adolescence and possibly a new family during early adulthood (Stead & Watson, 1999).

In the above study, the male participants, compared to their female counterparts, valued autonomy and independence in the work environment as well as entrepreneurial creativity as being more important. Similar findings were reported by Ellison and Schreuder (2000), with the male participants also scoring higher on the entrepreneurial creativity anchor in their study. A study conducted by Kniveton (2004) indicated that males and females had similar views on what was important to them, with gender differences limited to the talent-based anchors, and males scoring higher for technical and entrepreneurial anchors. Hardin (1995) found that males were more than twice as likely as females to possess the general managerial or entrepreneurial creativity career anchors, while a higher percentage of females than males were lifestyle oriented. Igbaria et al. (1991) reported that career anchors were significantly related to gender. A higher percentage of men than women were technically oriented, whereas as a higher percentage of women were lifestyle oriented, compared to their male counterparts.

Marshall and Bonner's (2003) research indicated that females place more emphasis on factors such as working conditions, facilities for child rearing, career certainty and working hours, while males are more likely to run their own businesses than females. They noted that gender was a significant predictor of certain career anchors, including entrepreneurial creativity. Research by Coetzee et al. (2007) indicated that females tend to be more committed to organisations that respect personal and family concerns, whereas males tend to be more

committed to organisations that provide them with the autonomy and independence to enable them to work independently.

2.7 PRATICAL IMPLICATIONS OF GENDER AND DWELLING FOR THE CAREER INTERESTS OF AFRICAN EMERGING ADULTS

The occupational choices made by emerging adults have their roots in earlier interactions and experiences (Eccles et al., 1983; Gottfredson, 1981; Lent et al., 1994; Savickas, 2005). All the interactions do not necessarily mean a definite career move, but for emerging adults with limited exposure and resources, they follow such interactions and build career interests around them. For instance, children begin to learn about possible future jobs through seeing adults in their communities and parents' social networks (Phukan & Saikia, 2017; Super, 1990; Taveira, Oliveira, & Araújo, 2016). However, if there is a lack of role models in the careers that interest them, emerging adults will be forced to change their interests and adopt the readily available ones with role models and career information. Self-perceptions develop through experiences in school (Lent et al., 1994) and feedback from one's social network (Badri, 2017). During adolescence, individuals often engage in and value the same activities as their friends in order to fulfil the need for relatedness (Shapiro, & Margolin, 2014).), and such activity participation may lead them towards particular career paths. The lack of a self-concept among African emerging adults leads to a detrimental career moves influenced by peers. Part-time work during adolescence is also a key source of information about work and one's place in the workforce (Levine & Hoffner, 2006). Rural-based emerging adults do not have opportunities to engage in part-time work, which might be helpful in shaping and confirming their career interests, compared with their urban-based counterparts.

Jacobs and Eccles (2000) suggest that parents influence their children's values in four main ways, namely developing a socioemotional climate, acting as role models, providing key experiences and transmitting their perceptions and expectations. Hence the proximal, internal influences on emerging adults' careers have their roots in earlier experiences.

Given the gender differences in the composition of some career fields (e.g. IT), researchers have theorised that career choices partially arise from gender role socialisation throughout life (Eccles et al., 1993; Martin & Ruble, 2004). Children's awareness of their gender and social class influences their perceptions of appropriate career aspirations (Eccles, 1994; Gottfredson 1981, 2005). There is also evidence that parents' beliefs about gender differences in children's abilities are transmitted to and internalised by their children (Eccles Parsons, Adler, & Kaczala, 1982; Frome & Eccles, 1998) and that there are ethnic differences in the messages that

children internalise from their parents (Whiston & Keller, 2004). Opportunities for skill development vary considerably and may contribute to differences in career-related self-efficacies (Lent et al., 1994; Turner et al., 2004).

Despite different socialisation, the same career development and occupational choice processes seem to occur for men and women as well as European Americans and minorities (Lent et al., 2005). Emerging adulthood is a particularly meaningful age period in which to study career development because of the unique experiences that emerging adults have regarding the world of work (Arnett, 2004; Hamilton & Hamilton, 2006). This is an age during which previous socialisation combines with current experiences to shape individuals' career choices and long-term goals. Emerging adults are more independent than children and adolescents, but their parents and other important people in their lives still actively influence their career opportunities (Arnett, 2004; Whiston & Keller, 2004).

In addition, emerging adults are still engaged in identity exploration, of which one of the most salient aspects is occupational identity (Arnett, 2004; Hamilton & Hamilton, 2006). Many individuals also continue to explore potential paths and identities during postsecondary educational pursuits and workplace experiences. However, not all emerging adults are able to construct their own careers to the same degree (Blustein, 2004).

African emerging adults specifically find it difficult to construct their own career interests. This is mainly because of socioeconomic factors (lack of financial support and of access to tertiary, cultural and gender stereotypes) and sociodemographic factors (lack of career opportunities, role models and self-awareness). In addition, research has shown the importance of self-awareness during the emerging adulthood stage, which African emerging adults appear to lack.

The aim of the current study was to highlight the importance of gender and dwelling and their impact on the career interests of African emerging adults and how emerging adults can be supported by exposure to career counselling and guidance to ensure that they make relevant and appropriate career choices. Hopefully, the study will also make industrial psychologists aware of the predicament of African emerging adults when they attempt to make career decisions. The results of this study could assist career counsellors to include gender and dwelling as part of their assessment, and for consideration during report writing and feedback sessions with their African emerging adult clients. Government could also assist by doing more to roll out career-related services, targeting more specifically people and schools of low socioeconomic status in the rural or township areas.

2.7 CRITICAL EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

Emerging adulthood is a critical stage in an individual's career life. This is the stage in which careers have to be explored and possibilities experimented with, while digesting vast amounts of information that have to absorbed in order to clarify their career interests. During this period, emerging adults need support to help them make the correct career decisions.

Career interests are the actual abilities that have been confirmed via the self-concept process, which entails experimentation, trial and error, career counselling and guidance, speaking to role models, research on related career information such as access and existing opportunities, and through tertiary education.

However, the majority of African emerging adults are unable to conform to their career interests because of a lack of support (especially females) and of information and resources, especially emerging adults from rural or township areas. To develop clear career interests and make appropriate career decisions, one needs a clear self-concept. However, not all emerging adults have one, even though studies have shown that a clear self-concepts lead to easier and more appropriate career-related choices. Without a clear self-concept, an individual has self-efficacy only. Self-efficacy (perceived abilities), if they are not confirmed, can be influenced by any external factor such as gender stereotypes (males/females) and geographical location or dwelling (urban/rural). The SCCT clearly shows how contextual factors can influence career interests when an individual's development has not been fully crystallised. Society, community, parents and other socialisers can perpetuate gender stereotypes by dictating which career males and females should follow. In the same vein, the geographical location can either hinder or promote certain careers followed by emerging adults.

There is a paucity of research on emerging adulthood in the African context, and their development of career interests in the midst of the African gender stereotypes and socioeconomic disparities that create geographical distance among emerging adults. Exploring how and if the career interests of African emerging adults are influenced by their gender and dwelling, would assist not only career counsellors, but also government to make available the necessary resources to assist those emerging adults who might be disadvantaged because of their gender or being urban or and rural based.

2.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to provide a theoretical conceptualisation of emerging adulthood stage, career interests and the career interest theory applicable to this study. The chapter discussed factors influencing the career interests of African emerging adults, specifically gender and dwelling and the relevant theory explaining how these contextual factors affect the career interests of emerging adults. The chapter also highlighted the theoretical integration of career interests, gender and dwelling, the practical implications of the links between the three variables and a critical evaluation and synthesis of the links between the three variables. This chapter concluded phase 1 of the study.

Chapter 3, which is in the form of a research article, focuses on the empirical findings of the research.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH REPORT

Exploring links between gender, dwelling and career interests among black emerging adults at a South African higher education institution

Abstract

The study explored the socio-ecological (i.e. gender and geographical location) influences on the career orientations of young emerging adults. The participants comprised a convenience sample of 159 Black African South African university students (57% rural, 43% urban; 63% females, 37% males, mean age =1.2, SD = 0.44). The young adults completed a career orientations inventory and also self-reported their demographics. We applied hierarchical regression analysis to predict the young adults' career orientations from their gender and place of dwelling (geographical location) controlling for age. Results indicate that gender predicts interest in entrepreneurial creativity orientations for males rather than for females and interest in service-oriented occupations for females compared to males. Geographical location predicted interest in entrepreneurial, general management, service type of occupations for those from the rural rather than urban areas. Urban location predicted interest in technical and functional careers anchors. Career orientations among South African young adults appeared to be gendered and also tied to place of geographical origin, suggesting social context socialisation influences.

Keywords: black African emerging adults, career interests, career orientations, career anchors, gender, dwelling, career choice

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section explains the focus and background of the study. This is followed by a discussion of the trends identified in the literature, the objectives and aims of the research and potential value-added highlights that the study could contribute.

3.1.1 Key focus of the study

The choice of an appropriate career is inevitable at the young, emerging adulthood stage in both the developed and developing countries. Emerging adulthood stage involves a period of career exploration and personal growth in individuals between the ages of 18–28 years (Arnett, 2000; 2015; Trible, 2015). At the same time, career choice is increasingly a

challenging task for young adults in globalising work economies in which careers of choice may not be tied to physical or geographical boundaries (Maree, 2016; Nyamwenge, 2016). This would be the case with information-based careers or those of an entrepreneurial nature as with emerging business niches. Career self-concept or one's work experiences self-knowledge and career-related information resourcing may be tied to gender and geographical location identities so that career orientations profiles may be explained by these two socio-ecological variables (Matshabane, 2016; Shepard & Marshall, 2000; Schein, 1996; Super, 1990; Weishew & Penk, 1993). The present study aimed to explore the career orientations of young emerging black African South Africans (17-28 years) by their gender and geographical place of origin.

Career decision-making process is one of the most challenging life processes any emerging adults has to go through during the emerging adulthood stage (Arnett, 2000; Maree, 2016). It is also an important process because its ramifications are likely to last a lifetime. Individuals needs to have a clear alignment between their self-concept and career interests in order to make appropriate career decisions (Bandura et al., 2001; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016) and to discard or avoid factors that might negatively influence their career choices. Schein (1990) views the career self-concept as vital in developing career interests because the assessment of individuals' career interests generally provides an indication of the crystallisation of the career self-concept. However, some black emerging adult lack a clear self-concept for the following reasons: they are from low-income families; their parents might be unemployed; they attend schools with inadequate educational resources; and there is a lack of career centres and career counselling in rural-based or township schools (Maite, 2005; Miles & Naidoo, 2017). As such, contextual factors such as geographical considerations (i.e. urban versus rural) (Bandura et al., 2001; Maite, 2005; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Watson, McMahon, Foxcroft, & Els, 2010) and gender stereotypes perpetuated by parents, communities and culture (Ganesan, 2014; Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Ramaci et al. 2017; Shabir, Shakeel & Zubair, 2017; Urban, 2010) may influence young adults' career interests and self-concepts. Research studies show that career choices based on the career self-concept require self-knowledge and a clear understanding of one's interests, abilities, ambitions and resources (Watson & Stead, 2013).

In terms of the contextual factors, young emerging adults from rural areas may not have easy access to resources such as career guidance services. Furthermore, they may be influenced by parental role models who may emphasise constructing a living for economic reasons more than developing career interests for creating a career that requires further education (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Nyamwenge, 2016). These influences, together with lack of a

clear self-concept, may lead to the young emerging adult making inappropriate career decisions. Moreover, in the patriarchal African culture, which is more prevalent in rural areas, different careers are prescribed for male and females. Males have at their disposal support, resources and advantages for any career choice, while women are directed towards teaching, service-related, clerical or secretarial career choices (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Urban, 2010). According to Ramaci et al. (2017) and Shabir, Shakeel, and Zubair (2017), young males'/females' career choices differ because of parents stereotyping careers for them. From an African perspective, the development of the self is linked to community, culture and the fulfilment of certain key roles (Nsamenang, 1992). Geographical context and gender stereotypes as perpetuated by the community and parents are therefore bound to play a significant role in the career interests of the participants in this study (Nsamenang, 1992; Robinson & Diale, 2017).

The current study falls within the ambit of career psychology, which involves studying and facilitating occupational development across the life span, with the emphasis on adult career development. Career psychology is often utilised in counselling psychology (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013). The focus of the study was on exploring links between gender, dwelling and career interests among black emerging adults, and the extent to which gender and dwelling significantly explain the career interests of black African emerging adults. The purpose was to observe if there are differences in the career interests of males and females and in terms of their dwelling, while using age as a control factor. The study focused on two contextual factors that might have a negative influence on career interests, and ultimately the career choices of black emerging adults.

3.1.2 Background to the study

Emerging adulthood is a critical stage in any individual's life. It is a stage filled with opportunities to explore, but is also fraught with anxiety about the transition from adolescence to independent adulthood. Being an independent adult means making a life and career choice for the future. As such, emerging adults who fall within the age group of 17 to 28 to 30 find themselves having to make life and career decisions. It is crucial to make an appropriate career-related decision because such decisions often last a lifetime, and it is not easy to change one's career at later stage.

South Africa is divided according to socioeconomic class, with some citizens residing in urban areas and others in rural areas. Hence, even the assistance and support that emerging adults receive depends on their geographical context.

Emerging adults need assistance and support to make the appropriate career decisions. Some fortunate individuals do have access to career counselling, thus enabling them to establish a clear self-concept. Some have role models, adequate career-related information, tertiary institutions nearby and opportunities to experience real work situations in which they can experiment with their desired careers. However, some emerging adults from rural or township schools are deprived of the following: the financial resources to enter tertiary education, role models, career-related information, adequate career counselling services, and opportunities to experiment with their desired careers (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Weishew & Penk, 1993). As such, those students from previously disadvantaged schools who actually make it to university have no clear career interests (Bojuwoye & Mbanjwa, 2006; Maree, 2009; Maree & Beck, 2004; Shumba & Naong, 2012).

The lack of clear self-concept leads to disastrous career choices because the individual will be easily influenced by contextual factors such as gender stereotypes (male/female careers) and his or her dwelling (urban/rural) or geographic location (Schein, 1996; Super, 1990). Studies have indicated that individuals who are able to conceptualise their own talents and abilities, basic values, motives and needs as they pertain to career decisions, have identified their own career anchors, and thus have a clear self-concept (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016).

Studies have found that most black emerging adults do not have a clear self-concept and as such, gender and dwelling have a significant influence on their career interests (Abrahams, Jano, & Van Lill, 2015; Silva, Trevisan, Veloso, & Dutra, 2016; Ekore, 2014; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Tebele et al., 2015). Having a clear self-concept means having self-knowledge of one's abilities and limits, thus being able to develop appropriate career interests and pursue an appropriate career in life (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016).

Geo-social influences on career orientations

There is evidence to suggest that geographical residence (i.e. urban versus rural) may influence young adults' career interests or orientations and self-concepts (Bandura et al., 2001; Maite, 2005; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Watson, McMahon, Foxcroft, & Els, 2010). For example, research from Western settings shows an interest in technical, entrepreneurial and managerial occupations to be associated with urban rather than rural residence (DeLong, 1984; Joo, 2011; Kim & Cho, 2009). Differences in career orientation by geographical location have been explained in terms of occupations opportunity structure in urban settings in favour of those seeking technical or entrepreneurial careers premised on

advanced vocational training and education (Canadian Rural Partnership, 2000). The occupations opportunity structure in Western countries appears to offer fewer opportunities to those aspiring to technical or entrepreneurial careers (Cooper, 1985; Henderson, 2002; Henderson & Robertson, 1999). In developing African countries settings, a whopping 30% to 60% of citizens work in the informal job markets in which they are self-employed and with strong links to rural markets for labour and/or resources (Jackson, 2016). It is unclear as to whether findings from Western settings would generalise to developing world country settings with their strong rural-urban social networks, such as with migrant labour markets as well as small business trades that traffic between urban and rural settings.

Gender has been associated with differences in career orientations with females preferring service type professions and males with an interest in technical-managerial professions (Callahan, 2017; Hewitt, 2010; Matshabane, 2016). This effect may be explained by opportunity structure by which females being historically recent entrants to the job market occupy service positions, which may require less preparatory time than would technical – managerial positions. Gender differences in occupational preferences also may be explained by socialization by which males may be socialized to prefer and value technical –managerial positions more than females who may be socialized to service type of professions (Ganesan, 2014; Ramaci et al. 2017; Shabir, Shakeel & Zubair, 2017). The cross-cultural transportability of Western findings on gendered career opportunity structures and socialization to developing country settings cannot be assumed without prior study.

The South African Career Opportunity Structure.

In the South African setting, technical-managerial positions in the formal employment sector are largely urban based and requiring advanced vocational education preparation (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Weishew & Penk, 1993, Maree, 2016; Van Rensburg, 2017). Young adults from South African urban areas, much like their peers in the developed countries may be more aware of and aspire to technical-managerial careers compared to their counterparts from rural communities (Williams, Grobler & Grobler 2014). However, this historic divide in career orientation by area of geographical origin cannot be assumed among college educated young adults. Moreover, the South African senior high school curriculum, which serves as preparatory to university study provides a career-counselling curriculum, which in part, informs would be university students and other of the work opportunities in the South African economy. Nonetheless, South African rural schools tend to provide unsatisfactory career counselling services from a lack of resources (Abrahams, Jano &Van Lill, 2015; Bojuwoye & Mbanjwa, 2006; Maree, 2009; Maree & Beck, 2004; Shumba & Naong, 2012).

Black South Africans have in the past experienced exclusions or restrictions to certain educational and career options (Maree, 2016; Watson & Stead, 2013). As a result, Black South Africans are relatively recent entrants to the full scope of the labour market, having been historically excluded during the apartheid days and with participation of mostly service type professions or unskilled as well as semi-skilled jobs. However, modern South Africa has a strong emerging black middle class, and many of them with historical rural area affiliations. Affirmative action policies by the South African government and related labour market opportunity equalization laws mean that young Black South Africans would aspire to a broader range of occupational choices than historically. Female student enrolment is South African higher education constitute 58% of the total students enrolments, an increase by nearly 20% in the past 20 years and as such females are increasingly major players on the labour market (CHE, 2013, Foko; 2015).

Historically, rural-urban migration was the norm for Black South Africans seeking careers in the towns. This means occupations in the cities were held in higher prestige than in the deprived rural areas. This may still be the case today, although the influence of historic influences on the present career orientations of young Black South African is a matter for study. Nonetheless, young Black South African from both urban and rural South Africa may be with similar career orientation. The same may hold for career orientation by gender. Patriarchal African culture perceives different careers for male and females. Males have support, resources and advantages for any career choice at their disposal, while women are directed towards teaching, service-related, clerical or secretarial career choices (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Urban, 2010). From an African perspective, the development of the self is linked to community, culture and the fulfilment of certain key roles (Nsamenang, 1992). Thus, gender socialization might make for differences in career orientations between female and male Black South Africans.

Research into gender-based discrimination in South Africa suggest that women face various employment barriers enough to discourage or restrict their career choices (Garg & Bhide, 2017; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010). As such, it does appear that gender does have a role to play during the career decision-making process of African emerging adults and it is worth exploring in the South African context. Moreover, young black adults from South African rural areas may lack in careers orientation from a lack of resources, role models, exposure to and relevant career information (DeLong, 1984; Kim & Cho, 2009). From previous research studies, it does seem that dwelling (geographical location) might have an influence on the career orientations of African emerging adults.

It is therefore important to identify and understand the links between gender, dwelling and career interests among young emerging adults in order to limit the difficulties they experience during the career decision-making process (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001).

3.1.3 Trends arising from the literature

This section briefly outlines the major trends identified in the research literature with regard to the links between gender, dwelling and career interests among black African emerging adults.

Research studies into emerging adulthood indicate that differences between groups, countries, socioeconomic status, race and ethnicity affect the way in which people experience this stage (Arnett, 1998, 2000; Trible, 2015). Hence, this study focused only on South African black emerging adults. During this stage, black African emerging adults are faced with multiple challenges ranging from a lack of career information and resources, to gender stereotypes and a lack of a clear career self-concept, all of which are factors that are essential for developing clear career interests (Kunnen, 2014; Trible, 2015). The current research focused on Schein's (2006) concept of career anchors as a description of the individual's career interests based on the career self-concept. Career interests develop from an early stage until the individual reaches the emerging adulthood stage. It is during this important stage that they have to crystallise their career interests and complete their career choices.

Some studies have reported that if individuals are able to conceptualise their own talents and abilities, basic values, motives and needs, they have identified their own career anchors, and thus have a clear self-concept (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016). However, others studies have indicated that African emerging adults do not have adequate resources or support the development of a clear self-concept (Maree, 2016). As such, among emerging black African adults, contextual factors have been found to be significant influential factors in their career interests (Abrahams, Jano, & Van Lill, 2015; Silva et al., Dutra, 2016; Ekore, 2014; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Tebele et al., 2015).

Contextual factors influence emerging adults' career choices in South Africa (Buthelezi et al., 2009). In addition, if they are not effectively managed, they can be barriers to the career choices available to black African emerging adults (Albien & Naidoo, in press; Buthelezi et al., 2009).

Gender (a sociocultural factor) and dwelling (geographical location) have a huge influence on the career development of the majority of South Africa's youth (Ortlepp et al., 2002; Stead & Watson, 1999), thus determining their career interests (Domenico & Jones, 2007). A Canadian study by Shepard and Marshall (2000) concluded that young rural-based adults, more especially women, have limited access to a wide variety of role models combining work and family, which limits their career interests. In addition, rural family members have been found to be significantly more traditional than urban family members, especially in gender role socialisation (Ekore, 2014; Shepard & Marshall, 2000).

Rural youth face reduced access to higher education, narrow school curricula and fewer programmes and services, and are deprived of the opportunity to observe a variety of role models, which might expose them to new thoughts and ideas. As such, studies by various scholars have shown that gender and dwelling are the major role players when it comes to young emerging adults' career decision-making processes (Callahan, 2017; Cleland et al., 2014; Hewitt, 2010; Matshabane, 2016; Mtemeri, 2017).

Evidently, from an early age, girls tend to opt for a narrow range of stereotypically feminine occupations, while boys tend to express their talents and select occupations that require a high level of challenge and achievement in various tasks (Correll, 2001; Jacobs 1995*a*; Madikizela & Haupt, 2010; Reskin, 1993; Tongeren-Alers et al., 2014). Young emerging adults from rural areas, especially females, experience the challenge of living in communities with limited job opportunities, and in addition, they have limited skills, lack finances and have few role models (Mudhovozi & Chireshe, 2012; Weishew & Penk, 1993).

The career choices of tertiary students from previously disadvantaged schools are negatively impacted by a lack of finance and career information, poor academic performance and unsatisfactory career counselling services (Bojuwoye & Mbanjwa, 2006; Maree, 2009; Maree & Beck, 2004; Shumba & Naong, 2012). It is therefore necessary to identify and understand the links between gender, dwelling and career interests among young emerging adults in order to limit the difficulties experienced in their career decision-making processes (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001).

Based on the literature review, the following hypotheses were empirically tested in this study.

- **H1:** There is a statistically significant positive relationship between the gender, dwelling and career interests of emerging African adults.

- **H2:** Gender and dwelling dimensions positively and significantly predict the career interests of emerging African adults.
- **H3:** Emerging adults from different age groups, gender and dwelling differ significantly with regard to their career interests.

3.1.4 Research objectives

The objectives of the research were formulated as follows:

- To empirically determine the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests (using the Career Orientations Inventory [COI]) of African emerging adults.
- To empirically determine whether gender and dwelling act as predictors of the career interests of African emerging adults.
- To determine whether the biographical variables of emerging adults from different age groups (moderator), gender and dwelling differ significantly with regard to their career interests.
- Based on the findings, to make recommendations for future research and the career counselling field of industrial and organisational psychology.

3.1.5 Value added by the study

The aim of this study was to explore the links between the demographics (gender and dwelling) and career interests of African black emerging adults.

There is currently a paucity of research on young emerging African adults exploring the differences in career interests those living in rural and urban areas and between males and females. Understanding whether gender and dwelling predict career interests and how these manifest in urban and rural areas, and for males and females, should enrich career development theory in the developing country context. Scholars have also emphasised the need to augment current career development theory with African-specific knowledge and insights (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016; Koekemoer, 2015; Maree, 2013).

3.1.6 To follow

The sections below explain the research design, approach and method used in this study. The results of the study are discussed, and this is followed by an interpretation of the findings,

a discussion of the limitations of the study and, finally, the conclusion. Recommendations are also made for possible further research.

3.2 RESEARCH REPORT

This section focuses on the research method followed, the participants in the study, the instruments utilised, the procedure followed and the statistical analysis conducted. The findings of the research are also discussed. The main conclusions drawn to confirm whether or not the objectives were met and the limitations of the study are explained, followed by practical recommendations.

3.2.1 Approach

A cross-sectional quantitative research design was applied in this study.

3.2.2 Research method

In this section, the process that was followed is clarified, and the statistical analysis and study results discussed.

3.2.2.1 Participants

The participants were third-year (final-year) students at a South African tertiary institution. The sample comprised a non-probability convenience sample of N = 159 third-year (final-year) students (black African emerging adults) at a South African tertiary institution (N = 159). Table 3.1 provides a summary of the frequencies per demographic category for the sample.

Table 3.1

Demographic Variable Characteristics of the Sample (N = 159)

Demographic variable	***Category***	***Frequency (N)***	***Percentage***
Sample	Total number	159	100%
Age	17 to 22 years	130	82%
	23 to 28 years	26	16%
	28 and above	3	2%
Gender	Male	59	37%
	Female	100	63%

Dwelling	Urban	68	43%
	Rural	91	57%

The sample was represented by young emerging adults aged between 17 and 22 years (82%), followed by those aged between 23 and 28 years (18%). The least represented age group was 28 and older (2%). Females comprised 63% of the sample and males 37%. Of the participants, 57% were from rural areas and 43% from urban areas.

3.2.2.2 Measuring instruments

To capture the demographic information, a biographical questionnaire was administered in order to gather data on age, gender and dwelling. The Career Orientations Inventory (COI), as explained below, was also administered.

The COI consists of the following eight career orientations measuring five items each: technical/functional competence (5 items, e.g. "*I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually*); general managerial competence (5 items, e.g. "*I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others*"); autonomy/independence (5 items, e.g. *"I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule*"); security/stability (5 items, e.g. "*Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy*"); entrepreneurial creativity (5 items, e.g. "*I am always on the lookout for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise*"); service/dedication to a cause (5 items, e.g. "*I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society*"); pure challenge (5 items, e.g. "*I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win out in situations that are extremely challenging*"); and lifestyle (5 items, e.g. "*I would rather leave my organisation than to be put in a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns*"). The five questions under each career orientation are measured on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from *1: never true for me* to *6: always true for me*. In terms of the present study, the following internal consistency reliability coefficients were obtained: technical/functional competence (0.45), general managerial competence (0.43), autonomy/independence (0.58), security/stability (0.68), entrepreneurial creativity (0.66), service/dedication to a cause (0.56), pure challenge (0.63) and lifestyle (0.44). South African research studies provide evidence that the COI is valid and reliable in South African multicultural samples (Coetzee, Schreuder, & Tladinyane, 2007; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). Custodio (2004) reported Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from 0.78 to 0.84,

while Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from 0.46 (lifestyle) to 0.85 (entrepreneurial creativity). The COI was used for this study because of its accessibility, validity and reliability in terms of the South African context.

3.2.2.3 Procedure

Ethical clearance and permission to conduct the study were obtained from both Unisa (ethical clearance to conduct research) and the Tshwane University of Technology (permission to collect data). Data was collected using the cross-sectional or once-off method. The cover page of the questionnaire was introductory in the sense that it provided details of the purpose of the study and clear instructions on completing the questionnaires. Data was collected by administering both the biographical questionnaire and the COI manually to the participants. The participants were invited to participate voluntarily and they signed informed consent form authorising the researcher to use their data for the purpose of the research only. Instructions were communicated clearly during the administration of the questionnaire. The researcher respected the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants at all times. Only the researcher and supervisor had access to the participants' responses. The data was captured on a password protected Excel spreadsheet, which only the researcher and supervisors had access to, and the anonymity of participants was ensured because only coded data was sent to the statistician.

3.2.2.4 Statistical analysis

The data was captured electronically using Microsoft Excel 2010, and analysed using the SAS System version 9.4 of 2013. The statistical analysis included descriptive statistics, namely internal consistency reliability coefficients, means and standard deviations (SDs), correlations and regression analysis.

Correlational statistics were calculated to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the three variables. Pearson's product-moment coefficient or correlation was used as a measure in this regard. It is denoted by *r*, and can range between -1 and +1. A value of *r* close to 0 implies that there is only a small association between the two variables, while a positive value of *r* means there is a positive association between the variables. Similarly, a negative value means there is a negative association (Winner, 2009). According to Steyn (2001), the strength of the linear relationship is determined by the absolute value of *p*, and a strong correlation between the variables does not imply a cause-effect relationship.

For this study, the significance value (level of significance in order to counter the probability of a type 1 error) was initially set at a 95% confidence level ($p \leq .05$).

Inferential statistics (multiple regressions) were performed, which included multiple regressions to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (career interests) that is explained by the independent variables (gender and dwelling), while controlling for person-centred variables (age). Multiple regression models were computed for each of the eight career interests (dependent variables) in order to assess the explanatory effects of gender and dwelling on the career interests of the sample of black African emerging adults. During the analysis, age was utilised as a control variable. Multiple regression analysis allows researchers to answer questions that consider the role(s) that multiple independent variables play in accounting for variance in a single dependent variable. The absolute values of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*) provide an indication of the practical effect size (Cohen et al., 2003). A small effect equals $r \leq .20$, a medium effect equals $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ and a large effect equals $r \geq .50$. For the purpose of this study, correlation coefficients of $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium effect) and larger were treated as practically significant regarding how the career interests of emerging black adults are influenced by their gender (male/female) or dwelling (urban/rural).

Tests for normality were conducted to assess whether parametric or non-parametric procedures should be used to test for significant mean differences. Based on the tests for normality, independent samples t-tests (parametric) were performed. The non-parametric Wilcoxon two-sample test was utilised to test whether there were differences in the career interests of males and females and dwelling groups. In order to counter the probability of a type 1 error occurring, the significance value was set at the 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0.05$). The practical effect-size index for the t-test of the difference between independent means is *d*, with the difference expressed in units of (i.e. divided by) the standard deviation within the population. The small, medium and large effect sizes are *d*: .20, .50 and .80.

3.3. RESULTS

This section indicates the descriptive statistics, correlations and the inferential statistical significance derived from the study.

3.3.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 3.2 summarises the internal consistency reliability coefficients statistics for the COI. The Cronbach alpha coefficient scores varied from .43 (low) to .68 (moderate) for the total sample (N = 150). The COI construct Cronbach alphas were all below .70, which is the required cut-off point for social research (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). This was anticipated, because the instrument that was used was unsuitable for the age group of the participants in the study – hence the exploratory nature of the study. The rather low internal consistency reliability coefficients were deemed a limitation in the interpretation of the results. However, owing to the exploratory nature of the group-based study and scarcity of research on the COI in the young emerging African adult context, the internal consistency reliability was deemed acceptable for research purposes. Out of eight constructs, only three were above .60 and were therefore acceptable for the purpose of exploratory research (Hair et al., 2010).

In terms of means and standard deviations, table 3.2 shows that the participants' overall results indicated a strong preference for the pure challenge (*M = 4.62; SD = .86*), service/dedication to a cause (*M = 4.59; SD = .88)*, and technical/functional (*M = 4.55; SD = .77*) career interests. The participants showed the least interest in general management (*M = 3.96; SD = .90*).

3.3.2 Correlations

Table 3.2 shows that the correlations between the COI constructs were all positive and significant at $p \leq 0.05$, with small to large practical effect. Service and dedication to a cause, and pure challenge ($r = 0.52$, large practical effect), and lifestyle and technical/functional ($r = 0.54$, large practical effect) were positively highly significant.

Table 3.2 further indicates that with the exception of the autonomy/independence career orientation, there were positive and significant correlations between gender and dwelling and career interests as measured by the COI ($r \geq 0.02$ to $r \leq 0.53$; $p \leq .05$; small to large practical effect).

Table 3.2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Variables	N	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Gender	159	1.63	0.49	-									
2	Dwelling	159	1.58	0.51	-									
3	Autonomy/independence	159	4.20	0.95	0.23	0.29	(0.58)							
4	Entrepreneurial creativity	159	4.53	1.01	0.048*	0.02*	0.38**	(0.66)						
5	General management	159	3.96	0.9	0.25***	0.03*	0.45**	0.34**	(0.43)					
6	Lifestyle	159	4.49	0.78	0.33***	0.28***	0.35**	0.27*	0.33**	(0.44)				
7	Service/dedication to a cause	159	4.59	0.88	0.9***	0.13**	0.43**	0.38**	0.34**	0.38**	(0.56)			
8	Pure challenge	159	4.62	0.86	0.12**	0.05**	0.30**	0.35**	0.28*	0.30**	0.52***	(0.63)		
9	Security/stability	159	4.47	0.98	0.22***	0.29***	0.25*	0.24*	0.26*	0.41**	0.23**	0.21*	(0.68)	
10	Technical and functional	159	4.55	0.77	0.53***	0.09***	0.41**	0.33*8	0.34**	0.54***	0.46**	0.43**	0.45**	(0.45)

Notes: N = 159. ****p* ≤ 0.001-statistically significant. *P* ≤ 0.01** -statistically significant. *P* ≤ 0.05* -statistically significant. Cronbach alpha coefficients shown in brackets.

3.3.3 Inferential statistics: Regression

This section on data analysis relates to the following research question: Do (1) gender and (2) dwelling positively and significantly explain the career interests of black emerging adults?

Table 3.3 summarises the regression analysis. Multiple regression analysis was performed to assess whether gender and dwelling significantly explained the variance in the participants' career interests. Age was also used as a control variable, based on Schein's (2006) premise that career orientations stabilise at the age of 30.

Table 3.3 shows that with gender as the independent variable, only one regression model was significant at p ≤ .05. Table 3.3 also indicates that the models explained 4% variance ($\boldsymbol{R^2}$ = .04; F*p* = .02; p≤ .05; moderate practical effect) with entrepreneurial creativity as the independent variable.

According to the data in table 3.3, with gender as the independent variable, there was only one significant regression model, with gender and entrepreneurial creativity at 4% variance (R^2 = .04; F*p* = .02; p ≤ .05; moderate practical effect),

Table 3.3 shows a significant regression model between dwelling and entrepreneurial creativity with 4% variance (R^2 = .04; F*p* = .02; p ≤ .05; moderate practical effect), between dwelling and general management with 3% variance (R^2 = .03; F*p* = .04; p ≤ .05; small practical effect), and between dwelling and service dedication to a cause with 3% variance (R^2 .03; F*p* = .05; p ≤ .05; small practical effect).

Table 3.3 depicts a significant regression model between dwelling and autonomy/independence with 2% variance (R^2 = .02; F*p* = .09; p ≤ .10; small practical effect) and between dwelling and pure challenge at 2% variance (R^2= .02; F*p* = .09; p ≤ .10; small practical effect).

To summarise: The model for the variance in entrepreneurial creativity and both gender and dwelling was of moderate effect. The models for variance between dwelling, as an independent variable, and general management, service dedication to a cause, autonomy/independence and pure challenge, were of small practical effect. As a control variable, age explained the variance in only service and dedication to a cause (β = 0.42; *p* =.02). Gender significantly explained the variance in entrepreneurial creativity (β = -0.30; *p* =.04), while dwelling explained the variance in general management (β = 0.15; *p* =.02) and service and dedication to a cause (β = 0.29; *p* =.04).

3.3.4 Inferential statistics: Test for significant mean differences

The cut-off points for the practical significance were d = .01 - .29 (small practical effect), d = .30 - .49 (medium practical effect) and d ≥ .50 (large practical effect). The non-parametric Wilcoxon two-sample test for significant mean differences was also performed to test whether the means scores for the career anchors were different for the different levels of the demographic variables, in order to answer the following question: Do differences exist in career interests for gender and dwelling groups? In order to counter the probability of a type 1 error, the significance value was set at the 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0.05$). However, owing to the relatively small sample size and the limited scope of this study, it was decided to use $p \leq .10$ as the cut-off point for interpreting the significance of the other applicable findings. The non-parametric test was chosen because the career ancho scales/constructs were found to be not normally distributed.

The demographic statistics showed that 130 participants were aged between 17 and 22, 26 between 23 and 28 and three 28 and older (total N = 159). In terms of dwelling, 91 of the participants were from rural areas and 68 from urban areas. In terms of gender, there were 100 female participants and 59 male participants.

3.3.4.1 *Significant mean differences: Gender*

The male participants also scored significantly higher than their female counterparts with regard to entrepreneurial creativity (male: mean = 4.75 vs female: mean = 4.40; d = 0.37; moderate practical effect) career interests.

3.3.4.2 *Significant mean differences: Dwelling*

Differences were observed between participants living in rural and urban areas with regard to entrepreneurial creativity (rural: mean = 4.68 vs urban: mean = 4.33; d = 0.35, moderate practical effect), general management (rural: mean = 4.10 vs urban: mean = 3.78; d = 0.36; moderate practical effect), pure challenge (rural: mean = 4.72 vs urban: mean = 4.49; d = 0.27; small practical effect), and technical/functional (rural: mean = 4.64 vs urban: mean = 4.44; d = 0.26; small practical effect) career interests.

In summary, the rural-based female emerging adults appeared to be more interested in entrepreneurial creativity than rural-based males and urban-based males and females. Rural-based female emerging adults had a greater interest in both general management and technical and functional careers, whereas rural-based males emerging adults had greater interest in pure challenge.

Table 3.3

Regression Analysis: Biographical Variables as Independent Variables and COI Constructs as Dependent Variables

	Autonomy/ independence			**Entrepreneur-ial creativity**			**General management**			**Lifestyle**			**Service/dedication to a cause**			**Pure challenge**			**Security/stability**			**Technical and functional**		
	β		*P*	*B*		*p*	*β*	*t*	*P*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*β*	*T*	*p*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Intercept	3.86	23.54	<.0001	4.48	26.03	<.0001	3.79	24.6	<.0001	4.28	31.57	<.0001	4.38	29.15	<.0001	4.5	30.63	<.0001	4.1	24.60	<.0001	4.30	32.38	<.0001
Age	0.32	1.61	0.11	0.29	1.40	0.16	0.32	1.71	0.08	0.19	1.14	0.26	0.42	2.31	0.02*	0.31	1.73	0.08**	0.33	1.60	0.11	0.26	1.63	0.10
Gender	0.21	1.34	0.18	-0.3	-2.05	0.04*	0.15	-0.9	0.36	0.13	1.00	0.32	-0.4	-0.29	0.78	-0.2	-1.16	0.24	0.17	1.07	0.28	0.08	0.68	0.50
Dwelling	0.26	1.69	0.09**	0.35	2.12	0.03*	0.15	2.39	0.02*	0.19	1.43	0.15	0.29	2.03	0.04*	0.2	1.86	0.06**	0.21	1.35	0.17	0.25	2.01	0.04*
Model info																								
F*p*	2.17		0.09**	3.38		0.02*	2.76		0.04*	1.27		0.29	2.64		0.05*	2.2		0.09**	1.68		0.17	2.02		0.11
Adjusted R^2	0.02*			0.04*			0.03*			0.005			0.03*			0.02*			0.01			0.01		

Notes: N = 159 *** $p \leq .001$ **$p \leq .01$ *$p \leq .05$

Table 3.4

Test for Significant Mean Differences: Gender and Dwelling

	Source of difference							**Wilcoxon two-sample test**			
			N	M	SD	Min	Max	Statistics	Z (1-sided)	p	Cohen (D)
Autonomy/independence	Age	17-22	130	4.15	0.95	1.20	6.00	2681.50	1.60	0.05	
		23 -28	26	4.45	0.94	2.00	6.00				
		28 >	3	4.33	1.21	3.20	5.60				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.28	0.99	2.00	6.00	5139.00	-1.05	0.15	
		Urban	68	4.10	0.90	2.00	5.60				
	Gender	Female	100	4.28	0.96	2.00	6.00	4389.50	-1.17	0.12	
		Male	59	4.07	0.93	1.20	6.00				
Entrepreneurial creativity	Age	17-22	130	4.51	0.98	1.60	6.00	2499.00	0.80	0.21	
		23 -28	26	4.70	1.16	2.00	6.00				
		28 >	3	4.07	1.10	3.00	5.20				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.68	0.98	1.60	6.00	4780.50	-2.30	0.01	0.35**
		Urban	68	4.33	1.03	2.00	6.00				
	Gender	Female	100	4.40	0.96	2.00	6.00	5276.00	1.2	0.02	0.37**
		Male	59	4.75	0.91	2.00	6.00				
General management	Age	17-22	130	3.93	0.90	1.80	6.00	2517.50	0.88	0.12	
		23 -28	26	4.18	0.91	2.80	5.80				
		28 >	3	3.67	0.95	2.60	4.40				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.10	0.91	1.80	6.00	4827.00	-2.13	0.02	0.36**
		Urban	68	3.78	0.86	2.20	5.80				
	Gender	Female	100	3.91	0.93	2.20	5.80	5038.50	1.14	0.13	
		Male	59	4.05	0.84	1.80	6.00				
Lifestyle	Age	17-22	130	4.46	0.79	2.60	6.00	2514.00	0.90	0.20	
		23 -28	26	4.68	0.75	3.40	6.00				
		28 >	3	4.20	0.40	3.80	4.60				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.55	0.79	2.60	6.00	5135.00	-1.06	0.14	
		Urban	68	4.42	0.77	2.60	6.00				
	Gender	Female	100	4.54	0.77	2.60	6.00	4449.00	-0.96	0.17	
		Male	59	4.41	0.79	2.60	6.00				
Service/dedication	Age	17-22	130	4.53	0.89	2.20	6.00	2789.50	2.10	0.02	
		23 -28	26	4.85	0.80	3.20	6.00				
		28 >	3	5.00	0.20	4.80	5.20				

	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.68	0.85	2.20	6.00	5014.50	-1.48	0.06	
		Urban	68	4.46	0.89	2.60	6.00				
	Gender	Female	100	4.58	0.90	2.60	6.00	4753.50	0.11	0.45	
		Male	59	4.61	0.85	2.20	6.00				
Pure challenge	Age	17-22	130	4.58	0.90	2.20	6.00	2496.00	0.80	0.21	
		23 -28	26	4.78	0.65	3.20	6.00				
		28 >	3	4.80	0.35	4.60	5.20				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.72	0.87	2.60	6.00	4893.00	-1.90	0.02	0.27*
		Urban	68	4.49	0.83	2.20	6.00				
	Gender	Female	100	4.56	0.79	2.20	6.00	5148.50	1.53	0.06	
		Male	59	4.72	0.95	2.60	6.00				
Security/stability	Age	17-22	130	4.42	1.00	1.60	6.00	2627.00	1.40	0.08	
		23 -28	26	4.78	0.80	3.20	6.00				
		28 >	3	4.27	1.29	2.80	5.20				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.53	1.01	1.60	6.00	5139.50	-1.04	0.14	
		Urban	68	4.39	0.95	1.60	6.00				
	Gender	Female	100	4.54	0.99	1.60	6.00	4381.00	-1.20	0.11	
		Male	59	4.36	0.97	1.60	6.00				
Technical function	Age	17-22	130	4.51	0.80	2.40	6.00	2586.50	1.20	0.11	
		23 -28	26	4.71	0.61	3.60	6.00				
		28 >	3	4.87	0.81	4.00	6.00				
	Dwelling	Rural	91	4.64	0.80	2.40	6.00	4955.00	-1.69	0.04	0.26*
		Urban	68	4.44	0.72	2.60	6.00				
	Gender	Female	100	4.58	0.78	2.60	6.00	4545.00	-0.62	0.30	
		Male	59	4.50	0.76	2.40	6.00				

3.3.5 Decisions regarding the research hypotheses

Table 3.5 below depict the decisions regarding the research hypotheses that the study aimed to test through the data analysis.

Table 3.5

Decisions regarding the research hypotheses

Hypothesis		
H1	There is a statistically significant positive relationship between gender, dwelling and the career interests of emerging African adults.	Yes (With the exception of the autonomy/independence career orientation, positive and significant correlations between gender and dwelling and the career interests as measured by the COI ($r \geq 0.02$ to $r \leq 0.53$; $p \leq .05$; small to large practical effect).
H2	Gender and dwelling dimensions positively and significantly predict the career interests of emerging African adults.	Yes (gender predicts EC) Dwelling predicts EC, GM, SD and PC)
H3	Emerging adults of different ages and gender and with different dwellings differ significantly with regard to their career interests.	Yes (Males scored higher than females on EC and the rural participants scored higher than the urban participants on EC.)

3.4 DISCUSSION

The aims of this study were as follows: Firstly, to explore the links between gender, dwelling and career interests; secondly, to explore whether gender (male/female) and dwelling (rural/urban) act as predictors of career interests; and thirdly, to determine whether participants of different genders and from different geographical areas differ significantly in terms of their career interests.

3.4.1 The biographical sample profile

The sample comprised third-level students at a tertiary institution in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. The samples of only black students were predominantly represented by females,

from rural areas and participants between the ages of 17 and 23. The samples represented emerging adults in the career stage, which compels them to make career choices based on their career interests. These emerging adults were in the stage in which individuals need to make lifelong career decisions, which will ultimately define their adult lives. To make appropriate career choices, these young emerging adults need a solid foundation of a career self-concept. The lack of a clear career self-concept may influence individuals' career interests negatively, because they develop according to the context in which individual grow up or live, such as rural or urban and gender stereotypes, which seem to prevail in rural areas (Bandura et al., 2001; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994).

A mean score of three equals *occasionally true,* while a mean score of four equals *often true for me* on the COI. Service dedication to a cause was found to have the highest mean score on age, followed by technical and functional, by participants aged 28 and older. Entrepreneurial creativity was found to the have highest mean scores for gender, followed by pure challenge, in both instances, the males scoring higher than the females. Entrepreneurial creativity, general management, technical and functional and pure challenge were all found to have the highest mean scores for dwelling, and in all instances, the rural participants scored higher than their urban counterparts. Considering the fact that majority of the participants were rural-based females, the implications of these results are that older emerging adults are highly interested in service dedication to a cause and technical and functional careers. Other implications are that males prefer entrepreneurial and challenging careers compared to females, and lastly, rural-based participants prefer entrepreneurial careers more than urban-based female participants.

Males tend to have stronger interest in entrepreneurial creativity careers or dominant careers compared to females (Diale, 2017; Mahadea, 2001; Morgan et al., 2015). This might be due to the gender stereotypes imposed by the African culture, parents and communities or the competitive nature of an entrepreneurial career, while females tend to be more sensitive and accommodating. Participants exhibiting the entrepreneurial creativity anchor demonstrated a desire to innovate and create something from an idea (Schein, 1978). In rural areas where there are limited access and resources to a variety of careers, individuals may become entrepreneurial because they recognise and embrace the need for change and innovation and they are motivated by it. An assumption can thus be made that the disadvantaged individuals are more likely to venture into business because of their unfavourable contextual factors compared to people with socioeconomic advantages. Schein (1996) proposed that this anchor may not be fulfilled by the working environment, but instead suggested that individuals anchored in entrepreneurial creativity may be able to find a way to fulfil this need through an

out-of-work activity or hobby. As people age, they become more interested in making a valuable contribution to their workplaces and generally the environment they live in. Such people value fairness and ethics and want their community values to be matched by the values and policies of their organisation. If these values are matched, they are likely to exhibit a high level of passion for their work and loyalty to their organisation. Schein (1996) suggests those with the sense of service anchor should be involved in organisational policy making as they will feel successful if their contributions to society are recognised.

3.4.2 The relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests

This section discusses the relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests.

The results showed a strong relationship between the gender and dwelling dimensions and some career interests/anchors. Gender showed a strong relationship with entrepreneurial creativity and a significant but weak relationship with general management, lifestyle, service dedication to a cause, pure challenge, security/stability and technical and functional career interests. However, the results indicated that there was no empirical correlation between gender and the autonomy/independence career interest. The findings are in line with previous research indicating the existence of a relationship between gender and the entrepreneurial creativity career anchor, with males showing more interest in these dominant career anchor than females (Morgan et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2014).

Dwelling showed a strong relationship with entrepreneurial creativity, general management, service dedication to a cause and technical and functional career interests. In terms of the relationship between dwelling and entrepreneurial creativity, the findings suggested that rural-based emerging adults would be more likely to be interested in starting and operating their own business than urban-based emerging adults. A positive factor in support of entrepreneurship in rural areas is that such areas have lower production and labour costs, as well as effective environmental resources (Joo, 2011). Rural-based emerging adults might wish to own a business as a means to a better life, because of the difficult socioeconomic life they experience. Hence they might hypothetically express the desire to own a business, rather than actually owning one, because people who ultimately start their own business are more likely to live in urban and well-developed areas (Duricova, 2014).

Rural-based emerging adults showed a stronger interest in general managerial careers than urban-based emerging adults. Rural-based emerging adults typically experience a difficult childhood marred by poverty and a lack of job opportunities, and as such, they might associate

a position of power and influence with more money to live a comfortable life (Schein, 1996). These findings contradict those in the existing literature, which indicates that individuals in rural areas are more anchored in security/stability and technical and functional careers (DeLong, 1984), not general managerial careers.

Rural-based emerging adults showed a strong interest in serving others and making a valuable contribution to society. This is notable in existing research studies (Hancock, Steinbach, & Nesbitt et al., 2009; Isaac, Walters, & McLachlan, 2015; Somers, Jolly, & Strasser, 2011; Somers & Spencer, 2012).

Lastly, rural-based emerging adults showed a strong interest in technical/functional careers. These findings are corroborated by existing research, which indicates that rural-based individuals face the challenge of living in communities that depend more on natural resource industries such as farming, mining and construction – hence their interest in technical and functional careers (McGranahan, 1988; Shepard & Marshall, 2000).

3.4.3 Gender and dwelling dimensions act as predictors of career interests

The research explored whether individuals' context or geographical location as well as their gender could act as predictors of career interests. It was anticipated that both gender and dwelling would act as predictors of career interests.

The results show that out of all career anchors, gender can only be used to predict entrepreneurial creativity, with small practical effect. These findings also support those in the existing literature that show that gender differences lead to different career interests, more specifically in relation to entrepreneurial career interests (Williams, Grobler, & Grobler 2014; Morgan, De Bruin, & De Bruin, 2015).

The results also indicate that dwelling can be used to predict, with small practical effect, entrepreneurial creativity, general management, service dedication to a cause, and technical and functional career interests, even though the urban-based participants responded more favourably to entrepreneurial creativity and service dedication to a cause. Regarding dwelling and entrepreneurial creativity, the findings are mainly due to the rural context, which might make young adults in rural areas turn their hobbies into self-employment or a business, when they see no other realistic employment options in their area (Joo, 2011). *The moderate practical effect* is evident in research studies that found that urban-based individuals are entrepreneurial because of relevant role models, information and resources that inspire them

to think of becoming business owners (thus aspiring to a managerial position), compared to rural-based emerging adults (Kim & Cho, 2009; Stead & Watson, 1999). According to Schein (1996), service-oriented people are driven more by how they can help other people than by using their talents. They may work in public services or areas where they assist or interact with humans. The only role models rural-based emerging adults are exposed to in their communities are nurses, teachers or the police, all of which are service-oriented careers (Matshabane, 2016). Once again, urban-based individuals may consider serving their communities because of the high poverty levels they see or experience around the country, and with adequate financial background and less pressure to provide for oneself, urban-based emerging adults may opt for such a career as a calling rather than as a career. The strong interest in this type of career can also be explained by the fact that parents, teachers and close community members are strong influencers in career choices (Kniveton, 2004; Nyamwenge, 2016). As the context dictates, the career interests of rural-based emerging adults may gravitate towards a technical career available in their proximity because of an apparent lack of other options in the rural areas in which they reside (Kim & Cho, 2009; Kniveton, 2004).

3.4.4 Significant differences between the biographical groups

This section explains the differences between the participants' demographic variables (age, gender and dwelling) that this study explored in relation to their influence on career interests.

3.4.4.1 Age

The entire sample (N = 159 participants) comprised all emerging adults aged between 17 and 30 years. However, the 17 to 22 age group accounted for 82% (N = 130), the 23 to 28 age group for 18% (N = 26) and the group older than 28 for 2% (N = 3). The age demographics were only used as a control variable in this study and the differences accounted well for final-year students who were the participants.

For autonomy/independence, the highest mean was for the 23 to 28 age group (*M* = 4.45), and highest standard deviation was for the 28 and older age group (*M* = 1.21). The lowest mean was for the 17 to 22 age group (*M* =4.15), and lowest standard deviation for the 23 to 28 age group (*M* = 0.94). For entrepreneurial creativity, the 23 to 28 age group had the highest mean (*M* = 4.70) and standard deviation (*SD* = 1.16), and the 28 and older age group had the lowest mean (*M* = 4.07), while the 17 to 22 age group had the lowest standard deviation (*SD* = 0.98). For the *general management a*ge group, the 23 to 28 age group had the highest mean

(*M* = 4.18), while the 28 and older group had the highest standard deviation and lowest mean (*M* = 3.67; *SD* = 0.95), and the 17 to 22 age group had the lowest standard deviation (*SD* = 0.90). For lifestyle, the 17 to 22 age group had the highest standard deviation (*SD* = 0.79), while the 23 to 28 age group had the highest mean (*M* = 4.68). The older than 28 age group had both the lowest mean and standard deviation (*M* = 4.20; *SD* = 0.40). For service dedication to a cause, the scores for 17 to 22 age group were *M* = 4.53, and *SD* = 0.89), the 23 to 28 age group scored *M* = 4.85 and *SD* = 0.80. The older than 28 age group 28 had the highest mean and lowest standard deviation (*M*=5.00; *SD*=0.20). For pure challenge, the 17 to 22 age group had the highest standard deviation (M = 4.58; SD = 0.90), the 23 to 28 age group scored M = 4.78 and SD = 0.65), and the 28 and older age group had the highest mean (M = 4.80; SD = 0.35). For security/stability, the 23 to 28 age group had the highest mean (M = 4.78; SD = 0.80), while the older than 28 age group had the highest standard deviation (M = 4.27;SD = 1.29), whereas the 17 to 22 age group had M = 4.42 and SD = 1.00. Lastly, for technical and functional, the 17 to 22 age group had M = 4.51 and SD = 0.80), the 23 to 28 age group had M = 4.71 and SD = 0.61), and the older than 28 group had the highest mean and standard deviation (M = 4.87; SD = 0.81). *However, no significant mean differences were observed for all the age groups with regard to their career interests.* Research studies, however, have found that young adults in their late teen years and early twenties might be highly interested in enjoying their freedom and escaping the constraints of their daily routine. However, when they grow up and have more responsibilities, they become more serious and thus focus on challenging and entrepreneurial and technical careers (Oosthuizen, Coetzee & Mntonintshi, 2014). Other studies have also found that emerging adults tend to be inclined towards service/dedication career interests from the age of 26 to 30 (Bezuidenhout, Grobler, & Rudolph, 2013).

3.4.4.2 Gender

Of the total number of participants (N = 159), 63% were females and 37% males. The only significant mean differences were found for gender and entrepreneurial creativity. The male participants scored significantly higher than their female counterparts for the entrepreneurial creativity career interest (male: mean = 4.75 vs female: mean = 4.40; *d* =0.37; moderate practical effect). Studies have reported that females always opt for family-friendly or lifestyle careers, while males tend to choose more ambitious careers such as striving for the highest managerial achievement/technical/ functional competence (Morgan, de Bruin, & De Bruin, 2015; Williams, Grobler, & Grobler 2014).

3.4.4.3 Dwelling

Of the 159 participants, 57% were from rural areas and 43% from urban areas. Differences were observed between participants living the rural and urban areas with regard to the following career interests: entrepreneurial creativity (rural: mean = 4.68 vs urban: mean = 4.33; *d* = 0.35, moderate practical effect); general management (rural: mean = 4.10 vs urban: mean = 3.78; *d* = 0.36; moderate practical effect); pure challenge (rural: mean = 4.72 vs urban: mean = 4.49; *d* = 0.27; small practical effect); and technical/functional (rural: mean = 4.64 vs urban: mean = 4.44; *d* = 0.26; small practical effect). Young adults in rural areas might be pushed into self-employment if they see no other realistic employment options in their area or to work hard when an opportunity arises (Kim & Cho 2009). In contrast, individuals from urban areas are expected to have entrepreneurial career intentions in comparison with their rural counterparts who lack such exposure, experience and role models (Kothari, 2013). Differences have been reported in terms of career anchors between rural- and urban-based educators (DeLong, 1984; Poole, Langan-Fox, & Omodei, 1991) in terms of general management, with rural educators showing more interest than urban educators.

3.5 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following section deals with the conclusions and limitations of the study, and makes recommendations for possible further research. Chapter 4 discusses these in more detail.

3.5.1 Conclusions

The findings of this study highlight the importance of both gender and dwelling and the influence they have on career interests, orientations, and ultimately the career choices of emerging African adults.

The results showed that there is an empirical correlation between all subscales of the COI, despite the nature of the sample used (young emerging adults aged 17 to 30), whereas the COI is intended for people above the age of 30 with adequate exposure to the work environment. These findings are in line with existing South African studies that provide evidence that the COI is valid and reliable in South African multicultural samples (Coetzee, Schreuder, & Tladinyane, 2007; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009) and have Cronbach alpha

reliability coefficients ranging from 0.46 (lifestyle) to 0.85 (entrepreneurial creativity) (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008).

The results also indicated that gender predicts entrepreneurial creativity, whereby males showed more interest in it than females, but with the females responding more favourably than the males. These findings are in line with existing research studies that indicate that males seem to prefer dominant career interests such as entrepreneurial creativity more than females (Morgan et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2014). However, although the females scored lower than the males for entrepreneurial creativity career interest, the findings suggest that they do have some interest in being entrepreneurial. Previous research also indicates that females have a high preference for entrepreneurship as a career choice (Urban, 2010).

According to the results, dwelling predicts career interests such as entrepreneurial creativity, general management and service dedication to a cause and technical function, with the rural-based participants showing more interest than urban-based participants in all career interests, even though urban participants responded more favourably to entrepreneurial creativity and service dedication to a cause.

Regarding dwelling and entrepreneurial creativity and general management, the findings were mainly concerned with the rural context, which might compel young adults in rural areas turn their hobbies into self-employment or a business when they see no other realistic employment options in their area – that is, being in a managerial position (Joo, 2011). In contrast, individuals from urban areas are expected to have entrepreneurial career intentions in comparison with their rural counterparts who lack such exposure, experience, and role models (Kothari, 2013). Differences were found in terms of career anchors between rural and urban-based educators (DeLong, 1984; Poole, Langan-Fox & Omodei, 1991) in terms of general management, with rural educators showing more interest than urban educators.

According to Schein (1996), service-oriented people are driven more by how they can help others than by using their talents. They may work in public service or in areas where they assist or interact with humans. The only role models rural-based emerging adults are exposed to in their communities are nurses, teachers or the police, all of which are service-oriented careers (Matshabane, 2016). Once again, urban-based individuals may consider serving their communities because of the high poverty levels they see or experience around the country, and with adequate financial background and less pressure to provide for themselves, urban-based emerging adults may opt for such career as a calling rather than a career. The strong interest in this type of career can also be explained by the fact that parents, teachers and close

community members are strong influencers in career choices (Kniveton, 2004; Nyamwenge, 2016). Since the context dictates career interests, the rural-based emerging adults may revert to the technical careers available in their areas because of the lack of other options (Bassey, 2004; Kim & Cho, 2009; Kniveton, 2004).

The findings of this study should contribute new knowledge to the field of industrial and organisational psychology, to the humanistic-existential and positivist research paradigms, and to emerging adults' career development and counselling/guidance practices. Therefore, understanding how gender and dwelling contribute to the formation of career interests can help career counsellors to cater more specifically for African and female emerging adults as part of their assessments in career counselling and guidance.

The conclusions drawn here will be discussed in more detail in chapter 4.

3.5.2 Limitations

An exploratory study means that there is limited research or no research studies in the field. Hence limitations in an exploratory study are inevitable.. There is no previous research on African emerging adulthood in South Africa, only research in overseas countries and on other race groups. The data collection in the current study was limited to one tertiary institution in one field of study and confined to one race group only, which resulted in the sample being too small for the findings to be generalised across all tertiary institutions. Even though the sample size was small, only $p \leq .05$ was used as a value for interpreting significant findings. As a result, the other findings would have been significant, and crucial findings between dwelling and both autonomy/independence and pure challenge were omitted and could have been included if $p \leq .10$ had been used as an additional value for interpreting significant findings. The sample was not equally represented by the different biographical groups for age, gender and race and was also not proportionally represented by the South African population with regard to age, gender and race group. The questionnaire that was used was designed for older individuals (above 30 years of age) with work experience, and not tertiary students under the age of 30, with no work experience. This might have influenced the understanding of the instrument. Given the nature of the sample whose predominant language was not English, but other South African languages, some participants may have had difficulty understanding all the items in the instrument used.

Despite the above limitations, the results of this study highlighted the relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests. The results also underscored the difference between males/females and rural/urban biographical variables in relation to their links with career interests. The current study could therefore be used as a basis for understanding the relationship between the gender, dwelling and career interests, and the difference between the male/females and rural/urban biographical groups, and as such, be included in and considered during career counselling and guidance practices.

3.5.3 Recommendations for future research

The recommendations will be discussed in detail in chapter 4. Only the main recommendations are touched on in this section.

The findings revealed the relationship between gender and career interests and between dwelling and career interests, and the effects that both gender and dwelling have on career interests of African emerging adults. Future research should be conducted to support the current findings and the associations that were evident between gender and career interests and dwelling and career interests. In future studies, larger samples could be used and the research expanded to other tertiary institutions to provide a better representation of all biographical groups in South Africa. Future studies should use other South African instruments suitable for measuring the career orientations of emerging adults in order to make the results more rigorous..

It is therefore recommended that further studies be conducted in a similar context to stimulate more participation and to address some of the limitations indicated above. These findings on possible predictions of the effect of gender and dwelling on career interests warrant further exploration in order to determine the influence of cultural stereotypes, lack of self-knowledge, poor role models, lack of career-related information and opportunities, and lack of access to tertiary institutions on career counselling and guidance practices and career development in general.

It is also recommended that further research be conducted to expand the depth of this study on African emerging adults in relation to career counselling and guidance practices in order to promote a more detailed and holistic understanding.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this article, the defining aspects of the literature and the empirical studies were discussed, focusing on age, gender, dwelling and COI career orientations, with the career interests of African emerging adults as an aspect of career counselling and guidance practices. The methods and research process used in the study were discussed, and this was followed by the presentation of the results, the analysis and interpretation of the results and the conclusions drawn, highlighting the recommendations and possible limitations. Chapter 4 provides an in-depth discussion of the conclusions and the study limitations, while the practical implementation of the recommendations is also be indicated.

CHAPTER 4
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the conclusions of the research study and follows the research methodology indicated in chapter 1. The literature and the empirical conclusions are first highlighted. The limitations of the literature review and the empirical results are then discussed. Recommendations are made for assisting black emerging adults in developing a clear self-concept and ultimately identifying career interests to help them make appropriate career choices. In conclusion, recommendations are specifically made for the field of career counselling in industrial and organisational psychology.

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

This section focuses on the formulation of research conclusions relating to the literature review and the empirical study.

4.1.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The main aim of this research was to explore the links between gender, dwelling and the career interests of African emerging adults, and to examine whether gender or/and dwelling could positively predict their career interests and determine the degree of the influence.

The main aim was achieved through the following specific aims:

4.1.1.1 Aim 1: To conceptualise the construct of career interests and explore through the literature review the influence of age (emerging adulthood), dwelling and gender on individuals' career interests.

The first aim was achieved in chapter 2 (the literature review of career interests, gender and dwelling).

For the purpose of this study, career interests were defined and approached from the perspective of Schein's (1978) career anchors theory. A career anchor is something that develops over time, evolves into a self-concept, shaping an individual's personal identity or self-image, and includes talents or skills, motives or needs and attitudes or values (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Coetzee et al. 2007; Schein, 1978, 2006). Career anchors are measured

using the Career Orientation Inventory (COI). There are eight career anchors or categories, namely (1) security/stability; (2) autonomy/independence; (3) lifestyle integration; (4) sense of service/dedication to a cause; (5) pure challenge; (6) managerial competence; (7) technical and functional competence; and (8) entrepreneurial creativity. However, Bandura et al (2001) concluded that the context in which a person grows up influences his or her career interests.

The SCCT also posits that contextual factors such as gender and geographical location play a major role during the emerging adulthood stage (17 to 30 years), when adults develop career interests and have to make career decisions (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2002). During this age, most African emerging adults lack the ability to independently make career decisions, and are easily influenced by various factors around them. With the adequate development of a career self-concept, the effects of the contextual factors can be minimised. However, research studies indicate that African emerging adults lack a self-concept owing to the inadequate career counselling and guidance services provided in the rural or township schools.

There is evidence to suggest that geographical residence (i.e. urban versus rural) may influence young adults' career interests or orientations and self-concepts (Bandura et al., 2001; Maite, 2005; Miles & Naidoo, 2017; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Watson, McMahon, Foxcroft, & Els, 2010).

The patriarchal African culture perceives different careers for male and females. Males have support, resources and advantages for any career choice at their disposal, while women tend to be guided towards teaching, service-related, clerical or secretarial career choices (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004; Madikizela & Haupt, 2009; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Matshabane, 2016; Urban, 2010). From an African perspective, the development of the self is linked to community, culture and the fulfilment of certain key roles (Nsamenang, 1992). Thus, gender socialisation might make a difference in the career orientations of female and male black South Africans.

4.1.1.2 Aim 2:To theoretically identify the implications of the relationship between the career interests of emerging adults, gender and dwelling for career development theory and practice

According to Nyamwange (2016), the career decision-making process is fairly difficult.. It is a difficult and complex process because various factors are involved. Factors such as such as social contacts, role models, the availability of resources such as information and finances, globalisation, ethnic background, level of educational attainment, choice of subjects of study and differences in job characteristics (Bandura et al., 2001) play a huge role in confusing any person attempting to make a career choice. More specifically, the process is more complex

for emerging adults because they tend to have a wider scope of possible activities and experiences than individuals in other age periods (Arnett, 2000). Researchers identified emerging adulthood stage of between 18-25-29 years of age, as the most turbulent years during which an individual is no longer in the adolescent stage, but is also not yet an adult. As such, they experience confusion, while attempting possible careers and experimenting in order to make a suitable lifelong career choice (Arnett, 2016; Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs & Mensele, 2016).

Developing a self-concept is a major challenge for African emerging adults, if they are to independently develop solid career interests (Schein, 2006). The ability to make appropriate career choices in the midst of various contextual factors does not only make for a lifetime of career satisfaction, but also ensures past employment disparities are minimised and individuals are able to enter into any career they choose. This should ultimately reduce the high unemployment rates in South Africa.

Career choice is a crucial step in the life of young emerging black adults (Mareer, 2016). Owing to the importance of making the right career choice, it is imperative that emerging adults become aware of the impact of cultural (gender stereotypes) and contextual (dwelling) on their career decision-making process. Schein (2006) concluded that the responsibility of career management falls on the individual himself or herself, and in order to make the right choices, self-insight is required. Self-insight or a self-concept can be achieved through career guidance programmes. However, career guidance at previously disadvantaged schools is still under-resourced and under-emphasised (Miles, 2015), 20 years into South Africa's democracy. Moreover, township or rural-based schools do not have life orientation teachers who are qualified and experienced to provide career guidance (Du Toit, 2010), leaving learners unprepared to navigate their career exploration on their own when they reach tertiary levels. Even programmes such as the 2010 Nelson Mandela Career Guidance Campaign that targeted rural-based schools imparting information on tertiary institutions, courses and training opportunities, financial aid and bursary schemes, did not make a significant difference (Abrahams, Jano, & Van Lill, 2015). Inadequate career guidance is a major problem for black emerging adults when they have to make career decisions (Dodge & Welderufael, 2014). Owing to the lack of career guidance, such individuals are bound to base their decisions on situational/environmental factors and not on their personality (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

4.1.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study

To indicate the relationship between gender, dwelling and the career interests of African emerging adult, this study endeavoured to achieve the following four empirical aims:

1. To empirically explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests of African emerging adults. This aim was achieved by empirically testing hypothesis 1 (H1).
2. To empirically explore whether gender and dwelling act as predictors of career interests This aim was achieved by empirically testing hypothesis 2 (H2).
3. To explore whether males and females, and individuals living in rural and urban dwellings differ significantly regarding their career interests This aim was achieved by empirically testing hypothesis 3 (H3).
4. Based on the findings, to make recommendations for future research and the career counselling field of industrial and organisational psychology

The empirical conclusions are indicated below:

4.1.2.1 To empirically explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the empirical relationship between gender, dwelling and the career interests of African emerging adults

This aim was achieved by empirically testing hypothesis 1 (H1). The following conclusion was drawn:

The results showed that there is an empirical correlation between all the subscales of the COI, despite the nature of the sample used (young emerging adults aged between 17 and 30), whereas the COI is intended for people above the age of 30 with adequate exposure to work environment.

4.1.2.2 To empirically determine whether gender and dwelling act as predictors of the career interests of African emerging adults

This aim was achieved by empirically testing hypothesis 2 (H2). The following conclusion was drawn:

The results indicated that there are empirical correlations between gender and career interests and between dwelling and career interests. More specifically, empirical correlations were found between gender and entrepreneurial creativity, in that the male participants showed a great interest in entrepreneurial creativity than their female counterparts, but with the latter responding more favourably than the male participants. The results also indicated empirical correlations between dwelling and entrepreneurial creativity, general management and service dedication to a cause and technical function, with the rural-based participants showing greater interest than the urban-based participants in all career interests, even though the urban-based participants responded more favourably to entrepreneurial creativity and service dedication to a cause.

4.1.2.3 To explore whether males and females, and individuals living in rural and urban dwellings differ significantly regarding their career interests

This aim was achieved by empirically testing hypothesis 3 (H3). The following conclusions were drawn:

1. The results indicated that the male respondents appeared to be more interested in entrepreneurial creativity than the female respondents, but with the latter responding more favourably than their male counterparts.
2. The rural-based participants had more interest than the urban-based participants in entrepreneurial creativity career interests, even though the urban participants responded more favourably to entrepreneurial creativity and service dedication to a cause.
3. The rural-based participants had a greater interest than the urban-based participants in general management career interests.
4. The rural-based participants had a greater interest than the urban-based participants in service dedication to a cause, with the older (28 and older) emerging adults scoring more favourably than the other age groups.
5. The rural-based participants had a greater interest than the urban-based participants in technical function career interests.

4.1.2.4 Based on the findings, to make recommendations for future research and the career-counselling field of industrial and organisational psychology.

This aim is addressed in this chapter. The following recommendation was formulated:

The study revealed that both gender and dwelling have an influence on the career interests of African emerging adults. As such, future studies (as highlighted in section 4.3) should use other South African instruments that are suitable to measure the career orientations of emerging adults. The sample was drawn from only one South African higher education institution and the findings cannot be generalised to all black South African emerging adults. Further research studies on larger samples are required. Furthermore, given the cross-sectional nature of the study, no causal inferences could be made between variables.

4.2 LIMITATIONS

A number of limitations came to the fore in the literature review and the empirical study. These are discussed as below.

4.2.1 Limitations of the literature review

- There is a paucity of research on gender and dwelling and their links with the career interests of African emerging adults.
- No research studies were found on the career interests of emerging adults as measured by the COI.
- Most of the studies conducted involved the career choices of students and high school learners, as opposed to their career interests/orientations.

4.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study

- The sample that was used was too small for the research findings to be generalised to all young African emerging adults in tertiary institutions. This minimises the generalisability of the findings across the education sector.
- Since the study was also conducted at one tertiary institution and in one sector, it cannot be generalised to other tertiary institution in the education sector.
- The usable sample did not equally represent the different biographical groups (age, gender, race and dwelling) and also did not proportionally represent the South African population in terms of age, gender and race groups.
- The questionnaire that was used was designed for older individuals above the age of 30, with work experience, and not for tertiary students with no work experience who are younger than the age of 30, which might have influenced the participants' understanding of the instrument.

- For this study, the significance value (level of significance in order to counter the probability of a type 1 error) was initially set at the 95% confidence level ($p \leq .05$). However, even though the sample size was small and the dissertation of limited scope, it was decided not to use $p \leq .10$ as an additional value for interpreting significant findings.
- Although the total reliability of the COI was high and above the accepted .60 in social research, the five career anchor subscales of the COI were below the .60 guideline.
- Given the nature of the sample whose predominant language was not English, but other South African languages, some participants may have had difficulty in understanding all the items in the instrument.

Despite the above limitations, the results of this study highlight the relationship between gender, dwelling and career interests. The results also underscore the difference between males/females and rural/urban biographical variables in relation to their links with career interests. The current study could therefore be used as a basis for understanding the relationship between the gender, dwelling and career interests, and the difference between the male/female and rural/urban biographical groups in order to be included and considered during career counselling, and guidance practices.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

4.3.1 Recommendations for the development of appropriate career interests among black emerging adults

- Rural-based schools should support African emerging adults by offering adequate career counselling and guidance services to enhance their self-awareness, self-knowledge or self-concept.
- Parents, teachers and schools should refrain from encouraging males and females enter certain careers, thus perpetuating gender stereotypes.
- Rural-based schools should hold career fairs to make emerging adults aware of other careers.
- Career counsellors should include in their reporting and feedback the influence that gender and dwelling might have on the career interests of African emerging adults.
- It is recommended that further research be conducted to extend the depth of this study on African emerging adults in relation to career counselling and guidance practices to provide a more detailed and holistic understanding.

4.3.2 Future research

- Future research should be conducted to support the current findings and the associations that were reported between gender and career interests and dwelling and career interests.
- In future studies, larger samples could be used and the research extended to other tertiary institutions for a better representation of all the biographical groups in South Africa.
- Future studies could use other South African instruments suitable for measuring the career orientations of emerging adults to ensure that the results are more rigorous.
- It is therefore recommended that further studies be conducted in a similar context to encourage more participation and to address some of the limitations indicated above.
- Future research should be conducted with other races and other tertiary institutions included so that the findings can be generalised to a broader spectrum.

4.4 INTEGRATION OF THE STUDY

In conclusion, the study found significant correlations between gender, dwelling and career interests and between the COI constructs. The findings indicated that gender does in fact contribute to explaining the variance in entrepreneurial creativity career interests, while dwelling contributes to explaining the variance in entrepreneurial creativity, general management, service dedication to a cause, and technical and functional career interests. In addition, the biographical variables of gender and dwelling, contribute to explaining of the variance in career interests.

Taking into consideration the difficulties experienced by emerging African adults in developing career interests and ultimately making career decisions, as well as the socioeconomic and sociodemographic influences they live and grow up with, the results of this study should be heeded in order to improve emerging adults' self-concept, thus facilitating the career-decision making process of African emerging adults. Government, in conjunction with rural-based schools, should provide strategic career counselling and guidance services in schools to prevent young adults from making incorrect career decisions, which is detrimental not only to them, but to the country as a whole with its high unemployment rate.

It can thus be concluded that the findings of this study could inspire future research on the influences of gender and dwelling on the career interests of African emerging adults. This

study should make a contribution to the field of industrial and organisational psychology, as well as to emerging adulthood theory, career interests, career counselling and development in the education sector.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter covered the conclusions based on both the literature review and the empirical study, and also elaborated on the limitations arising from both the literature review and the empirical study. In conclusion, recommendations were made for the development of appropriate career interests among black emerging adults. Suggestions were made for possible future research studies on the factors affecting career interests among black emerging adults. This chapter concludes the study.

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