A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL CAREER GUIDANCE ON CAREER REALISATION BY SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

By

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DECLARATION

I, Constance Chifamba, declare that this thesis is my own independent work with guidance from my supervisors and that it has not been submitted for a degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my beloved husband and friend, Enock Chifamba; and my four sons, Daniel, Timothy, Emmanuel and Blessing.
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First and foremost I praise God, The Almighty, for His loving kindness that sustained me throughout my studies.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to compare two approaches to career guidance, formal and non-formal career guidance, so as to improve guidance programmes and raise career satisfaction and career realisation level of employees. A causal comparative survey was conducted in Harare. The researcher purposefully selected 93 participants, then employees in four different employing institutions at the time the research was conducted. The basis for the selection of the research participants is that they had gone through Ordinary level education at a secondary school in Zimbabwe where they were influenced by either of the two or both types of career guidance. Each participant completed a 45-item, closed form questionnaire indicating his/her perceptions about the career guidance he/she had received and how satisfied they felt about their careers. The results were analysed using SPSS, 20.0. A Chi-square Test was carried out to compare the relative strengths of the two major sources of influence, formal and non-formal career guidance. The focus of the Chi-square test was on comparing the observed and expected numbers of participants influenced by each of the sources of career guidance. The Chi-square test results indicated that there is a significant difference in the strengths of the influences of the two groups. A One-Way Analysis of Variance was carried out to compare the means of career realisation levels of the groups under study. The ANOVA results indicated that there was no significant difference between the career realisation levels of employees influenced by formal career guidance and those influenced by non-formal career guidance. Although formal career guidance seemed less convincing to attract many students, it seems to be associated with relatively higher career realisation levels because it provides relevant career information to the students before they make the career decisions. On the other hand, non-formal career guidance attracted almost half of the participants mainly because it provides sustainable financial and social support to the student during this transition period between school and employment. However, non-formal career guidance was associated with the limitation of lack of relevant information on career awareness and other career preparatory information. The participants influenced by non-formal career guidance reported relatively lower career realisation levels. About one third of the participants reported to have been influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance and they indicated that they experience moderately high career realisation levels. This research study has shed more light as to why some employees seem not satisfied with their careers. Either they did not directly participate in choosing the career (as in the case of formal career guidance) or they selected the career before they had adequate information about the career (as in non-formal career guidance). The study indicated that there are strengths and weaknesses associated with each of the two approaches of providing career guidance. Adopting the strengths of each of these approaches is likely to maximize the career realisation levels of more students. From the findings of this study the researcher recommends that a collaboration of the two (formal and non-formal career guidance) be implemented in order for most students to achieve optimal career realisation levels when they enter their careers.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASHA: American Speech-language and Hearing Association

ANOVA: Analysis of variance

SPSS: Statistical Packages for Social Sciences

CDU: Curriculum Development Unit (Zimbabwe)

CG: Career Guidance

C. Score: Career Realisation Score

F: Formal career guidance

N/F: Non-formal career guidance

OECD: Organisation of Economic and Co-operation Development

B: Both formal and non-formal career guidance
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**DEFINITION OF TERMS**

**Career:** Course or way of making a livelihood and advancing oneself.

**Careers Day:** A day when a school invites specialists on different careers to promote these careers before the students.

**Career Education:** Planned educational experiences that facilitate an individual’s career development.

**Career Guidance:** The activities carried out by a career guidance officer in a school setting assisting the student to develop self-awareness, career orientation, career-planning, developing employability skills, providing career information and developing skills in decision making.

**Career Development:** This is part of human development which involves self development viewed in relation to orientation, choice, entry and progress in educational pursuits.

**Career realisation:** Apprehension of the reality of one’s career and finding fulfilment within one’s career.

**Formal career guidance:** Career guidance offered in a systematic way according to a curriculum that follows a structured procedure by careers officer, counsellor or by a school or institution.

**Non-formal career guidance:** Type of career guidance given out-of-school by non-formal sources especially familial sources such as parents, relatives, guardians, etc.

**Job:** Piece of work, especially done for hire or profit.
**Occupation:** A regular job or employment, business or calling or the work one does to earn a living.

**Vocation:** A career, occupation, employment, trade or profession one feels divinely called to do.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the study by describing the background, statement of problem and the purpose of the research. It also outlines the research objectives, states the hypotheses and explains the justification and significance of the study. Next, the delimitations and limitations of the study are discussed and lastly the conceptual frameworks that underpin the study are explained.

Several researches (Bloomberg, 1984; Ipaye, 1996; Singh, 2005; Chiresh and Mapfumo, 2005; Davidson, 2009; Desai, 2012, Dietsche, 2013) have indicated that formal career guidance (teachers and administrators) and non-formal career guidance (parents and familial individuals) are the most influential sources of influence for secondary school students during the period of career decision making.

Many young employees seem not satisfied with their first-choice-career. This is evident in the way a lot of people keep on changing from one career to another until they are very close to retiring. Studies in America indicate that “Ten years after graduation about 80% of college/university graduates are working in careers that are completely unrelated to the careers they seriously considered as they trained in College or University” (Your Career 1983, p. 7). Other studies in Africa by Ipaye (1996) also concur with this observation as he noted that many employees seem not satisfied with the realities of their career as compared to their expectations. What the students thought they knew about some exciting career (when they chose to train for it)
is quite different from the real career, it is like a mirage. Ipaye (1996) also points out that the glamour of some occupations that may seem very attractive eventually turns out to be an illusion.

Murwira (1997, p. 9) asserted that careers may no longer be chosen on a trial and error basis as in the past, for time is precious. No-one would like to waste four or five years training for a career that one could abandon after five or ten years because of career dissatisfaction. Desai (2012) pointed out that investment in training goes unrealized, as youth drop out of training, or complete training, but then do not enter the career they have been trained for simply because they later realize a there is a stigma associated with that career.

Studies in western countries indicate that many young people may not make definite occupational choices and career plans as used to be done before. Bessert, Crozier and Claudio (1989, p. 12) observed that career counsellors now talk of “occupational-half lives” because the training required for a specific occupation will become obsolete in four to five years. As a result some people end up with 7-9 jobs in a lifetime. This shows that job dissatisfaction and career dissatisfaction are increasing. Other studies in Asia indicate that career indecision is increasing. When asked what their plans for their future were, over 85% of the college students interviewed responded; “I have not thought about it yet” (Rao, 2000, p. 190). This implies that these young employees may have to shift to another career after training for their first one. Gothard (1985) observed that young people change careers more frequently than adults on a voluntary basis, the most cited reason being career dissatisfaction.

Chuenyane (1990) posits that such tenuous career choices seem to stem from poor career awareness or a mere lack of career awareness. Making career decisions without adequate career
guidance may result in lack of career satisfaction and low career realisation. Dissatisfied employees are a big liability to their employer and they bring losses to the industry because they do not perform at their optimum. They are a disappointment to the school that provided them with formal career guidance, they cause heartaches to the parents that provided them with financial support in school and training and they are also frustrated in their careers. Consequently, such individuals with career mismatch will have less job satisfaction, less motivation, less upward mobility and low career realisation. This is a great challenge which many people are facing now.

Time is precious, no one wants to waste 3-5 years training for a career they will later abandon. Without adequate career guidance, Shumba (1995) observed that some pupils will aspire for nonexistent or obsolete careers and end up being frustrated. Therefore adequate counselling is essential so as to avoid frustrations.

1.1 Background to the study

The process of choosing a career is a challenging task to many young people, yet it needs to be done very carefully because one’s career determines one’s lifestyle and economic prospects (Desai, 2012). Hence many researches have been done to make the transition from school to work smoother. In 1908, Frank Parsons (Desai, 2012) well known as the father of vocational guidance, thought of how to assist young people get the most out of their career decisions. According to Parsons, cited in Desai (2012), it is not enough to guide our children through primary and secondary schools then leave them to sink or swim during the time of transition from school to work. Frank Parson thought of spanning the gap of making a smooth transition from school to work. He started working with young people (in Boston) at career decision
making stage soon after secondary school. Parsons believed that ideal career choices are based on matching personal traits (aptitude, abilities, resources, personality) with job fact (wages, environment, etc) to produce the best condition of vocational success (Desai, 2012).

Of late, there has been a shift towards formalising the process of career decision making (Chireshe and Mapfumo, 2005; Fowkes, 2007; Desai, 2012; Kerka, 2000). Although there seems to be some resistance to the implementation of formal career guidance the trend to formalise career guidance is increasing. Formal career guidance was implemented indirectly in Zimbabwe as early as 1960s when the educational system was geared to cater for students of differing abilities by streamlining students into either of two major pathways: the F1 schools (for students specialising in academic subjects) and F2 schools (for students specialising in practical subjects). This method of career preparation faced a lot of criticism and resistance from parents, teachers, churches and pupils as they believed that a career in non-academic subjects meant less employment prospects (Zvobgo, 2000, p. 26). This approach to streamlining students into these pathways was also associated with the colonial attitudes. The other major reason for the resentment of this method is that it was based on the schools’ discretion and had no input from the student or the parent.

In 1987 formal career guidance was introduced in secondary schools in Zimbabwe. This is part of the Guidance and Counselling syllabus. Most secondary schools are implementing this program although there are few schools (especially rural schools) still facing challenges of not having qualified manpower (Chireshe & Mapfumo, 2005). Schools have been assisting students in providing formal career guidance through the selection of subjects (based on students’ abilities and interests). This has been augmented by organising programmes such as Careers Day or
Career Fair day or they hold a Careers Symposium. This exposes students to the different career options available.

Does the implementation of formal career guidance imply that non-formal career guidance is no longer relevant or needed? Although formal career guidance has been introduced in secondary schools in Zimbabwe since 1987, most students still depend on non-formal career guidance sources (Mapfumo and Chiresh; 2005; Mutekwe and Modiba, 2012). This concurs with findings of similar researches in other countries (Ipaye, 1996; Singh, 2005; Bloomberg, 1984; Davidson, 2009). Ali and Graham (1992) state that “careers guidance is no longer an exclusive preserve of careers officers only” (p. 2). There are other significant stakeholders that are worth involving in the career guidance process. Stakeholders that provide non-formal career guidance include the familial and extra-familial factors (early childhood experiences, father’s influence, mother’s influence, guardian, peers, mentors, etc.). These non-formal stakeholders provide the background music while the school (formal career guidance) plays the leading role. Although the relative importance of the specific roles of the various stakeholders may differ, none should be ignored. Non-involvement of either one may have negative ripple effects on the career satisfaction and career realisation of the student when employed (Desai, 2012, Zaidi and Iqbal, 2012).

Modern research has indicated that involvement of the key stakeholders is the key to effective career guidance (Davidson 2009; Ali and Graham 1992; 1986; Singh, 2005, Herr and Cramer, 1972). This may involve collaboration of these stakeholders and an integration of the best of their strategies. According to the integrative theory of overlapping spheres “families and schools are most effective if they have an overlapping or shared goals and responsibility” (Epstein, as cited by Davidson, 2009; Lemmer, 2007).
Although the selection of subjects is mostly a prerogative of the school, other stakeholders such as parents may need to be consulted (Nziramasanga, Commission, 1999). In addition to this, the student needs to be actively involved also in the initial stages of career decision making such as subject selection in secondary school. Non-involvement of the student is associated with poor career-interest match which may result in poor career satisfaction (Zaidi & Iqbal, 2011). Because adolescents are at the stage of establishing their identity, generally most of them desire to have autonomy, even in career decisions. They have the “do it yourself mentality.” They want to choose their career with as little formal guidance as possible. This could be stemming from current a wave of modern career development theories of the late 20th century which posit that adolescents can now make informed career decisions on their own as long as they have access to adequate career information (Dietsche, 2013). Probably this is because the media is flooded with career advertisements. By just clicking the right website one can have an array of careers to choose from. However, having information alone is not enough for the student. What most adolescents need is the counsel on how to use that information to make the right career decisions. Other researchers have indicated that information alone is not enough; the young adolescents need guidance (Davidson, 2009, Ipaye, 1996; Singh, 2005). There is still need for both formal and non-formal career guidance.

This idea of involving the school, the pupil and the parent is also clearly stated in the Nziramasanga Commission (1999) which emphasises the necessity for pupils to be guided in order to make successful career choices. This Commission suggests making use of achievement records, teachers’ assessments, pupil’s interests, pupil’s choice and parents’ choice in guiding the student in making the ultimate career choice (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999, pp. 256, 257).
Thus, on one hand, the schools assist the students in subject selection, helping students develop self awareness and providing career awareness. On the other hand, parents and guardians, as interested stakeholders, provide the financial, moral and social support needed by the student especially during the time of transition from school to career training. The student is not expected to just a passive recipient, but he/she should be actively involved in the ultimate career decision so that he/she owns the decision.

Formal career guidance is very essential because schools have achievement records and also know the general entry requirements for different careers. Parental support and involvement in career guidance are crucial because the parents know their child better, live with him/her longer and may continue to do so even after career training. Does formal or non-formal career guidance result in better career realisation? Or does collaboration of both the formal and non-formal career guidance methods offer optimal career realisation to the student? This study sought to find answers to these questions.

1.2 Statement of problem
Students need to have adequate guidance in their selection of subjects so that there is a smooth link between their subject selection at secondary school, their interests, abilities, personality and their ultimate career choice. The research sought to find out which approach of providing career guidance results in the best career decisions and the highest levels of career realisation. Inadequate career guidance may lead to poor career selection and ultimately less career realisation. The researcher’s concern was to find out if there is a significant difference in career realisation levels of students who receive formal career guidance and those students who receive non-formal career guidance during their secondary school years. Inadequate guidance in the
choice of a career may lead to frustration and poor career realisation. Which of these common types of career guidance will result in optimum career realisation? Is there a significant difference in the career realisation levels, whether the students are influenced by formal or non-formal career guidance?

1.3 Purpose of study
The main goal of this study was to critically compare the influence of formal and non-formal career guidance on career realisation of former secondary school students when they join the employment workforce. This will help the researcher to find out which of these two approaches to career guidance is more effective.

1.4 Research objectives
The researcher’s objectives are to;

1. find out whether formal career guidance (career guidance teachers and school administration) in secondary schools influences the ultimate career choice of the secondary school student;
2. establish whether non-formal career guidance (parents, guardians, relatives, mentors and sponsors) influences the ultimate career choice of the secondary school student;
3. compare former students’ perceptions on the relationship between career guidance and career satisfaction so as to understand what they consider to be necessary for one to attain career realisation;
4. find out the relationship between the degree of career realisation (score) with other indicators associated with career realisation in order to affirm that career realisation is multidimensional and
5. compare career realisation levels of students (then employees) who were influenced by formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their ultimate choice of a career.

1.5 Research hypotheses

The researcher worked with one main hypothesis and 3 subsidiary hypotheses.

1.5.1 Main hypothesis

H_0: There is no significant difference in the career realisation level (at 0.05 level of significance) between students who were influenced by formal, by non-formal or by both formal and non-formal career guidance.

H_1 There is a significant difference in the career realisation level (at 0.05 level of significance) between students who were influenced by formal, those influenced by non-formal or those influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance.

1.5.2 Other subsidiary hypotheses

1. H2: There is no significant difference (at 0.05 level of significance) in the expected and observed number of students who are influenced by formal, those influenced by non-formal and those influenced by both types of career guidance in choosing a career.

2. H3: There is no significant difference in the perceptions about career satisfaction of students who were influenced by formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their career decisions.
3. H4: There is no significant relationship between career realisation score with other career realisation indicators.

1.6 Justification of study

Many students graduate from secondary school and high school before they are really mature enough to develop career self-efficacy. Rao, (2000) asserts that more than 85% of college students he interviewed about their future career plans indicated that they had not made serious thought about it. Some of them seem unable to reconcile what they thought they knew about a career when they chose it with the actual realities they face when they complete career training and get employed (Ipaye 1996). They seem to enter into a career before they know the details of the work environment and work expectations so that when faced with the shock of the actual work environment they retreat or change to another career. As they flounder from one career to another they may not excel or experience upward mobility so they end up unemployable or employed but still frustrated with low career realisation. According to Ipaye (1996) lack of proper career guidance is considered one of the major causes of unemployment today.

Another contributing cause of frustrations in young employees is a mismatch of one’s career with their abilities and personality. Delayed exposure to career guidance may lead some adolescents to end up in careers which may not be of their first choice. This may be simply because they do not have the expected subjects according to the entry requirements for their desired career so they end up qualifying for a career which may not suit their personality. Research by Mutungwe, Tsvere, Dondo and Mumanyi (2010) indicates that most students felt that career guidance was introduced in secondary schools a bit late, at Form 3, when some of them had already dropped critical subjects such as mathematics. By early secondary school,
Form 1 and 2 levels, most students have a general idea of what career they may want to pursue in life, but they may not know the subjects needed as entry requirements. By Form 3 students may be channelled into pathways based on abilities according to the school career guidance plan (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999). Some may receive their career guidance from their parents or peers, who may not know the entry requirements to certain careers (Ipaye, 1996). Most young people later discover that they have landed into a wrong career and as a result they become less useful to the community, unemployable or employed yet frustrated (Ipaye, 1996).

There is need to link what the students learn in school, at home, or via the media about different careers with the real, practical careers in the work environment. Students need to have enough exposure to different careers if they are to experience career satisfaction and career realisation (Shumba, 1995; Ipaye, 1996; Singh, 2005). With the growing complexity in technology, there is great need to provide adequate career guidance to every adolescent. Singh (2005) observes that although we are surrounded by technology and information, some young adolescents are bombarded with irrelevant information while others have none at all. The frustrations of the mismatched employee or the overly challenged or under challenged worker are disadvantageous to both the employee and the employer. Many youths choose jobs with which they are quickly dissatisfied and eventually they experience frustrations at the expense of their employers. One reason for this mismatch could be inadequate career preparation.

Adequate career preparation begins with early childhood socialization, especially by parents, followed by informal exposure to different careers in primary school textbooks, then finally shaped and consolidated by the formal career guidance lessons in secondary school (Mutekwe &
Throughout the lifespan, the individual is enshrouded by formal and non-formal career guidance from different sources. Out of these sources of career guidance the school and the parents exert the major influence particularly during the adolescent years, especially in the subject selection process and the post-secondary school period, transitioning from school to work. Several researches indicate that both the school and the family may influence adolescents career choices directly and indirectly (Bloomberg, 1984; Singh, 2005; Davidson, 2009; Mudholovi and Chireshe, 2012).

Are these sources providing adequate career guidance for each student to be able to make informed career decisions? Ipaye (1996) observed that many schools leave their students and the latter’s parents rush unguided to choose subjects without careful consideration of the student’s ability, aptitude, interests, personality and the possible career of aspiration. Due to defective or inadequate career guidance many potential university students cannot pursue the careers of their aspiration. Desai (2012) asserts that even in developed countries the growing concern is that the current approaches to career guidance are inadequate.

We are living in a global village where the media takes over and fills the gaps, fulfilling those roles where the home or the school is deficient. In the event that career guidance is delayed or inadequate, the child may get inadequate information from the media. Information from the media is less useful without adult career guidance. To curb this Desai (2012) suggests a social inclusion approach that involves partnering of the relevant stakeholders.

In some cases the formal career guidance they receive at school may be contrary to the career guidance they receive at home (non-formal), hence the student finds himself/herself in a
dilemma. This too may result in frustrations as the child may not want to offend neither the parents nor the school. Eventually he/she may enter a career to please the parents or the teachers. This will neither give the student career satisfaction nor have him/her experience career realisation.

On the other hand, the parents may assume that it is the role of the school to provide career guidance and leave everything to the school or the school may also decide to leave everything to the parents. There is also a possibility of leaving a gap between the formal career guidance and the non-formal career guidance; this puts the student in a dilemma as he/she may remain with some grey areas about the world of work. Both the school and the home are important in career guidance; however there should be clear-cut roles so as to avoid frustrations on the part of the student when he/she is employed.

1.7 Significance of the study
This study focused on comparing the relative effectiveness of the major sources of influence on the secondary school student during career decision making. These main sources are classified as formal and non-formal career guidance. This research is of great significance to schools, parents, students and even to the economy of the nation. It is hoped that at the end this study may help to:

- assist schools to refine their career guidance strategies;
- help the student in understanding his/her role as an active participant in career decision making;
- enable students develop self awareness (their abilities, aptitudes, interests, values and personality) and consider these in the process of choosing a career instead of them being passively fitted into career moulds;
benefit employing organisations by reducing employee turnover, increase performance and reduce training expenses;

improve parental involvement in their children’s career guidance by suggesting ways of equipping them with the relevant skills and resources and to

maximise employee’s career satisfaction and ultimately experiencing a high degree of career realisation by assisting them into a career of best match.

Several studies in different countries indicate that effective career guidance has the objective of minimizing or reducing expenses and frustrations (Singh, 2005, p. 73).

This research may have some economic advantages. Industries and other employing institutions will benefit by reducing staff turn-over rate. The longer an employee sticks to a job, the greater the efficiency and the greater the productivity. The job performance of individuals who are satisfied with their careers is relatively higher than those who are dissatisfied with their career (Zaman, 2008 cited in Zaidi & Iqbal, 2011). Effective career guidance may also reduce the rate of unemployment. Ipaye (1996) observed that among the major causes of unemployment in Nigeria is inadequate career guidance. Desai (2012) made similar observations in his studies in Asian communities. Career guidance could help to develop both career awareness and self awareness in students so that they improve the match between supply and demand by helping people to search for a better fit between their talents and qualifications and available work opportunities. The researcher believes that even here in Zimbabwe unemployment could be reduced through such interventions.
1.8 Delimitations

This research was carried out at four employing institutions in Harare (Zimbabwe), industrial organisation, educational institutions (two schools), health institution and business organisation.

1.9 Limitations

Time was the major limitation in this study. Due to the nature of the research type, a causal comparative research looks at the causes after the effects have been observed. This means the data collected required that the participants report on sources of influence in career decision. This is meant they needed to recall events that happened perhaps a decade or so in the past. In such cases the data collected may not be very accurate. However, the researcher assumed that these factors have a similar effect on all the participants. Another major limitation to this study is the dearth of literature with current information on the subject. Local literature on formal and non-formal career guidance is scarce.

1.10 Conceptual framework

Several theories address the issue of career development and career guidance. Each has its merits and demerits. Holland’s person-environment-fit theory (Desai, 2012: Melgosa, 2001) emphasizes that for individuals to attain maximum career satisfaction there is need for a close match between one’s personality and his/her career. On the other hand, Hoppock’s composite theory (Hoppock, n.y.) is based on the principle that careers are chosen to meet the individual’s needs (physical, physiological, belonging and self esteem). He argues that a career that gives the individual maximum satisfaction is that which best meets the individual’s present needs and promises to meet his/her future needs. Optimal career satisfaction is a result of a strong congruence between career motivators and employees’ expectations. It is from this perspective that this study is
informed by two theories: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Huffman, 2002) and Epstein’s model of overlapping spheres (Harvard Family Research Project; 2000).

These two theories explain the “WHAT” and “WHO” of career guidance. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs articulates the goals of effective career guidance; it must meet the individual’s needs (physical, physiological, belonging and self esteem needs). For an individual to experience career realisation, all the lower level needs should have been met. A career that gives career realisation should go beyond just meeting basic needs. Such a career should help the employee feel a sense of belonging, by making provision for socialising and appreciation of the employee by his colleagues; his/her subordinates as well as his/her superiors. Hence the researcher draws much from Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs.

Other studies on employee satisfaction by Fredrick Herzberg (Motivation-Hygiene theory) discuss factors that motivate employees so they attain job and career satisfaction. Herzberg’s Motivation-Hygiene theory draws from Maslow’s hierarchy of needs dividing it into two, the intrinsic (motivators) factors such as opportunities for achievement, growth and personal development and the extrinsic (hygiene) factors such as salaries, job security, working condition etc (Kasambira, 1998, p. 64).

Career realisation goes beyond mere satisfaction with a close career-personality match. As pointed out by Hoppock, (n.y) a career that gives the individual maximum satisfaction is that which best meets the individual’s present needs and promises to meet his/her future needs. Comparing all these theorists perspective of career satisfaction Maslow articulates the concept of
career realisation in the best way because he focuses on how meeting the individual’s various needs at each level will lead to career satisfaction and consequently to actualisation.

1.10.1 Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

According to Maslow’s pyramid of hierarchy of needs, basic physical necessities must be satisfied before higher level needs are addressed (Huffman, 2002, p. 427). Hence a career can be described as fulfilling actualisation needs if it satisfies basic physiological, safety, belonging and esteem needs first. The individual will only experience career realisation at the highest level, when all his basic needs are met. Hence the career that best meets his needs will most probably ensure career satisfaction and consequently career realisation. This is illustrated on (Figure 1.1) the next page.

![Figure 1.1 Pyramid of Career Success: As it relates to Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs. (Adapted from Huffman, 2002:427)]
Legend:

E. = MOTIVATORS + CONGRUENCY BETWEEN CAREER WITH ABILITIES, PERSONALITY, APTITUDES AND INTERESTS

D. = JOB SATISFACTION

C. = CAREER SATISFACTION

B. = SENSE OF ACHIEVEMENT

A. = ACTUALISATION (CAREER REALISATION)

1.10.2 Epstein’s overlapping spheres of influence

Epstein’s (1987) model of overlapping spheres (which involves both the home and the school as these key stakeholders) is a good model to adopt when it comes to providing career guidance. This is illustrated in Figure 1.2.
Figure 1.2 Epstein’s Model of Overlapping Spheres of Influence. (Adapted from Harvard Family Research Project; 2000)

The child is at the centre in the model (figure 1.2); it is the central focus of the three overlapping spheres of influence to shape the developing child. Collaboration of both the home (parent) and the school is necessary; as well as the active involvement of the child (student). Davidson (2009) argues that collaboration between the school and the parents provides career information to parents. This could sharpen the parents’ career guidance skills as they assist and support their child during the career decision making process. This in turn may enhance the young adolescent’s chances of career success. The idea of involving the school, the parents and the
child concurs with the Nziramasanga Commission (1999) plan, which describes the role of the school as that of assisting the child with subject selection and that the final career decision should be made by the parent and the child. Usually this ends up leaving a gap, during the transition period from school to career training.

According to Singh (2005) young people today are living in a complex world with extremes. Some are bombarded with excessive irrelevant information on career guidance while others have none at all. In either case, they are in a dilemma. Although the pre-requisite for career decision-making is availability of information, young adolescents cannot make informed decisions without guidance. Though some researchers believe that secondary school are in the ideal position to provide career guidance (Singh, 2005), other researchers (Davidson, 2009; Dempsey, 2004; Bloomberg, 1984; Kerka, 2000; Lemmer, 20007; Nziramasanga Commission, 2009) argue that there is need for schools to involve others, especially the parents and the student. Hence the Epstein’s Model (1987) of “Overlapping Spheres of influence” explains out who the key stakeholders are when it comes to career decisions; these are the home (parents), the school and the community at large.

Schools have their plan for the child’s possible career options based on the child’s abilities, which they may never see fulfilled, because the child is now away from school, parents assume they can give adequate guidance. On the other hand, parents may have a different plan for their child, in their ignorance of the link between subjects and career, the parents may be planning a career for their child yet the child may not have the correct entry requirements for that career.
This frustrates both the child and the parents. This research seeks to find a way of spanning this gap so as to maximize the student’s career satisfaction when he/she is employed.

This chapter covers the introduction, background to the study, the research problem, research objectives and the hypotheses of this research study. In addition it also gives the justification for carrying out this study and describes the conceptual framework from which this research draws. The second chapter covers the review of related literature and the third chapter describes the research design and methodologies. Chapter 4 presents the research findings and their analyses. In Chapter 5 the implications of the research findings are discussed and recommendations are made.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter the researcher looks at the history and goals of career guidance. The chapter also discusses how the need for career guidance led to the development of theories of career guidance. Lastly the researcher also discusses how the major sources of influence, schools and the family contribute in providing career guidance to the adolescent.

The process of choosing a career has drawn a lot of attention lately from parents, employing institutions, educators and psychologists. Ipaye (1986, p. 127) notes that “What children will be when they grow up has been a matter of intense interest to mothers, teachers and to some extent, manpower planners.” As professional specialisation has increased it has also become necessary to have specialised, formal career guidance coupled with the efforts of non-formal career guidance. As observed by Ali and Graham (1992, p. 2) “Careers guidance is no longer an exclusive preserve of careers officers only.” Even employing institutions seem to be concerned. Isaacson (1985, p. 31) points out that “Attempts have rarely been made to gauge the economic and psychological costs sustained by both individuals and society as a result of inadequate or ineffective career planning ... for human labour is a perishable commodity, in a sense, work not done today is lost forever.” Although the modern scholar may leave school with volumes of information it has generally been observed that the majority of them fail to link what they have learnt at school with what they meet in the world of work and some of them have not developed skills that make them employable. Gibson and Mitchell (1981, p. 21) outlined some observations
from the Office of Career Education of the United States, from which the researcher picked the following as of significance to our career counselling system in Zimbabwe;

- too many persons who are leaving the educational system are deficient in the basic academic skills required for adaptability in today’s rapidly changing society,

- American education generally meets the needs of the minority of persons who will someday be college graduates while ignoring the majority who may land into other professions,

- American Education has not kept up with the rapidity of change in the post-industrial occupational society. As a result when worker qualifications are compared with job requirements we find over-educated and under-educated workers are present in large numbers. Both the boredom of the over-educated worker and the frustration of the under-educated worker have contributed to the presence of worker alienation in the total occupational society,

Observations by other educators in the general trends in the field of career development necessitated the implementation of career guidance in secondary schools. Examples of such observations are;

- career dissatisfaction is rising. Ten years after graduation about 80% of college/university graduates are working in careers that are completely unrelated to the careers they seriously considered as they trained in College or University (Your Career, 1983, p. 7).
career indecision seems common among adolescent students. When asked what their plans for their future plans; over 85% of the college students interviewed responded; “I have not thought about it yet” (Rao, 2000, p. 190). This indicates poor career self-efficacy; it implies that they may have to shift to another career after training for their first one,

people no longer believe one career will assure them career satisfaction. They are leaving the single career approach and going for a dual or tri-career approach when it comes to career preparation. “Increasing numbers of college/university students are taking double majors these days. They figure that two fields of study are better than one when it comes to career opportunities in today’s tight job market (Your Career, 1983, p. 128).

While this could be said of America, Europe or Asia, it is fast catching up with African countries, including Zimbabwe. Definitely, career guidance is imperative, as Ipaye (1986, p. 144) observed: If pupils are left unguided, they are prone to choosing careers without first relating them directly to their interests, abilities, aptitudes and talents or even considering the working conditions. The Nziramasanga Commission (1999) stressed the need for pupils to be adequately guided to ensure that they make proper and satisfying career choices. The increasing complexity in the world of work makes it very necessary to provide students with relevant career education, career guidance and an orientation to the world of work. This, to some extent will buffer them against the destabilization from the rapid changes taking place, prepare them for real life experience in the world of work, put them on the cutting edge, save them from the frustrations that come with poor career choice, and ultimately help them find career realisation. Gibson and Mitchell (1981, p. 217) argue that the popular old sayings such as; “One-world- one career” or
“one man- one career” and “men only” or “women only” no longer apply in career planning in this fast changing world. Evidence is mounting that the single career norm within the American workforce may soon become a phenomenon of the past. The competition for jobs is becoming stiff. People are now going the dual- or tri-career direction, so that if the demand is lower in their first option career, they can still be marketable on the other. This direction, if done without proper guidance and counselling, will still result in frustrations, less job satisfaction and most probably no career realisation. Sometimes the young people are so ill-informed about the trends that they aspire for some courses which might no longer be marketable.

2.2 Career guidance: A working definition

Career guidance comprises of services intended to assist people, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers. Career guidance includes career education, career counselling, employment counselling, job placement and career information. In brief, it involves services that help individuals successfully manage their career development (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981; Tolbert, 1980; Desai, 2012). Earlier theories focused on such services under the term vocational guidance. Of late the term “career guidance” is used interchangeably with or replacing the term vocational guidance (Desai, 2012). Vocational guidance was narrower, focussing mainly on the choice of occupation. On the other hand career guidance is more comprehensive, focusing on choices of courses of study that lead to an informed and satisfactory career choice. Thus career guidance links learning with work. Career guidance can be defined as “services and activities intended to assist individuals of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers” (Organisation for
Economic and Cooperation Development, OECD, 2004). However, in this research a simplified working definition of career guidance is: a process of assisting an individual in career preparation by helping him/her develop self awareness, career awareness and career decision making skills that will land him/her in a satisfactory career. The key concept about career guidance is that it involves three major processes (self awareness, career awareness and career decision making skills) whose effectiveness is measured by the presence or absence of the desired outcome, career satisfaction and ultimately career realisation.

2.3. Origin of career guidance

The origin of career education dates back to 1908. It began with Frank Parsons (1905-1997), ‘father of vocational guidance’, who was interested in helping young people interested in vocational training. Frank Parsons organized the Boston Vocational Bureau (1908), to provide vocational assistance to young people and to train teachers to serve as vocational counSELLors (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981, p. 8). According to Parsons’ ‘trait-factor theory’, “an ideal career choice should be based on matching personal traits such as abilities and personality, with job characteristics such as wages, requirements, prospects and so forth, through true reasoning. This is more likely to ensure vocational success” (Desai, 2012). Parsons focused on three areas, outlined by Gibson and Mitchell (1981, p. 8) as follows;

- Personal investigation
- Industrial investigation and
- The organisation and the work

This still forms the general basis of career guidance programme, be it formal or non-formal. Personal investigation is currently addressed as self-awareness, industrial investigation; the
organisation and work are included in career awareness in the modern career guidance programme. The additional dimension added in most modern career guidance programmes is career decision making skills. The strength of Parsons’ Trait factor theory is in its emphasis of two important aspects of career guidance; self-awareness of the client, and career awareness of the counsellor so as to provide adequate guidance to the client (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981, p. 9).

In the 1970s the need for formalising career guidance was felt urgently. The Career Education Movement started in United States of America. This was spearheaded by Dr. Sidney P. Marland Junior. In 1971 Sidney P. Marland Junior (then Commissioner of Education) emphasised the need for career guidance at the Houston Convention in Texas, where he addressed the national association of school principals. In his address he made the following observations: “Of those students currently in high school, only 30% will go on to academic college level. One third of these will drop. This means 80% of the present high school students should be getting occupational training of some sort” (Engelkes, 1982, p.30).

### 2.4 Secondary school career guidance in Zimbabwe

Due to globalization, what happens in one part of the world soon spreads to the other countries. It used to be believed that life skills are incorporated in education curricula of developed nations while life skills are ignored in education curricula of developing nations (Desai, 2012). This is no more the case. Technical and vocational education has been emphasised even in developing nations today. Career guidance in secondary schools was introduced in 1987. Career guidance is a part of the Guidance and Counselling syllabus. It is geared to prepare students for the transition
from school to the world of work. This would be achieved through the following objectives (Curriculum Development Unit, Zimbabwe, 2006).

- To assist students identify their abilities, interests and worth;
- Identify suitable careers for themselves through realistic assessment of their capabilities and the job market;
- Assist students to discuss subject choices;
- To help students make informed career choices;
- To engage students to discuss entrepreneurship. (Curriculum Development Unit, Zimbabwe, 2006).

This was further supported by the Nziramasanga Commission in 1999 that stated it as follows: “Guidance may assist learners to identify their own talents and make intelligent choices of their future careers” (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999, p. 253). These objectives were later consolidated in the Nziramasanga Commission (1999) that emphasized the role of both the school and the parents. According to Nziramasanga Commission (1999, p. 256), “In addition to career guidance and counselling of students by teachers, consultation with parents will be used in preparation for Post Basic Channelling.” The criteria for channelling the student into a specific pathway are: “the records of achievement, identified interests, teacher’s assessment, pupil’s choice and parent’s choice. The final choice would be made by the parent and the pupil, subject to availability of resources” (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999, pp. 256,257).
2.5 Goals of career guidance

The goals of career guidance are briefly to assist the student in the process of career development, career awareness and career decision making. As students cross the transition from school to work they need to be carefully guided. For this transition process to be successfully carried out, it needs to begin early in secondary school and continue developing as the adolescent matures (Shumba, 1995; Chireshe and Mapfumo, 2005; Mutungwe, et al., 2010). According to Ipaye (1986, p. 144) career guidance is imperative, for if left unguided students are prone to choose careers without directly relating them to their interests and abilities, aptitudes and talents or the working condition. The major goals of career guidance are to;

- assist the student choose a career that will help them experience job satisfaction and ultimately attain career satisfaction. Helping clients identify one or more potentially satisfying careers is also a common goal of career counselling (Sharf, 2006). According to Spector (1997), cited in Nauta (2007) job satisfaction is the most important goal of career guidance. Beyond ensuring mere job satisfaction and career satisfaction, career guidance also aims at achieving career realisation for employees;

- career guidance helps to bridge the gap between education and the world of work, as well as between school and society by assisting young people to make appropriate and judicious informed career choices that will enable them to develop their potential and to have access to work opportunities that are compatible with their interests and abilities. It can also help to instil confidence, enhance career self efficacy resulting in self actualisation of the employee within their chosen careers (Desai, 2012);

- reduce or avoid frustrations among employees resulting from mismatches of career-personality, career-ability or what the career offers and the employee’s expectations.
Such frustrations are economically expensive for performance at work is directly related to the degree of career satisfaction. Singh (2005, p. 72) argues that career guidance aims to minimize (though it never expects to eliminate) both frustration and expenses;

- assist parents with relevant information needed in the process of giving career guidance to their children, as interested parties, parents need to participate but they lack the skills and tools for performing their role effectively (Davidson, 2009);

- help the student to develop self awareness. It helps people to understand their interests, abilities and qualifications so that they make a better match. This way they will seek jobs that they are likely to have a chance of obtaining, will enjoy and will do well and avoid looking for ones that they might not be able to get, would not enjoy or would not be good at (Desai, 2012);

- provide career awareness to the student. The students need to be exposed to available career opportunities. It also makes information about the labour market, and education systems, more accessible by organising it, systematizing it, and making it available when and where people need it (Desai, 2012). According to Shumba (1995) career guidance and counselling are vital if we are to avoid the scramble for non-existent jobs imagined to be on the job market;

- assist the student in the development of career decision making skills. This is accomplished by helping the student to become aware of what career decisions will bring him/her satisfaction and teaching them how to search for, understand and evaluate career information thus eventually they will experience a feeling of being engaged in a
worthwhile enterprise within the world of work (Hamblin and Schuster, 1993; Desai, 2012), and to

- train the student to develop skills in setting realistic goals, achieve them and attain higher levels of career satisfaction. Zaman (2008) cited in Zaidi and Iqbal (2011) points out that there is a strong relationship between career choice, career satisfaction and job performance; and that people who are easily dissatisfied with their careers are those who select a career because of unrealistic goals or under someone’s influence. He further adds that people, who choose their career based on their personal choice, feel more satisfied and ultimately perform better at job. In other words, they are better actualised and experience career realisation.

Throughout the world, educators, employers, parents and employees have realised the importance of career guidance and Zimbabwe is no exception. Consequently most countries, including Zimbabwe, have included career guidance in the Guidance and Counselling school syllabi. (Rao, 2002, Singh, 2005; Chireshe and Mapfumo, 2005; Davidson, 2009; Desai, 2012)

2.6. Theories of career development

The concept of implementing career guidance is informed by several theories of career development. These theories of career development spell out how career guidance may be implemented to achieve the best outcomes for the one who receives the guidance. Most psychologists believe that career selection is not an event but a process generally stretching from early childhood to early adulthood. Psychologists such as Ginzberg, Super, Holland and Krumboltz have developed well known theories on career development and career education and
counselling. These career development theories have been refined with time as psychologists realise the relevant aspects of career development.

2.6.1 Talent matching theories
Talent matching theories are among the earliest theories on career development. According to Hayes and Hopson (1971, p.12), when Ginzberg (1951) started his work of studying career development there was a general approach adopted by counsellors, social scientists and others. This approach was based on ‘accident theories’, ‘impulse theories’ and some elicit theories based on matching opportunities on the labour market with a client’s aptitudes, interests, and values. There were no personality inventories or other structured instruments for assisting students in their career decisions; most of the people got into their career by accident or by impulse, just grabbing the available opportunity. Child (1985, p. 331) observes that “talent matching, either cognitive or affective between the individual and the work they undertook was more a matter of chance than choice.” Although these theories are very old and needed improving, the modern career guidance counsellor, be it formal or non-formal, may borrow or build on this foundation. Up to this day, there are some who just land into a career by accident or by impulse, without making informed career decisions. Modern career development theories try to avoid career decisions that are “accidental” for they prove hazardous to the counselee, resulting in frustrations and less career satisfaction.

2.6.2 Life span approach theories
Life span approach theories perceive career development as a part of human development, stretching from birth to retirement. These include Eli Ginzberg’s and Donald Super’s theories.
2.6.2. 1 Eli Ginzberg’s (1951) developmental theory

Eli Ginzberg views occupational choice as a developmental process which spans from infancy (four years old) to early adulthood (Child, 1985). It consists of several stages, beginning with fantasy stage, tentative choice stage and finally realistic choice stage. These stages correspond to maturity of the developing child. The realistic stage is the crucial stage that involves exploration of possible career options based on the individual’s abilities, aptitudes, interests and values. According to Child (1985) this is where teachers and parents may become influential, because they are the best means by which one can discover one’s capabilities. As the child develops self awareness they get to know their strengths and limitations. This may help them make a better focused choice until they narrow down their choices to three or two best options. Both the parents and the school help the child develop a value system. By mid-adolescence, most children have formulated their values. As the child grows, the family transmits messages as to what is good and what is bad. The home (through parental influence) plays a very significant role in the formation of values. The school (teachers and classmates) and the general society also contribute to the initial foundation laid at home (Melgosa, 2001). Hence as the youth considers a career, they do not focus only their interests and abilities but also on the moral, ethical and spiritual dimensions.

Child (1985) observed that by the age of 15 and 16 years the adolescent has developed value complexes which have built up from childhood through personal and social influences. These value complexes help to guide the adolescent in developing self awareness and in choosing the capacities and skills to apply where and when. By now they could handle such questions as the personal satisfaction offered by certain careers, prospects, income and scientific orientation.
involved in different careers. Because the need for indirect satisfaction comes into play, the adolescent may wish to do this career or that career because he/she believes it has value for himself/herself others or because it does not contradict his/her values.

This stage marks the period of transition from secondary school to a career training college or of narrowing down in subject selection at Advanced Level. Child (1985) observes that the age at which transition occurs is determined largely by school-leaving age. This varies from country to country. Ginzberg’s theory was based on schools in USA.

The strength of Ginzberg’s theory lies on its emphasis in the role of both the school and the home environment. For example, he mentions that some schools encourage students to take up vocational subjects, and he goes on to state the importance of father’s and mother’s occupation as a contributing factor in career consideration. He also emphasises the significance of the influence of teachers and other adults considered as role models: For teachers, the question of greatest concern is that of career development that leads to maturity. If the adolescent gets into a career before he or she is mature he/she may experience frustrations, burnout and career dissatisfaction (Child, 1985). Hence it is important for both the home and the school to assist the student to develop career maturity at every stage.

2.6.2.2 Super’s life-span approach theory

Donald Super (1957) developed a life-span approach to career development (although during his time the term vocational development was commonly used instead of career development) Super’s theory seems more inclined to non-formal career guidance as it begins from birth, before school age, and stretches to retirement. During the ‘growth period’ (0-14years), the child may be
influenced through non-formal career counselling at home, at school and from societal influences. Then during the ‘exploration period’ (15-25 years of age) the child could get planned formal career guidance, because the child spends much of this period in school.

According to Super (1957), cited in Child, (1985) a career or occupation is a way of life, so if one is to live with it for many years, making the best choice is imperative so as to experience some lasting satisfaction. There are important factors that determine career satisfaction. When these factors are rightly met then there may be career realisation. Super presented a career development theory as a life span approach (See Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: *Super’s Career Development Stages*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-14 years</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>&gt;casually concerned about the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-25 years</td>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>&gt;crystallization-implementing an occupational choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-45 years</td>
<td>Establishment-</td>
<td>&gt;consolidating and advancing in one’s occupation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-65 years</td>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>&gt;holding on to and keeping up with one’s profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 years and beyond</td>
<td>Disengagement-deceleration,</td>
<td>&gt;Retirement planning, and living as a retiree.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Child, 1985)

Because work is a way of life, adequate vocational and personal preparations, and adjustment usually result in the expected outcomes especially when both the nature of work and the way of life that goes with it are congenial to the aptitudes, interests and values of the individual (Child, 1985, p. 339).
2.6.3. Holland’s person-environment-fit theory

John Holland’s (1919-2008) career development theory (RIASEC) developed in 1942 is based mainly on the match between an individual’s career and his/her personality features. Holland strongly believed in the significant role played by one’s personality in determining the choice of a career. He also believed that each individual’s unique personality needs to match the most appropriate career. Holland argues that the closer the career-personality match the greater the career satisfaction one may experience. He came up with six major categories of professional environments into which he believed humans can fit into. These are explained in the acronym “RIASEC” and are illustrated in Table 2.2.

Holland posits that every individual has the dominant side, his/her strength, although there is room for flexibility. According to John Holland, cited in Melgosa (2001, p. 52) “everyone has a dominant side of their personality that helps them for certain type of work; for example, the artistic person would do well in a fine arts profession.” This concept concurs with the American Occupational Environments (Hayes and Hopson, 1978). This implies that one could attain optimal career realisation if they choose the career that best matches their personality. In the same vein one could also attain some degree of career realisation if they settle for their second-best career option. On this basis career guidance counsellors have come up with personality tests or inventories so as to make personality assessments. The best match between the individual’s personality and career usually results in better career realisation; “for personality not only affects how you do your work but also how you relate to your employers and fellow workmates” (Your Career, 1985, p. 101).
Table 2.2: *Holland’s Career Development categories: Personality Types compared to the American work environments*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality type (RIASEC)</th>
<th>Description of typical occupations</th>
<th>American work Environments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Realistic</td>
<td>Prefers activities that involve the use of hands, machines and tools; e.g. labourers, farmers, carpenters, drivers, etc.</td>
<td>Motoric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative</td>
<td>Prefers work that involves investigation of ideas or things; e.g. physicians, chemists, anthropologists, mathematicians, etc</td>
<td>Intellectual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic</td>
<td>Enjoys creativity in activities such as art, decoration, music, crafts, designing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Prefers activities that involve working with people, training, ordering; e.g. social workers, teachers, interviewers, vocational counsellors, therapists</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprising</td>
<td>Prefers activities that involve influencing others; e.g. salespersons, managers, politicians, marketers, promoters, business executives</td>
<td>Persuasive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>Enjoys the tranquillity of office work. Works methodically keeping accurate records; e.g. bank tellers, secretaries, clerks, accountants</td>
<td>Conforming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Adapted from Melgosa, 2001 & Hayes and Hopson (1978))*

The individual functions best in his/her best adapted environment. It is highly possible that the individual may experience optimal career realisation when they are in occupational environments that are most compatible with their personality. Hayes and Hopson (1978, p. 36) outline these five occupational environments. In Table 2.2 the researcher compares the American occupational environments with Holland’s personality types. The American occupational environments have
only 5 categories while Holland’s (RIASEC) theory has 6 categories. The category not directly matched with The American occupational environments is the “artistic” but in this case its closest match is the “motoric” These work environments form a general basis for informal career guidance for some parents and guardians. The limitation of both Holland’s theory and the American work environments is that they both focus on personality while ignoring the individual’s abilities. Career-ability match is very important in for one to attain career realisation.

According to Tieger and Tieger (2009), specialists of the MBTI (The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) “personality typing is the first step to a satisfying career. Personality type is an integral factor in job satisfaction.” From this perspective the closer the career-personality-match, the higher the chances of experiencing career satisfaction and career realisation. This is true in two aspects. One’s dominant side of personality matches closely with the nature of the career and the general work environment. Suppose everyone chooses a career that matches their personality this could ensure that all the work-mates are of similar personality. Based on these two factors, there are less chances for employees to feel frustrated with their career and higher chances for the employees to attain career satisfaction. Therefore it is very important for both formal and non-formal career counsellors to understand the nature of each occupation and match it with the individual’s personality. According to Borchet (2002) “some careers demand that you have the personality to match the qualities of the occupation”. For example, sales people have to be outgoing. Splaver cited in Borchet (2002) also argues out that ‘personality’ plays an important role in the choosing of the right career.
2.6.4. Social learning theory

Social learning theory has been cited by many career counsellors as having profound influence on the choice of a career. It brings out the impact of salient non-formal career guidance. According to Zunker (1986) career decision is a learned skill which is influenced by learning experiences acquired from day to day life. It places a strong emphasis on the interaction between nature and nurture in the process of career development. Zunker (1986) goes on to cite Krumboltz et al.’s (1984) outline of the four major factors that may influence career development as follows:

1. Genetic endowments such as special abilities and limitations.

2. Environmental conditions and events or circumstances in early life.

3. Learning experiences (associative learning for example; all bankers are rich or all teachers are poor).

4. Task approach skills; a set of skills the individual has developed.

The social learning theory’s emphasis of career development through inherited and acquired abilities ties both the formal and non-formal career guidance. Formal career guidance is based mainly on aptitudes and abilities identified and developed in schools. On the other hand, non-formal career guidance is based on social interactions and social support from familial and significant figures who act as sources of influence needed in the process of career development. Collaboration of these two types of career guidance approach may lead to greater career satisfaction.
2.6.5. Hoppock’s composite theory for counsellors

Generally there is no theory that is perfect. Each theory has its limitations and strengths. Hoppock (1957) developed an eclectic theory based on taking the strengths of each of the aforementioned theories to maximize on satisfying human needs. He stressed the importance of Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. The more these needs are met the greater the career satisfaction and the better the career realisation.

- Occupations are chosen to meet our needs.
- We explore the options and settle on the one that best meets our needs.
- Job satisfaction can result from the job that best meets our needs today, and promise to meet our needs in the future.
- The degree of satisfaction depends on the ratio of what we have and what we want.

2.7 Significance of career development theories

Traditional approaches to career guidance focused on matching the client’s talent to the most suitable career. It was more of information giving and directive job counselling. However, contemporary career counselling or career guidance walks the client through a process. It focuses more on the total person (Belkin 1988, p. 502). This implies that career guidance providers need to understand the various theories of career development. The researcher believes that most career guidance teachers or counsellors follow an eclectic approach and intentionally make use of the strengths of each of these career theories to counsel secondary school students in their career development. An eclectic approach may to bring the best results. Realising that good counselling always leaves room for autonomy of the client, the onus is with the student to take the counsel or ignore it. Because the final decision of the career rests with the student, some may
not make use of such useful information. Instead they may depend on other sources for counsel. Dubrin (1992, p. 252) observed that “finding a career, that field that holds the promise of bringing satisfaction and material rewards is usually done systematically. Few people are even aware that this major life choice can be done systematically.” Career guidance is one way of assisting individuals to systematically come to a career decision. This can be effectively accomplished if the counsellor has some basic knowledge of the theories of career development. Theories of career development may help the counsellor to;

- identify the main stakeholders (parents, teachers and the student) in the process of career decision;

- realise that because the decision for a career involves the person and his environment, therefore there is need for the counsellor to collaborate with the relevant stakeholders so as to achieve a common goal, career realisation for the client (student);

- help the counsellor to understand the students’ needs, abilities, limitations, aptitudes, interests, aspirations and personality and suggest the best matching careers;

- assist the counsellor to help the counselee develop self awareness;

- help the counsellor to find ways of assisting the counselee to attain career maturity; to understand the world of work and how to handle successes and frustrations, develop persistence and maintain one’s values and
help the counsellor to plan and design the appropriate strategies to use so as to cater for individual differences and maximise the benefit of each student. There is no need for a one-size fits all type of counselling.

The home and the school are the key environments that shape the individual’s learning process (Singh 2005; Davidson, 2009). This also includes career decision making. Secondary school career guidance can be the most systematic and formal method if it is based on the theories of career development. However, schools do not have much capacity to win the confidence of the adolescents. Hence, even though schools may seem to have better career preparation resources such as career information and students’ record of abilities, somehow the students do not feel convinced to completely trust the school (formal career guidance) because the school does not promise sustained support for the student after secondary schooling is over. Yet the parents promise to readily provide social, moral and financial support to the student after secondary school years (transition to work) because they form the adolescent’s immediate environment.

Although the home forms the individual’s immediate environment, providing both social and financial support, it is deficient in other resources necessary for enhancing the adolescent’s career development. Therefore, if these two influential sources of career guidance understand their roles and collaborate and complement each other’s efforts then there may be less frustrations and more career realisation. The major theories of career development generally are based on this common understanding. Career guidance providers and counsellors are encouraged to adopt the eclectic approach. These major theories on career development considered in this study are summarised in Table 2.43.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career development Theory</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Significance and implication for career guidance providers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Talent matching</td>
<td>The student is not actively involved in choosing the career</td>
<td>Careers should match the individual’s talent. Counsellor decides the best career talent match for the student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Lifespan approach theories</td>
<td>The student is not actively involved in choosing the career</td>
<td>Career development stretches throughout the life span; therefore career guidance should not be limited to one specific stage in life. It is to be implemented as a continuous process. Career guidance offered by both the parents and school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Holland’s person-environment-fit theory</td>
<td>It is silent about who should make the actual career choice</td>
<td>Careers should be chosen to match the individual’s personality. Career satisfaction is a result of a close match between one’s career with one’s abilities, interests and personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Social learning</td>
<td>There is less emphasis on the individual’s abilities and personality</td>
<td>The child’s immediate environment (home &amp; school) influences his career development. Therefore, career development involves interaction between the social contexts and the inherited abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Hoppock’s composite theory</td>
<td>It is silent about who should make the actual career choice</td>
<td>Careers are chosen to meet the individual’s needs (physical, physiological, belonging and self esteem). Career satisfaction is a result of a strong congruence between career motivators and employees’ expectations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.8 Career guidance and human development

Career development is part of human development. It is a developmental process which begins in infancy and continues up to retirement. Both Ginzberg’s (1951) and Super’s (1957) theories suggest that career development is part of the human developmental process. Donald Super’s (1957) theory is based on the idea that as the individual grows he develops self concept which influences his or her occupational choice as well as ultimate satisfaction or dissatisfaction with that choice (Belkin, 1988, p. 504). Realizing that career development is part of human development, reference is made to Urie Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory (1979) of human development (see Figure 2.1)

![Figure 2.1. Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Model. (Adapted from Papalia et al, 2009)](image-url)
Career development does not begin at primary or secondary school; it begins in pre-school or infancy, when parents decide which toys to buy for their children and assign their children household activities and daily chores. From the Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) ecological theory (Figure 2.1) of human development the home, the school, the church and peers are the major environments that influence the child’s development especially through socialization. Generally the church and the peer influences are overridden by the home and school influences. Although the church and peers may influence a growing child, these two are mainly determined by the home and the school standards and values. Hence the major forces of influence on the developing child are the home and the school (Kerka, 2000; Sink 2005; Singh, 2005, Davidson, 2009; Desai, 2012). Thus both the home and the school are the key pins that play a significant role in the career development of the child at different stages. This is also strongly supported by Epstein’s model (1987) of overlapping spheres of influence that emphasizes that career development is strongly shaped by the home and the school.

The home environment has its strongest influence during pre-school and then in primary school years. During the early childhood years the individual acquires mainly non-formal career guidance from his/her immediate environment. He/she may begin to develop “when I grow up thoughts...” about careers as he/she observes and interacts with those people in different careers. Later, career development is shaped more by the school as formal career guidance is introduced to the student at secondary school level.

In brief, because career development is part of human development, the factors that affect human development such as nurture and nature come into play. However, because it is not easy to manipulate or modify the nature (genetic endowments of an individual) yet it is possible to
manipulate and modify the nurturing process; the researcher focuses on this aspect in this study. Thus career development could be improved easily by modifying the nurturing process, especially through the home and the school. This could be achieved if the career guidance providers realise that career development involves the following processes:

- becoming aware of one’s interests, aptitudes and needs;
- preparing for an occupation;
- entering employment and adjusting to jobs and
- changing jobs.

The first three points directly apply to secondary school period; this is the time the adolescent needs structured career guidance lessons. The fourth aspect, changing jobs, is healthy if it is done wisely in the form of progression in career; if possible changing jobs within the same career.

From a developmental point of view career development begins at infancy when parents acknowledge that their child is male or female, thus deciding on the type of toys (cars, blocks or dollies) to give their infant child. This nurturing continues as the preschooler talks of “when I grow up I want to be...” By primary school years the child’s career development is shaped by both the home and the school. During adolescence career development occurs within a limited period and may simply be crystallizing what has been sown in early childhood. This period is the time when a child breaks free from the family to begin a life of economic self sufficiency that fulfils the adolescent’s quest for self identity (Belkin, 1988). The researcher takes a broader perspective, realising that career development begins earlier than secondary school level. However, the influential forces vary at different stages, with the parents/home involved in a non-formal way especially before school going age and the schools being proactive in a formal way.
during the secondary school years. Generally in Zimbabwe formal career guidance is implemented in most schools in the third and fourth years of secondary school (Zimbabwe Curriculum Development Unit, 2006; Mutungwe et al 2010).

According to the Organisation of Economic Co-operation Development (OECD) Career Guidance Policy Review (2004), career guidance is defined as “services and activities intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers.” This includes providing career awareness and assisting people to develop self awareness thus matching one’s interests, abilities, values and aspirations with the available career opportunities.

Thus, career development is perceived as a continuous process and as one matures and gets to understand one’s interests better they can refocus and refine their occupational choice without jumping from one career to another. Belkin (1988, p. 511) observed that people make decisions about careers with an aim of optimising their satisfaction by finding the best possible fit between their personality, priority needs and desires, and the opportunities that confront them in the world of work. Inadequate career guidance may result in a mismatch between the individual and his/her career so that by middle age, when an individual is supposed to be getting established, rising with upward mobility in their career and preparing for retirement, they may still be orienting themselves to a new career. It is likely that such individuals may retire with less career realisation. As career development is closely related to human development, time wasted training for a wrong career can never be regained. It is therefore very necessary for counsellors, both formal and non-formal to be proactive and consider relevant and effective strategies of
implementing career guidance to young people, especially during their formative years so that they may make informed career decisions without regretting later.

2.9 How career guidance is shaped by the school and home

According to Gibson and Mitchell (1981, p. 217) the expertise required for implementing career education is to be found in many parts of society and is not limited to those employed in formal career education. From such a perspective it is clear that the process of choosing a career is not just an independent, individual decision. It is influenced by several factors some of which are beyond the control of the student. Of these influences, the home and the school are the most significant ones (Mapfumo and Chireshe, 2005; Singh, 2005; Davidson 2009). Given this situation it becomes imperative to directly engage these same stakeholders in the process of providing career guidance to secondary school students. According to Herr and Cramer (1972, p. 308):

The need for career counsellors outstrips the supply of counsellors, if the supply of counsellors is unlikely to meet the demands we must examine alternative ways of meeting the vocational and guidance and counselling needs ... many people do and should contribute to the accomplishment of the objectives of career guidance. This includes parents, teachers, counsellors, administrators, employers and employees.

All these stakeholders can contribute by influencing attitudes and providing information and knowledge which forms the spring board from which career decisions are made. As the most influential environments during the student’s development are the home, i.e. parents, siblings and relatives (Mapfumo, Chireshe and Munhuweyi, 2002), and the school (the school career guidance counsellors, school administrators, and the teachers); these are the key stakeholders when it comes to career decisions. Research by Mudhovozi and Chireshe (2012) indicate that parental influence in career guidance is strong as they are major or primary socialisers. In
addition to these external influences, the student needs to be involved right from the beginning. How this career guidance is done and how it is perceived by the learner is what might determine the effectiveness of career guidance and assure career realisation to the learner. The expertise of these stakeholders lies in applying these theories into their career counselling system. This demands that these key stakeholders (school and parents) work collaboratively to gain an understanding of the student’s abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality and match these with the most relevant career. The stakeholders need to have information on entry requirements to different careers at their finger-tips and avail these to the student. These same stakeholders need to give the student an exposure to the world of work (what it demands and what it offers) and how best to assist the student.

Although career guidance may come from different sources, ranging from the media, the immediate environment, the formal school setting and to the society at large (Dubrin, 1992; Isaacson, 1978), the school and the home generally have the strongest bearing on the shaping of career choice. From the social cognitive career theory, we realise that the process of career development involves the interaction of the individual and his environment. According to Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) theory, the school, the home, the peer group and the community form the most influential environments that shape personality development, and formation of a value system. These four sources of influences also dictate the culture and norms. Because the individual does not live and make choices in a vacuum, it is clear that even career decisions are strongly affected by the home, the school and the society. The influence of the peer group is generally short lived and that of the community is relatively weak except in communities with a very strong social fabric. Of these four sources of influence, the researcher will particularly focus
on the influence of the school (formal) and the home (non-formal). These two, are the strongest sources of influence when it comes to career decisions. In addition to these two strong influences, the student is also a key player. These three, the home (parents), the school and the student are the stakeholders when it comes to making career decisions. The student is at the centre, he/she is their common interest. However, it is important to note that if the process of career guidance is understood to involve different stakeholders, then “rigid territorial and defensive grasping for compartmentalized, splintered approaches to concerns about the issue must go” (Herr and Cramer, 1972, p. 310). This seems to imply that the most plausible alternative then is; coordination and cooperation and collaboration among all relevant stakeholders.

**2.9.1 The school as a stakeholder**

According to Singh (2005, p. 73) secondary schools are in an ideal position to give career guidance because they know their pupils’ ability and keep a record of these abilities. Such information is handy for assisting the students in subject selection and channelling them into the most suitable career pathways. In addition to this, schools can make links with the world of employment because they have access to current information (Lindhard, 1974), hence, they can have information on entry requirements at their disposal. With such tools, the schools can help the student develop career awareness and also develop career decision making skills. The school environment is also conducive for development of life skills such as team work; work values such as time management, diligence, honesty, integrity and commitment.

At secondary school level, the student spends relatively more time at school than at home, thus most parents empower the school to stand in the place of parents. This is not a new concept.
Traditionally, teachers have been considered to be in loco parentis with regard to their students (Davidson, 2009). This way, the teachers are expected to discipline and guide (including giving career guidance) their pupils in line with what any responsible and reasonable parent would approve. School Guidance and Counselling officers provide knowledge about job availability, their potentials and limitations (Chireshe, 2006) The school administration and teachers may work collaboratively with the career guidance counsellors to meet the career development needs of each student. In addition, Lindhard (1974) contends that teachers are experienced and so they can therefore be trusted to help the students make the connections between the academic content being learnt with the real world applications (Sink, 2005, p. 230). The schools can promote positive attitudes in the students through teachers. As Herr and Cramer (1972, p. 320) argue that “teachers can best promote the ‘can do’ syndrome in students which may motivate them to succeed by ensuring that experiences in success exceed failures by continuously reinforcing the right attitudes”.

2.9.2 Parents as stakeholders

Parents play a significant role in the career development process, as nurturers, guardians, role models as well as mentors (Davidson, 2009; Ipaye, 1996; Zvobgo, 2000). Research (West Africa) by Gesindo (as cited by Ipaye, 1996, p. 211) indicates that 66% of the students in teachers’ training colleges and 56% of those in technical colleges are influenced by parents and significant others in choosing their careers. This concurs with Bloomberg’s (1984) findings (in South Africa); which indicated that parents (father and mother) were rated as the most influential in relation to subject choices among the South African secondary school students. Research (in Zimbabwe) by Chireshe and Mapfumo (2005) also indicated that parents and relatives were also

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considered as the most influential sources of influence for career decisions among Zimbabwean secondary school students. According to Singh (2005, p. 74) career guidance begins in the home and ends in the home. The parents are with the child before formal schooling and may remain with the child after school. Parents love and know their child better than most other people and can therefore go out of their way to guide and help them. Considering their experience with their child, it can be concluded that they understand him/her best and desire the best for him/her. In brief, parental career guidance is well-meant (Lindhard, 1974). Some educators believe it may not be necessary for parental involvement in career guidance because some of the parents may be deficient in career counselling and other educational skills (Fowkes, 2007). However, Ipaye (1996, p. 129) observes that “although some parents are illiterate they are enthusiastic in getting their children to make up for what they lamentably missed...in addition it is the parents’ desire that their children do not slave as they did.” In a way it makes the parents proud to have a child succeed in their career. Howieson and Semple (2001) observed that the informal network of support, mainly from their parents and other family members has a greater impact on the adolescents’ career development, career decision making and transition from school to work than formal career guidance. The authors contend that we should not downplay the role of either formal or non-formal career guidance. Howieson and Semple (2001) posit that non-formal network of career advice and information provides the background music against which the formal advice from school administrators, teachers and other career advisors is heard. For effective career guidance the two need each other. According to Singh (2005), it is very necessary to provide career information from home because parents usually remain with the child after school so they can provide sustained support. The
other contributing reasons for the increased interest in parental involvement in their children’s career development are cited by Davidson (2009) as follows;

- there is a general increase in the parental awareness of considering children as young learners;
- of late there are relatively more mothers with a college education or who are professionals;
- there has been a noticeable change in the family structure, whereby the child has become the centre of focus;
- many governments are encouraging parents to be involved in their children’s education.

Even the Nziramasanga Commission (1999) emphasizes parental involvement in the student career guidance process;

With such trends it is imperative for the school to work collaboratively with parents in providing career guidance to their children in secondary school. As several researchers have indicated, collaboration of the two important stakeholders may most likely promise higher levels of career realisation for the student when they are employed. Although school staff members are very important in assisting students with career guidance there are also other persons who also provide valuable assistance. These include parents, guardians, mentors and other significant figures in the community. Of these, parents can and should be the most influential as role models and counsellors to their children because they have some degree of direct control on the child’s immediate environment, know their children’s personalities better and will remain with the child after school, during the transition to work (Davidson, 2009; Tolbert 1990, p. 414; Singh, 2005).
These two major stakeholders, the school and the home, employ various strategies that may be implemented intentionally or unintentionally. In this present study, these strategies are put into three major categories (because there are some that may fit into more than one category categories). The three categories are discussed in the following sections.

1. Strategies related to formal career guidance. These include;
   a) understanding the student’s abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personality so as to channel them in the most appropriate career;
   b) helping the student realise his abilities, aptitudes and limitations (develop self awareness);
   c) Helping the student develop career awareness.

2. Strategies related to non-formal career guidance
   a) parenting style (nurturing and developing career awareness especially during early childhood years);
   b) providing financial support for schooling and career training;
   c) providing social support during school years and career training years;
   d) development of values in the student;
   e) Shaping personality development.

3. Strategies common to both formal and non-formal career guidance
   a) developing right attitudes towards a variety of careers;
   b) development of interests in certain careers;
   c) development of career decision-making skills.
2.10 How formal career guidance influences career decision

The strategies involved in formal career guidance are the ones that are mainly employed by those who engage in formal career counselling such as school guidance and counselling officers and school administrators in a formal school setting. These include the use of the knowledge of the student’s abilities, aptitudes in giving guidance in the selection of subjects, availing needed information on career awareness and assisting the student to develop self awareness and career decision making skills.

2.10.1 Understanding student’s abilities and aptitudes

The school has the advantage of having record of academic performance of each individual in the progress reports. They also have an opportunity to observe and influence the student during the extra-curricular activities. This helps the student develop self awareness by understanding their abilities, limitations, aptitudes and personality.

Knowledge of students’ abilities and aptitudes gives the career guidance counsellor direction as to which line of specialisation the student is likely to excel in. According to Singh, (2005) the school is in the best position to assess and understand the abilities and aptitudes of the student for it keeps a record of academic performance and progress. Hence it is easier for the school to relate specific academic abilities to specific careers. Once the abilities, aptitudes and personality are tentatively matched to the general cluster of careers, the counsellor can assist the student better, opening up possible channels related to his abilities or giving the student relevant career awareness information about entry requirements, working conditions and other relevant information related to different careers.
2.10.2 Assisting students in subject selection

Most schools in Zimbabwe streamline the students into three channels (namely arts, sciences and commercials) according to each student’s abilities. This involves subject-selection which is usually done at form three, and later at form five. Some schools may involve the parent and the student in this decision making process, as suggested in the Nziramasanga Commission (1999, p. 256), however, other schools do it without any input from neither the student nor the parent. Actually, both the parent and the student (child) are usually passive consumers of what the school has to offer. This is contrary to the Nziramasanga Commission (1999) plan. In addition to formal career guidance and counselling of students by teachers, non-formal consultation with parents will be used in preparation for Post Basic Channelling (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999, pp. 256,257). The same commission goes on to suggest the criteria for channelling the student into a specific pathway based on the records of achievement, identified interests, teacher’s assessment, pupil’s choice and parent’s choice. The final career decision would be made by the pupil with assistance from the parent, subject to availability of resources (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999, pp. 256,257).

Based on the above suggestions, most schools stream students according to their abilities, into four pathways. This initiates them into prospective career pathways from which they narrow down to the ultimate career of their choice. The three pathways are:

- sciences
- Arts
- Commercials

Generally less every student is expected to take one or two practical subjects in addition.
Due to gender biases about certain careers, in the process of channelling the students the teachers can also encourage or deter students towards or away from certain career they classify as ‘male careers’ or ‘female careers’. The set of subjects offered at a school and the counselling given in subject selection often determines the ultimate subjects chosen at ‘A’ level and the ultimate career choice at tertiary level. Generally ‘Boys’ schools may not offer fashion and fabrics, as a subject, neither will ‘Girls’ schools offer building or woodwork. This means the choices may only be made from the subjects offered at each particular school.

The ratios of female to male teachers teaching mathematics, physics, building; and female to male teachers teaching languages, biology, fashion and fabrics, food and nutrition says a lot about teachers as role models. Generally more male teachers dominate the teaching of mathematics, science subjects and technical subjects. As a result most girls may hesitate to attempt a career of their passion due to lack role models. Teachers also influence career decisions as advisors or counsellors. Most participants in a research (in Southern Africa) by Mutekwe and Modiba (2012) indicated that for them subjects such as mathematics and pure sciences (physics, chemistry and biology) should fall in the masculine category, while the feminine category should include those such as Home Economics, Humanities and Typing. Teachers also tended to categorize academic subjects as either feminine or masculine.

Whatever attitudes and philosophies the teachers learned or adopted in college these are subsequently passed on to their students. Recent studies in Zimbabwe on the sources of influence on student’s career choices indicated that career choices can be influenced by gender stereotyping attitudes of both parents and teachers. Responses to questionnaires given by the same
authors also revealed that through the gender typing of subjects, schools channel learners into polarized occupational trajectories the students ultimately follow. This idea is evident in the following statements given by some of the participants: Both male and female teachers, advise their students that subjects such as Home economics, Biology and Tourism are especially ideal for girls. They also advise boys to study technical Graphics, Physics and Mathematics as they believe that boys must follow different and challenging occupations (Mutekwe & Modiba, 2012).

Similar observations were made by Bussey and Bandura (2012) in Western countries. Several authors’ findings on the impact of gender stereotyping of careers during the process of career guidance, the dichotomization of careers determines the ultimate career path chosen. For example, Sells (1982); Betz and Fitzgerald (cited by Bussey & Bandura, 2012) note that the channelling of children into different academic domains has a profound impact on career paths later followed. These career domains are interwoven with gender biases. School career counsellors encourage and support the interest of boys in scientific fields while they scale down girls’ aspirations and steer them away from scientific and technical fields of study into career paths that are stereotypically “feminine”.

In Zimbabwe, once the crucial subjects are dropped in early secondary school, Form 3, this will screen out certain careers that require mathematics and other scientific subjects. This way the career pathways become automatically demarcated. Even at tertiary level a similar trend has been observed. Inadequate foundational preparation filters out most females from entering a career of their interest. Less female students enrol in significantly fewer higher level mathematics, science and computer courses. The interests of females in science related careers eventually diminish as they are made to believe that most science and mathematics related subjects as less useful to their
lives than to their male counterparts. The channelling of interests into different academic domains has a profound impact on the ultimate career paths chosen. Inadequate preparation in mathematical subjects and the sciences consequently proves to be a serious barrier to career success because it filters out a lot of career options requiring mathematical and scientific background (Bussey & Bandura, 2012; Mutungwe, et al., 1996).

Gender biases that originate in the home may also be perpetuated at school. Through gender biased role socialization by both the home and the family, children acquire early beliefs about their social roles. This extends to the subject selection and exerts significant influences on their education and career aspirations and prospective career choices when they get to the adolescence stage.

2.10.3 Influence of the textbooks selected

The educational system plays a significant role in socializing children. The influence of the educational system in promoting gender stereotyping of careers come in several ways such as; illustrations in textbooks, the school curriculum (subjects offered) and extracurricular activities. Teachers also exert their influence as role models or as counsellors. Recent research in Zimbabwe as well as elsewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa, confirm that schools play a major role in socializing children into gender roles they will carry out both in the family and the economy. Boys are taught to be ‘masculine’ and girls ‘feminine’, according to the norms of their society. (Gordon cited in Chawafambira, 2010). The self-beliefs and competencies acquired during this formative period of schooling carry especially heavy weight because they shape the course of career choices and development (Bussey and Bandura, 2012, p. 175).
The textbooks used in schools also exert a profound influence on socializing children into gender stereotyped careers. As early as primary school the typical picture of a miner, builder or carpenter is a male figure and a nurse, secretary or hairdresser is represented by a female figure. This is reinforced in the classroom and at play as children begin to imagine what they want to become for a career. Fagot (cited by Bussey & Bandura, 2012) observed that regarding to shaping gendered attributes, teachers criticize children for engaging in play activities considered inappropriate for their gender”. In Zimbabwean History textbooks such as *People Making History* certain illustrations and grammatical contexts make a statement about gender stereotyping of careers. Mutekwe and Modiba (2012) and Chawafambira (2010) observed that women at the kitchen sink, cultivating, gathering, making baskets and fetching firewood and fetching water were typical illustrations of gender stereotyping of careers. The nurse is always represented by a female figure and the medical doctor by a male figure. Most men in the textbooks are portrayed as doctors, school heads, drivers, etc. This dichotomization of careers and rigid career stereotypes affect career decisions by both boys and girls as they consider entering into careers that are already labelled as: “male” or “female”.

2.10. 4 Assist the student develop self awareness

As the adolescent links the subjects he/she is taking with his abilities, he/she develops self-identity, and also realises his/her limitations. The school programme, with its extra-curricular activities (physical activities, sports and other social interactions) is ideal for the student to develop self awareness. Thus, he/she gradually narrows down his career choice to a few of his best options that suit his abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality.
2.10.5 Help the student develop career awareness

Different schools have various ways of assisting their students develop career awareness. Among the most common strategies employed by most schools may include the following;

- many schools also offer a career guidance programme from the Guidance and Counselling Syllabus. This usually starts on a generalised note, with group guidance during the first two years of secondary school;

- some schools organize a (College Day) field trip for the senior class to an institution of tertiary learning, a training college or to some industry to have a short exposure to the work environment. However, because this is a one-day, once off event it may not suffice to answer all the different questions each student may have related to the different professions. Besides, some questions arise with time and their guidance and counselling teachers may not have the answers to these questions;

- later at least once a year, Schools organize a Careers’ Day; whereby professionals of different carers are invited on Careers’ Day, Career Fair Day, Careers Expo, or Careers Symposium. These experienced professionals will have time with some of the students in groups or have one- on- one interaction with some students according to their interests. However, because these are non-examinable, some students may not take these lessons seriously (Zvobgo, 2009). Besides, because it is a one shot event, and the ratio of the number of students per counsellor available is very large the effectiveness of such meetings is very minimal. Then when the rubber meets the road, (when they have to finally settle for their ultimate career), they find it difficult and end up settling for a second best because they failed to qualify for the career of their first choice or were not
adequately guided and so they wake up in a career that does not suit their personality, yet they joined it because of prestige or peer pressure or mere lack of adequate knowledge.

- avail information on the supply versus demand of jobs to their students. The supply versus demand of jobs determines how much motivators are available for certain careers.

These act such as push or pull factors that attract the individual to a certain career or make them shun another career. This also determines how marketable a job is currently and in the near future.

2.10.6 Teachers and administrators as role models

Teachers influence career decisions as role models for their students. The ratios of female to male teachers teaching the so-called ‘masculine’ subjects such as mathematics, physics, building; and female: male teachers teaching the ‘feminine’ subjects such as biology, languages, fashion and fabrics, food and nutrition says a lot about teachers as role models to their students in career decision making. Generally more male teachers dominate the teaching of science subjects and technical subjects. As a result many girls may hesitate to attempt a career of their passion due to lack role models in the line the female child may aspire to pursue.

2.11. How non-formal career guidance influences career decision

The influencing strategies related to non-formal career guidance are many and they can be both intentional and non-intentional (Sink, 2005). They include:

- Parenting style (nurturing and developing career awareness especially during early childhood years);

- providing financial support for schooling and career training;
➢ providing social support during school years and career training years;
➢ development of values and
➢ personality development.

These strategies related to non-formal career guidance have a wider influence but lack the strength of evidence because the counsellors may not be professional specialists and may be deficient in the accuracy of factual information on certain careers. The greatest external influence on one’s career choice comes from the family. This includes your place in the family, e.g. in the case where one is first, second, last born, only child, social status, parents’ education and exposure, and parental aspirations, etc. The family forms the developing person’s immediate environment. According to Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1992) of child development the child’s immediate environments are the home, church, school and peers (Shaffer, 1999, p. 64). Of these four, the home has the strongest influence. It is in the home circle that the child develops his values, dreams and aspirations.

Early childhood experiences plant a seed for the future career. Because career development begins in childhood certain life experiences will have an influence on the choice of a career. For example, a child who had to be hospitalized for two months may develop a passion for a career in health and medicine; or may never such as anything to do with doctors or nurses depending on how his experience at the hospital was. Some hospitals have movies or story books on the kindness of nurses and doctors. This too can influence the child’s career decision. A child who grows up on a farm may aspire to be a farm manager and one who has grown up in a family of medical professionals will usually desire to aspire to choose a career in the same line. While this is good to desensitise children from the dread they have of a visit to the doctor, dentist, or to the
hospital, the children need to realise that interest alone is not enough; abilities, aptitudes and personality all contribute to career realisation.

Parental influence on the process of career development is very strong compared to other factors. Schools and counselling officers do have an influence but this tends to be more limited and passive compared to parental influence. Parental influence is proactive. It may be both intentional and unintentional. Young (1997) cited in Davidson 2009 observed that parental influence is most helpful when it is intentional, planned and a goal-directed action. This influence stretches over a relatively longer time in the life of the individual. In brief the parent influences the choice of vocation in the following ways:

- through heredity (physical makeup, abilities, aptitudes, dexterity),
- through nurturing (parenting style, early childhood experiences, attitudes, values, drive to succeed, fear of success, financial sponsoring, socio-economic status) and
- Parents as role models.

Although parents may have a strong hereditary influence on their child’s abilities and personality the researcher is not focusing on this aspect because there is very little that can be done to improve the parental influence through heredity, however, the other ways in which parents influence their children’s career decisions will be discussed in detail.

Melgosa (2001, p. 53) argues that “Parents’ lifestyle (values, attitudes and practices) has a determining role in their children’s career choices. For example: A family that upholds self–denial and selfless service will most likely have children with the same inclination.” It is a well known saying that ‘values are caught, not taught’. Thus it is very likely for an individual to catch
the family values than those of other institutions because the family has the strongest influence and the child is under the influence of the family a greater part of his formative years. Child, (1985) also concurs with Melgosa’s (2001) stating that the home and the school play a critical part in the development of values.

2.11.1 Socializing

Parents play a major role in the primary socialization of the child and continue to exert great influence on their children throughout life (Zvobgo, 2009; Mudhovozi and Chireshe, 2012). Right from birth, the parents begin influencing their children through socializing. Gender stereotyping of careers can begin as early as during infancy, when parents buy toys for their little ones. A message is communicated by the type of toys we buy for our babies; this might lay a foundation for the choice of a career. For example, building blocks are usually bought for boys and dollies for girls. Campenni (cited by Bussey & Bandura, 2012) noted that parents view feminine toys and activities as more gender stereotypical than masculine toys and activities, which also contributes to their greater acceptance of cross-gender conduct by girls than by boys. This lenience in favour of girls may instil a desire in these same girls as they become older females to venture more into unisex or the so called masculine careers. In longitudinal studies, Eccles (cited by Bussey & Bandura, 2012) found that in some western countries, parents generally subscribe to the cultural stereotype that boys are more naturally endowed than girls for quantitative activities despite equivalent achievement in mathematics. The more parents stereotype Mathematics, Computer studies and engineering as naturally male domain, the more they underestimate their daughters' mathematics abilities, overestimate the difficulty of the subjects for them, and attribute any successes in these areas to a result of extra hard work. This
way parents discourage their children from computer related courses and mathematically oriented careers.

For fear of being considered weird or ‘Tom-boys’ some young females shun careers of their aspirations and train for those that may not match their interests, personalities or abilities. They eventually find themselves as square pegs in round holes with no career self efficacy, low job satisfaction, no career satisfaction and no carer realisation for their performance will not be at their best.

Attitudes and perceptions of parents play a significant role in influencing their children into or away from certain careers. According to Desai (2012), research (in Asian countries) indicates that parental perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes in turn influence their children’s academic development and career choices among boys and girls. Gender biased attitudes and practices and in relation to subject selection may contribute to enhanced scientific literacy skills among boys relative to girls. By adolescence, girls and boys may have developed different attitudes and aspirations concerning science-related activities.

In countries with a strong social fabric, such as Zimbabwe, career decisions are based on what is socially acceptable. Rarely do you get an adolescent who wants to go against the grain and be considered weird. To a great extent, parents and other relatives influence the children’s attitudes towards or away from different careers. (Chireshe and Mapfumo, 2005).

2.11.2 Parenting styles

Parenting styles are patterns of bringing children up. Parenting styles greatly affect personality and consequently career development for different parenting styles result in different outcomes
in the values, behaviour and personality of the child. Shaffer (1999) classifies parenting styles into four distinct categories. Each of these is unique and bears weight on how the adolescent makes decisions, his/her academic achievement and the development of social skills. Each of these parenting styles is a reflection of the parent’s attitudes to the development of the child. Sharf (1992) also concurs with Shaffer’s (1999) view except that he focuses on the attitudes of parents. The influence of each of these distinct parenting styles on a child’s career development are summarised in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Influence of Parenting Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting Style</th>
<th>Parental attitudes</th>
<th>Resultant on adolescents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Authoritative</strong></td>
<td>“Acceptance” – warm democratic attitude fostering independence</td>
<td>High self-esteem excellent social skills pro-social. High academic achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Authoritarian</strong></td>
<td>Concentration – very high expectations, over demanding setting very high standards. Concentration by over-protection. Restricts explorations</td>
<td>Moderate social skills. Average academic achievement Very Conforming Poor decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Permissive</strong></td>
<td>No guidance Do as you please</td>
<td>Poor self esteem, low academic achievement. Resist authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Uninvolved</strong></td>
<td>Avoidance, neglectful Do as you please</td>
<td>Some become successful others will drift around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Traditional</strong></td>
<td>Father dominates in authority, therefore father’s influence takes an upper hand</td>
<td>Most become dictatorial leaders or very passive with poor career decision making skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Sharf, 1992 and Shaffer, 1999)
An analysis of the influence of each of these parenting styles reveals a lot of insights about the impact of each on career decision making. Parents influence students through relationships, for example, authoritative (warm and responsive parenting combined with clear expectations) and through communication (Way & Rossman as cited by Kerka, 2000).

Although authoritarian parenting is associated with school success, pressures to conform and fulfil parents’ expectations regarding education and careers can cause a poor fit between the individual and the chosen career as well as estranged family relationships and poor mental health (Way & Rossmann as cited by Kerka, 2000). Dictatorial or authoritarian parents tend to dominate the decision making process and suppress the will of the child. In this case the child is usually caught in a dilemma, wanting to make his own decision and at the same time desiring to comply with the decision of parents so as to prove to be obedient. In addition, children raised under authoritarian parenting style may become poor in decision making and timid or adopt the same authoritarian leadership at their work place.

Permissive parents allow the children too much freedom without guidance as a result children sometimes make the right choice on their own or at other times, as what frequently happens, they feel frustrated after having made poor, pre-mature decisions due to lack of guidance. They may have poor social skills, so they usually may not get along well at the work-place because they tend to be self-centred and non-conforming; this also adds to their frustrations. (Shaffer, 1999; Melgosa, 2001) The uninvolved parenting style is the most dangerous. It frustrates the child having to make crucial decisions such as choice of career without guidance or affirmation from loving parents. This usually leaves the child with a low self esteem. By being uninvolved the parent still exerts a negative influence by being negligent of their parental responsibility.
The traditional parenting style is fine, especially for the male child. For in this parenting style the father dominates in the major decisions. One of the results of the traditional parenting style is to produce youths who may lack career self efficacy or who, in most cases, may lack self confidence and may experience career indecision. Generally, the male child has a role model but for the female child, it is rather less fortunate. Such female students may have poor career decision making skills. The female or male child from a traditional parenting style has high chances of succumbing to gender stereotyping of careers, choosing only the traditionally ‘male’ or ‘female’ careers. (Shaffer, 1999)

The ideal parenting style that, to a large extent, guarantees effective decision making is the authoritative. This style fosters independence and allows or permits discussion or dialogue between parent and child before the ultimate decision is made. It promotes authority, high esteem, excellent social skills and high academic achievement. Such a child may be able to adjust and accept whatever the outcome from their decisions because they have developed a high self-esteem. Such adolescents feel ownership of their decision. Such individuals can accept success or failure with less stress. They can easily work with others because they have learnt to dialogue and reason with others. They can take other people’s opinions without feeling threatened. They can handle positions of responsibility. (Melgosa, 2001)

2.11.3 Parents as role models

Most children spend a greater fraction of their lives with their parents. As a result the parents become the best role models for the growing adolescent (Sink, 2005). Ginzberg’s (1951) career development theory shows a strong inclination on the influence of parents. Looking at the adolescent stage, although the child desires some degree of autonomy, most of his/her major
decisions are made in consultation with parents. More so if both parents are professionals, the children will such as to take after their parents, ‘a chip off the old block’. During transitional sub-stage which is marked by the child’s completion of the school and getting ready for college or university, non-formal career guidance has a significant impact on most adolescents. Because the school no longer has a strong grip on these adolescents, they look at facts once presented by teachers and peers objectively and move on, trying to be realistic. Because the adolescent spends the next period with the parents as the immediate consultants, parental influence has a strong impact at this stage.

Chauhan (1979, p. 92) observed that the parent’s occupation plays a significant role in the decisions for a career by adolescents. He noted that generally adolescent boys identify themselves with the career of their fathers, similarly, sons of physical scientists, social scientists and medical scientists tended to choose the careers of their fathers. In the same vein girls tend to aspire to become career women if their mothers have been career women compared to girls from non-working mothers. Research in West Africa by Okeke (cited by Ipaye, 1996) indicated that 60% of children were willing to take after their father’s occupation; while 25% were willing to take after their mother’s occupations. Similar observations of parental influence on subject selection and career choice were made by several researchers. Generally, the most frequently mentioned role model both at ninth grade and young adult level was the father. However, with age the importance of the father decreased and the importance of the other figures including peers, teachers, relatives, employers and other adults increased. This is strongly supported by Bloomberg’s (1984) studies in South Africa. Bloomberg (1984) made similar observations about factors that determine subject selection by seventh graders in South African schools. Fathers
were rated as the most influential in relation to subject choices. Fathers’ influence was rated at 52% followed by mothers, rated at 40%. Actually the more occupationally oriented parent, typically the father, exerts a stronger influence on the personality development of even daughters, especially those with college oriented career aspirations. Maternal employment generally influences girls more than boys. Crawford (1978) observed that daughters of less educated, non-working mothers are likely to enter into traditional occupations. However, with the changing trends of more women joining the workforce, more girls have been influenced to attempt not only the traditional careers such as teaching or nursing but other professions such as engineering, law, aviation, etc. Researches (in Southern Africa) by Mutekwe and Modiba (2012) indicated that parents and older siblings may influence the adolescent in career decisions. Usually these are more than simple mentors because they also promise connections; as portrayed by the observation by Mutekwe and Modiba (2012) that a father who is employed with ZESA may influence his children and relatives to get careers in the same line; with ZESA; (whether they have the interest and abilities or not this may not be considered).

Research indicates that there is a strong relationship between boys’ career aspirations and the occupations of the working male adults in their homes, and conversely girls with the working females in their homes. More adult males get into stereotypically male careers and more females also go into stereotypically female careers. As the child grows out of the adolescent stage, the influence of family members decreases as that of the significant others strengthen. Generally family influence wanes after the teenage years (Bloomberg, 1984; Davidson, 2009).

However, Zunker (1981) noted that this monotony of the family stereotyping (of homemaking mothers and the bread-winning father) is broken by some adolescent who determines to become
anything else other than their parent’s profession because they have developed a negative attitude towards their parent’s profession. Such unexpected outcomes are usually a result of parents’ negative attitude about their work environment. In general the attitude of both parents will determine the attitude of the child towards any career. If parents are disgruntled and grumble about their own work, adolescents will perceive their parents’ jobs unfavourably and develop a negative influence about them. Several researches cited by Bandura and Bussey (2012) have observed that if both parents and teachers would strive to portray non-stereotypic modelling, then children’s career aspirations will not be influenced by gender bias. This gender dichotomization and asymmetry in giving career guidance is stronger for fathers than mothers. Fathers are more active in differentiating gender attributes and roles and more demanding of male orientations in their sons. This paternal influence tends to persist throughout childhood although it may wane with age. As role models, most parents and heroic family members or relatives, assume that their children will take after their occupation.

Therefore, it is very apparent that parental influence may be positive or negative’ depending on parents’ attitudes. Whether it is negative or positive, the impact is strong. Parents may also influence their children’s career decision either positively or negatively by the frequent remarks they make about certain professions.

2.11.5 Developing personal values

Melgosa (2001, p. 53) observed that “Parents’ lifestyle (values, attitudes and practices) has a determining role in their children’s vocational choices, e.g. a family that upholds self–denial and selfless service may most likely have children with the same inclination.” It is a well known saying that “values are caught, not taught”. Thus it is very likely for an individual to catch the
family values than those of other institutions because the family has the strongest influence and
the child is under the influence of the family the greater part of his/her developmental years.
Parents also exert an influence on the work values of their children, which in turn influences
their vocational choice. Value development varies from culture to culture. According to Sharf
(1992) some cultures may glamorize one occupation while others may not. Some cultures may
value income as opposed to spirituality or educational success.

2.11.6 Providing social and financial support

Parents may support their children in the process of career decision making by providing
guidance which may include specific career or educational suggestions as well as experiences
that indirectly support career development. The absence of support, guidance, and
encouragement can lead to ‘floundering’ (Altman as cited by Kerka, 2000). On the other hand,
conflicting philosophies or coercion and manipulation of a child into a certain career, or when a
parent pressures a child toward a particular career and may withdraw financial and emotional
support for a career path not of the parent’s choosing may be considered as a barrier to successful
career decision making. This results in reduced career self efficacy.

In certain cultures there are specific professions ear-marked for a specific sex. Such cultures
have the gender roles well defined such that it is considered taboo for a female to assume to have
the potential to perform masculine jobs. Similarly boys who aspire to do feminine professions
such as nursing face the challenge of being less acceptable by the general society and
consequently they end up with lowered self-esteem. Several researches in western countries
(Alenoma, 2012; Zunker, 1981) indicate that when it comes to career decisions and career
development some parents tend to treat boys and girls differently, especially by raising their
career expectations for boys than girls; assuming that because boys are expected to be the breadwinners of the family, they need to have a stable career. Consequently most girls feel less motivated in the process of career development. Later as employees, these women take a passive role and end up with low job satisfaction or low career realisation.

At a time when more women are joining the workforce, this makes the competition for employment stiff. One needs to be on the cutting edge and avoid the risks of training for a career that might become obsolete in a few years time. In western countries in the 1900s, only about 18% of the working population were women; today more than 40% of the working population are women (Your Career, 1983, p. 11). As has been observed in the trends, about fifty years ago a woman’s place was in the home or if any chose to become professionals, their options were limited to the traditional professions such as nursing, teaching, dressmaking, etc. Hurlock (1973, 215) observed that, “For the average girl, a job was merely a stop gap between school and marriage”. By then, formal career guidance was not deemed necessary for there were few stereotyped professions based on some gender bias. While this was observed in western countries, in Zimbabwe or some African countries the figures for women employees were much less then. However, of late there has been a paradigm shift, with more women joining the workforce. People now advocate for equal opportunities for all. With the introduction of formal career guidance in secondary schools the percentages may have changed.

2.11.7 Socio-economic status and financial support

Socio-economic status (SES) factors include the social class. This is closely linked to familial factors. It is also a major determinant in career decision making as those of low socio-economic background may not afford expensive training programmes, thus restricting certain individuals
from making certain career options. In a way some careers are out of reach for some particular class of individuals unless there is some scholarship funding available. Numerous studies have presented evidence of close links between career development and socio-economic background. (Fowkes, 2007; Davidson, 2009)

Research by Fowkes (2007, p. 88) indicated that students from high socio-economic status seem to have higher career self-efficacy skills and conversely, students from lower SES reported to have more career decision making difficulties. She found that boys from high income families tended to assume they would go to college even at quite an early age. In contrast, boys from lower-income families tended to think in terms of skilled jobs which would offer them quick income and a higher rate of remuneration than their fathers received. This way, they quickly relieve their parents of the financial burdens or make up for the parental financial deficiencies. They generally tend to have modest aspirations as compared to those children from high income families. This is truly so because most parents from the high socio-economic status usually do not such as to associate themselves with blue-collar jobs or professions that are technical or involve manual labour. Gothard (1985) also concurs with Hurlock’s (1973) observation that students from middle class or average socioeconomic status are relatively highly represented at tertiary level of education. Most parents of higher socio-economic status have an inclination to influence the choice of career for their child generally towards glamour and prestige. Possibly it is because one’s career, to some extent, determines one’s social status. In the American culture, socio-economic status depends more upon the occupation than on any other factors (Belkin, 1988, p. 507). On the other hand, one’s socio-economic status determines attitudes towards certain careers. Some parents, because of their socio-economic status, hold certain prejudices
about some careers. Hurlock (1973, p. 215) observed that adolescents from the higher socio-economic groups are generally subject to greater family influence than those from the lower socio-economic class.

The socio-economic status of the parents can act as a limitation or an enhancer in career choice. As a result most adolescents from affluent homes feel the pressure from parents who would usually expect their children to take up white collar jobs and shun the blue collar ones. This is contrary to research findings by Ali et al. cited by Fowkes (2007, p. 88) which indicated that socio-economic status seems not to contribute much to career self efficacy. Actually it is more of the parents’ attitude than the child’s attitude. Hurlock (1973) argues that adolescents judge the prestige of a job from a different perspective. With the adolescent the order is: authority, followed by autonomy, then the salary, lastly the “title”. As a result some young adolescents are easily lured by occupational attractiveness associated with advertising stereotypes on media. Others are attracted by novels in hospitals with great ideas about doctors and nurses. Melgosa (2001, p. 53) suggests that it is important for parents to de-mythicise these fictional attitudes in the minds of the adolescents as they develop their career.

Socio-economic status also determines how much exposure to career opportunities a person has. An individual from a family of highly educated parents or parents who are professionals will most likely be more exposed to the career opportunities available as compared to the rural school child with parents who are subsistence farmers. Generally, the individual from the rural background is exposed to a relatively narrower variety of careers than the adolescent from the urban environment. Sharf (1992) observed that children know best those occupations that are in
their communities. For example, rural children tend to be exposed to fewer occupations than children in the urban areas where there are greater influences of the media. The general educational level and attitude of the parent (regardless of whether the parent is from developed countries or from developing countries) also influences career decisions. Parents who are more educated seem more proactive to help their children in career decisions (Fowkes, 2007, p. 88). According to Alenoma (2012), research in western countries has indicated that highly educated parents of high socio-economic status have high expectations for their male children than for female children to achieve high social status. Career guidance by such parents tends to promote male children to excel academically. Contrary to this observation, studies in Nigeria by Ipaye (1996) indicated that even the parents with low educational qualifications have high aspirations for their children, not desiring that these children face similar struggles such as their uneducated parents. From this background, even formal career counsellors need to understand the attitudes and values of their students and their economic background. Because attitudes and opinions can be modified, both the school career guidance providers and the parents can provide information that can motivate those adolescents from the solid working class family and from the under-privileged families to develop higher aspirations.

2.11.8 Personality development and self-awareness

Sperling (1982, p. 185) defines personality as “the arrangement of internal forces that mould the way an individual goes about being the person that he is”. Personality is a result of interaction between the individual’s genetic traits and the social and general environmental factors. The personality of an individual is a result of the interaction between nature and nurture. Both heredity and the environment contribute in shaping the individual’s personality. The home
background has a strong bearing on personality development. The individual’s personality plays an important role in the choice of a career. Hurlock (1973) observed that whether or not the individual is going to attain career realisation is strongly determined by the match between his/her personality and his/her career. Looking at career development theories such as Holland’s (1942) person-environment fit theory, if an adolescent chooses a career that fits his personality he stands a greater chance of experiencing career satisfaction and ultimately career realisation. On the other hand, if he selects a career which is not suited to his/her personality, he/she may have to work with people of different personality, be frustrated and unhappy in his job, dissatisfied with his achievements and anxious to change to an occupation that will meet his needs better.

A person with a low self image has feelings of inadequacy may not pursue careers that involve interpersonal skills, responsibility over personnel or major policy decisions. Secure and emotionally stable individuals tend to make stable and well satisfying career choices. Personality tests can be accessed on the internet. These can assist the individual understand their personality. Holland’s (1942) person-environment-fit theory is based on personality differences and how this can contribute to choosing the appropriate career best suited to one’s personality. Personality development is greatly influenced by heredity and the interests by the immediate environment, especially the home. Although the parental influence in career decision making may seem paramount, research has indicated that the parents alone cannot do it as Desai (2012) observed that parents have the most significant influences in a student’s career decision making process. Parents need to be equipped appropriately or to work collaboratively with the school, because the school is better equipped. According to Herr and Cramer (1972, pp. 148,149), “the involvement
of parents in the process is not limited to their role as their prime source of influence on their child’s occupational perceptions at the time he begins school, it should go on to include strategies that make parents collaborative rather than isolates in the education of their children”.

2.12 Strategies that are common to both formal and non-formal career guidance

Several strategies are used intentionally or unintentionally by both formal and non-formal career guidance counsellors. These include influencing the student in:

- developing right attitudes towards a variety of careers;
- development of interests in certain careers that suit the individual’s abilities and personality;
- developing achievement needs, job commitment and work ethics; and
- developing career decision making skills.

2.12.1 Developing right attitudes towards a variety of careers

Attitudes and interests are strongly influenced by parents, teachers, especially role models, mentors, peers and significant others. Attitudes are described by Sperling (1982, p. 263) as regularities in the way an individual feels, thinks and is predisposed to respond towards some aspect of his environment. Attitudes have a strong influence on the choice of a career. They are formed and shaped through early childhood, adolescence and adulthood experiences.

Both parents and teachers can influence career decision making as mentors, models or by creating stereotypic figures of certain careers in the minds of those they give career guidance. Hurlock (1973, p. 216) emphasises the significance of stereotypes. These are people whose interaction with the individual has a profound influence on their attitudes, emotions, and
behaviour and life decisions. Hurlock (1973, p. 216) observed that stereotypes of people in various occupations have a profound positive or negative influence on the adolescents’ attitudes towards those occupations.

As mentors or role models, both parents and teachers act as experienced and trusted advisors. These have a profound influence on the choice a career by mentees. This concurs with the social learning theory that emphasises that children learn from their role models by imitation. Sharf (1992, p. 133) observes that people who work in occupations that children can observe have the potential of becoming key figures. Although children can be influenced by both parents and teachers as role models, gender biases and gender stereotyping of careers play a role in the way the students are influenced into certain careers. Consequently there is an imbalance of female/male representation in certain careers where there are relatively few role models to attract more youths. Desai (2012) observed that: there is a dearth of women in scientific fields. Hence there is also a deficiency of female role models in scientific careers. Depending on the general structure of our labour force the adolescents may be influenced into or away from certain careers as they also take into consideration how socially accepted they will be if they choose certain careers that seem to go against the grain.

Fortunately, attitudes and interests can be changed, developed or influenced over time. By providing more information on careers and clarifying myths and misconceptions such as ‘all teachers are poor’ or ‘all those who take a career in banking or in other commercial courses are rich’. These attitudes can be modified and people can make career decisions more objectively. The world has developed certain myths about careers. These hinder objective career decisions in
youths who have not received adequate career guidance. Such myths include the ones discussed below and a factual explanation is given for each myth.

- White collar jobs are better than blue collar ones. Technical jobs are inferior to professional jobs. Based in this reasoning, most school career guidance counsellors and most parents tend to promote the careers associated with white collar jobs. Desai (2012) observed that technical and vocational education is often regarded as an inferior or second option career regardless of a student’s interests, passions, or abilities. Thus many young people despise promising and meaningful career paths in areas where employment demand is great, simply because of the stigma associated with working in technical and vocational occupations.

- One needs to have a university degree to have a satisfying career. Careers that are attained without a university degree are considered as second class. They are only an option when everything else fails.

- If you have not decided on a career before leaving school you will never make it in life. Career development is a process, such as any aspect of human development, some mature at a faster rate than others.

- A career with high salary is the most fulfilling career. Career realisation is not only a result of salary; it is a result of the congruence between the chosen career with one’s abilities, aptitudes, interests, personality and values in addition to the salary.

Unfortunately, some career guidance counsellors, even some parents, hold these myths.
2.12.2 Development of interests in certain careers that suit the individual’s abilities

The individual’s interests and personality are greatly influenced by the immediate nurturing environment (the school the home). Interest usually stems from exposure. Hence, both the home and the school can help an individual understand and develop their interests by exposing them to a variety of careers that may suit their personality and ability. Exposure to a greater variety widens one’s choice base and increases flexibility and versatility. During the period of transition from school to work it is encouraged that students explore different occupations in line with one’s abilities, personality, interests, aptitudes and values. This may be accomplished by deliberate efforts by students to talk to mentors, visit, read and inquire more about the careers one aspires to train for. In a way it helps the student to make realistic, informed and satisfying career decisions. This in turn plays a vital role in experiencing career satisfaction and career realisation. Interacting with mentors and role models, (parents and teachers included) may help the adolescent understand their interests and match them with their career expectations.

Unfortunately, both the parents and teachers may influence the career decisions negatively. An observation by Ipaye (1996:54) indicated that many times parents may not consider their children’s interests, because they do not want their sons or daughters to enter the same career with them. Forcing a child to do some career that he/she may not have potential for may jeopardize his/her chances of success in life. On the other hand school career guidance teachers have also been observed to steer girls away from subjects such as science and math that may lead them to careers of their aspiration as these are termed “masculine careers”. Both formal and non-formal career guidance may help adolescents to develop right attitudes towards all careers, develop self awareness and have their career goals focused. Hurlock (1973) observed that
adolescents who receive career guidance in school tend to develop more persistent interests than those who do not.

2.12.3 Developing career decision making skills

The ultimate career decision making requires a focused, principled and stable character. To be able to make a career decision that one will not regret later calls for objectivity. While most adolescents that are vocationally immature are swayed by peer pressure, the adolescent who is vocationally mature makes informed career decisions, choosing a career not for its prestige, or because of peer or parental pressure. Instead he/she makes his career decision because the career meets both his/her lower level (physiological, safety, belonging) as well as his/her higher level (esteem and self actualisation) needs. In other words, the career matches his/her abilities, interests, personality and values. The greatest pitfall to avoid is to make a career decision under pressure (peer pressure is equally as bad as parental pressure). Decisions made under pressure are unhealthy Zaidi & Iqbal, (2011). However, career decision should not be made in a hurry. On the other hand, prolonged career indecision is associated with poor career self-efficacy.

Failure to make the right choices results in job dissatisfaction and low career realisation.

Tolbert (1980, p. 414) observed that: “Although school staff members are extremely important in assisting the youth in their career development, there are other persons who also provide valuable assistance. These include parents, peers and other community members... without question parents can and should be the most influential role models and counsellors to their children.” Herr and Cramer (1972) also allude to parental involvement stating that their involvement may not be only limited to influencing their child’s occupational perceptions at the
time he begins school but should go on to include strategies that involve parents in partnership with the school instead of functioning as isolates in the education of their children.

From the preceding discussion both the school and the home play a very significant role in shaping the ultimate career decision. This is true for the following reasons:

- These two are the major interested parties; they are the key stakeholders, besides the student/child. The child is their centre of focus and a poor decision means a miserable future for their child and for themselves;
- parents form the developing person’s immediate environment (from early childhood to adolescence). To a great extent, they can contribute to the shaping and development of the child’s self-efficiency, assertiveness, self-confidence, values, attitudes, self-esteem and personality. This includes the opportunities they get exposed to in early childhood, the schools they choose for them to attend;
- the parenting style plays a significant part in career choice of the growing youth;
- parents also influence the child indirectly through genetic inheritance passed on to their offspring – “a chip from the old block.” This determines, to a great extent the child’s abilities and aptitudes and personality;
- as sponsors or guardians, parents can influence the child through their financial, material, and social support. Usually they are responsible for sponsoring the child to go for whatever vocational training they decide; because of this the child generally respects the parent’s decision;
- parents provide support and attachment, assets most needed by the adolescent during the transition time from formal schooling to work; and
most parents live with the child for the longest time from birth up to adulthood. They are the child’s first teacher; they understand the child’s background and early life experiences, background, unique needs, abilities and interests (Davidson, 2009:10) before the formal school begins and even after secondary school the child is with parents.

A recent study has shown that the most influential factor in young people’s choice of a degree course is advice from parents. Other familial sources of career advice include siblings, relatives and significant others. In addition to familial sources we also have other informal sources of advice include friends, employers, librarians, community workers and voluntary agents such as the Citizen’s Advice Bureaux. These tend to have relatively less influence as compared to parental and familial sources. Ali and Graham (1996) assert that despite their limitations informal sources of advice continue to be used for career guidance.

In the light of all this, after an adolescent develops some ideas of what he/she wants to do, both parent and child need to sit down and figure out how different professions fare with the economy and whether it’s a wise decision to pursue a job that is becoming extinct, or not (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999). Contrary to this, most school counsellors believe in the in loco parentis approach to the process of giving career guidance exclusively without involving parents (Davidson, 2009). However, other researchers believe “career planning supports could reap greater benefits if they went beyond the typical exposing of students to available career options; there must be an active engagement with key stakeholders that goes beyond simply providing information (Grubb cited by Dietsche, 2013).
2.13. Implementation of career guidance: Whose responsibility?

According to Rao (2000) the home and family comprise the most important informal agencies of the child’s education. Non-formal career guidance begins even before the child goes to school. The occupation one seeks to enter is determined by the needs developed in the first six years of life. Work represents the sublimation of infantile impulses into socially acceptable channels (Rao, 2000). While non-formal career guidance continues to run throughout one’s lifespan, formal career guidance has to be intensively done especially during the school-going years. Educationists are not in agreement as to at which stage formal career guidance could be introduced in the school curriculum. Some countries begin at primary level others at the beginning of secondary school and still others at form 3. In Zimbabwe career guidance begins with secondary education. Unfortunately, because of some administrative constrains, it is formally taught as from form 3 or 4 in most schools (Mutungwe et al., 2010). According to Shumba (1995, p. 5) every child who goes through secondary school education must receive career guidance to avoid students who end up developing unrealistic ambitions and to become discontented members of society.

Some researchers believe it is best to offer career guidance at ninth grade (Form Two), because occupational preferences in grade nine can influence educational plans and may result in specific course choices having far reaching implications. Other researchers suggest in lower secondary school because personal career guidance frequently targets students at key decision making points. Ipaye, (1996) contends that Form 3 is rather late for students to get enough exposure. Research in Zimbabwe indicated that most students felt that introducing career guidance to them in form 3 is rather late, because it comes after they have dropped crucial subjects such as some
sciences and mathematics (Mutungwe et al., 2010). Delayed career guidance may result in students poor subject selection and poor career choices.

Gibson and Mitchell (1981, p. 222) suggest a basic outline of a Comprehensive Career Education Model which can be spread out over the entire period of the secondary education (Form 1-4). This is illustrated in Table 2.5. The desired outcomes will help the individual to develop career maturity. The process of career guidance is expected to cover stated elements in a progressive way. This implies that as the student acquires other formal education he needs to be introduced to career education and mature so that by the time he is ready to leave school he is able to make tentative, informed decisions about his career.

Table 2.5: A typical Secondary School Career Education Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Desired outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self awareness (Knowledge of one’s aptitudes, abilities, limitations and interests.)</td>
<td>Self identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational awareness (linking education with different careers)</td>
<td>Educational identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career awareness</td>
<td>Career identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making skills</td>
<td>Career decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning competency</td>
<td>Employment skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employability</td>
<td>Career placement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes and appreciation</td>
<td>Self- social fulfilment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Gibson and Mitchell 1981:222)
According to Ginzberg’s (1951) theory, the tentative choices are made (during the tentative choice stage, ages; 11-17 years old), with consultation. Usually parents, teachers and peers are the best consultants (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999). Depending on the school, some schools allow parents to contribute in advising on the choice of subjects. However, most educators follow the in loco parentis or “in place of parent” view that it is the educators role to assume the responsibility to provide both academic and career guidance to the student; with limited or no parental participation as long as the student is at school (Davidson 2009).

Realizing the importance of the roles of both the parents and teachers is paramount to decide who should be responsible for the effective implementation of career guidance especially during the adolescent stage. There are different views. Some educators believe parental efforts interfere and hence they have not reached out to welcome them (Davidson, 2009, p. 17). According to Ali and Graham (1996), it will be highly insensitive of a career’s advisor to state bluntly that other people’s opinions do not matter and that the individual must openly assert his or her right to act independently. Although schools generally dominate the process of subject selection and channelling of students into prospective career pathways, parents help to shape the ultimate career decision by providing social and financial support. Effective career guidance may be achieved if the main stakeholders know their roles and work collaboratively. Actually there are greater chances for career guidance services to “reap greater benefits if they went beyond the typical descriptive format; there must be an active engagement with key stakeholders that goes beyond an information dump” (Grubb cited by Dietsche, 2013).

There are two extremes that are both confounding; the affluent have too much information on careers and need someone to assist them to sort out the relevant from the irrelevant. On the other
hand, the students from low economy schools and homes have a deficiency of career information. As Rao (2000) observed; most youths are handicapped by inadequate information about the opportunities available to them, while others have the information but lack effective career guidance. A collaborative approach seems most practical for obtaining the most benefit for the student.

Epstein’s Model (1987) of overlapping spheres (of the home and the school) explains it better. The concerted efforts of these two forces can enhance the adolescents’ career self efficacy. The important point for both to function effectively is the realisation of their shared goal; student’s career success and distinct roles. Lemmer (2007) succinctly points it out:

In contrast, the shared responsibilities of the school and home, emphasise the coordination, cooperation and complementary nature of schools and families, and encourage collaboration between the two (Epstein 1987, p. 121). Schools and families share responsibilities for the socialisation of the child. These common goals for children are achieved most effectively when teachers and parents work together {overlapping of the spheres: Epstein’s Theory of Parent Involvement} (Lemmer, 2007, p. 220).

According to this integrative model, there is interaction between the two environments, but the family is responsible for the non-formal developmental aspects in the home while school is responsible for formal developmental aspects; thus ultimately developing a successful student with career satisfaction. Their combined endeavour pushes the spheres of family and school influence together, increases interaction between parents and school. This creates school-like families and family-like schools (Epstein cited by Lemmer, 2007, p. 220). Both parties need to extend a welcoming hand to each other, as observed by Triddel (1992), “teachers need to share their ownership and habitual control of the school space...to ensure that the child benefits from both influences.” When the key stakeholders participate, the adolescent’s career self efficacy is
enhanced and due to this perceived support from both parties, he/she is bound to make informed satisfactory career decisions that lead to career realisation.

2.14 Evaluating the effectiveness of career guidance

No single study is sufficiently comprehensive to assess the effectiveness of career guidance (Herr, 1974; Watts et al, 1996). Some researchers suggest qualitative and others quantitative methods of assessing effectiveness. One of the best methods to evaluate the effectiveness of any programme may be to evaluate it against its goals and desired or expected outcome. This same concept can also be applied to career guidance programme. According to Cheunyane (1990), the goals of career guidance are considered effective and successful if they meet the needs and expectations of the stakeholders by producing desirable behaviour change in the students. However, because career guidance is a process, its evaluation is difficult to measure, especially if the evaluation is done too early. It is also complicated to measure behaviour change as a way of assessing the degree of career guidance effectiveness because currently there is no available instrument for measuring. It may also not be very accurate to attribute any undesirable behaviour to poor career guidance because the student has his/her power of choice despite exposure to good career guidance. Zunker (1996) posits that the success of career guidance can be measured by the students’ demonstration of career decision making skills. Hamblin and Schuster (1993) observed that in spite of all the effort made by career guidance providers many students still decide haphazardly and make career decisions on trial and error basis or as an opportunistic affair. However, the same authors still suggest that such incidences should not justify throwing the towel; but instead as educators, we must ensure that career guidance is a long term process that is linked to every subject the student is learning.
Perhaps the most appropriate tool to assess the effectiveness of a career guidance programme is to analyse the self reports of those who received the career guidance (their perceptions about the career guidance they received, how pleased they are with their current career, whether or not they experience career satisfaction.). In brief, this can be summed up as the resultant job satisfaction and career satisfaction and career realisation. An Omnibus survey on career satisfaction levels was carried out in United States of America by American Speech-language and Hearing Association -ASHA (Zingeser (2004). ASHA) asserts that “both career satisfaction and job satisfaction relate to one’s happiness with one’s work life... Career satisfaction may be defined as the level of overall happiness experienced through one's choice of occupations. Job satisfaction relates to one's current work situation and is dependent on many factors, including the marketplace, work conditions, job location, and other dynamic influences (Zingeser, 2004), ASHA also posits that “Career satisfaction may be assessed by assigning ratings to satisfaction measures”. For example; in the 1988 Omnibus Survey, ASHA respondents indicated whether they were ‘very satisfied,’ ‘satisfied’, ‘neutral’, ‘dissatisfied’, or ‘very satisfied’ with their careers (Zingeser, 2004).

In the context of this research career realisation is experiencing both job satisfaction and career satisfaction at optimal levels. Career realisation is an abstract concept, which is rather difficult to measure. However, the self reports can be ranked according to the degree of satisfaction. Because currently there is no specific instrument for measuring career – realisation, the researcher had to depend on the self reports of the participants and quantify these so that it can be measured and thus allow comparisons to be made.
2.15 *Indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation*

From the foregoing discussion, career satisfaction may not be defined as a single component, so is career realisation. Because both of these are multidimensional, they can be represented by assessing the absence or the degree of the presence of certain facets that represent them. Such facets are described in this research as indicators of career satisfaction or indicators of career realisation. Such indicators include the following: autonomy, achievement, belonging and acceptance besides the financial remuneration and other allowances of monetary value. These are very similar to the factors identified as contributing to job satisfaction according to the ASHA 1995 Omnibus Survey (Zingeser, 2004). These include: type of job, pay, collaborative atmosphere, administration, flexibility, challenge, commute, advancement, development and consideration for children. This is based mainly on Maslow Hierarchy of need (Theory of motivation and job satisfaction) and the generic job satisfaction scale (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997). In this research study the researcher focused on the following factors as of significance to determining career realisation:

- recognition and approbation;
- affection and interpersonal relationships;
- mastery and achievement;
- dominance, (need to have power and control over others);
- social welfare (need to help others);
- self expression;
- socioeconomic status;
- moral and spiritual values;
creativity and challenge;
- economic security (salary, allowances, benefits.); and
- independence, some degree of autonomy.

According to the theories of job satisfaction such as Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, and Herzberg’s two factor theory, explained in the conceptual framework (section 1.9). Many people tend to consider these as the key factors that define success or failure in career development. When a majority of these or the ones considered to be crucial are not well met then the individual may not attain job satisfaction or career realisation.

In brief, “work satisfaction and life satisfaction depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits and values; they depend upon his establishment in a type of work, a work situation and a way of life in which he can play the kind of role which his growth and exploratory experiences have led him to consider congenial and appropriate” (Hoppock 1957, p. 98). When the above described basic needs are met then the individual is closer to ultimate career realisation. In other words it is a measure of the degree of congruence of lifestyle and occupation as well as the suitability of the work (Tolbert, 1980, p. 90). This measure of satisfaction to some extent can be used as a way of assessing the effectiveness of a school career counselling programme.

2.16 Other indicators of career satisfaction

Career realisation is a multidimensional concept, so it cannot be measured or assessed by asking a single question or assessing the absence or presence of one factor. However, because career realisation is believed to be a step above career satisfaction, it can be measured by modifying the tools that measure career satisfaction (if the same tools are modified appropriately). From the
operational definition of career realisation it is clear that it is closely associated with job satisfaction and career satisfaction. The other factors contributing to job satisfaction include nature of the job (type), pay, collaborative spirit, administration, or supervision, flexibility, challenge, autonomy, development, family consideration. Besides these, there are several indicators of career realisation besides satisfaction with work related conditions (remuneration, working conditions, opportunities for self development and other factors included in the designed career realisation inventory). Some of the most common ones are; influencing others positively to join a similar career, contentment is generally characterized by not desiring to change career, number of times one has changed their career, desiring to remain in the same career for a relatively longer time. According to Zaidi and Iqbal (2011), career contentment can also be enhanced by choosing a career that matches one’s personality traits. Career contentment and work contentment values are the most effective factors that contribute to job satisfaction which is a measure or indicator of career realisation.

Additional intrinsic indicators of the degree of career realisation include an exuberant excitement about one’s career that can be observed in job involvement (the “importance of one’s job to his self image” (Blau, 1987). This is characterised by positive talk about one’s career and a desire to influence others to join the same career, and a confirmation by self reporting that one’s career suits their interest and personality. Usually if one has a positive self image about their job they talk about it and influence others into a similar career. Blau (1987) posits that “job involvement; importance of one’s job to his self image and organisational commitment are significant predictors of employee turn-over”. Greater job involvement is characterised by talking positively
about one’s career and encouraging others to join it. One may rightly conclude that the greater the job involvement, the higher the career realisation level.

If one’s job gives them a sense of achievement, then it is an indicator that they experience career satisfaction and some degree of career realisation. Conversely, a discontented spirit and a desire to quit are indicators of absence of career satisfaction or less career satisfaction and no career realisation. In brief there are certain behaviours that are associated with high or low career satisfaction and career realisation. From the foregoing discussion the researcher came up with a list of the most outstanding indicators of high and low career realisation. These indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation are summarised in the Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: *Other Indicators of Career Realisation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>Indicator statement</th>
<th>Relationship to career realisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Desire to influence others to join a similar career (job involvement)</td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Desire or wish to switch or change career to a better one</td>
<td>Low career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Intention to stay longer in the same career</td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>My career suits my interests</td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>My career matches my personality</td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>My career gives me a sense of accomplishment</td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I wish I would quit and pursue a career of my choice</td>
<td>Low career realisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Career personality and career-interest congruency have been shown to be good indicators of career satisfaction and hence career realisation (Zaidi and Iqbal, 2011; Boyd and Bee, 2009).
According to Holland’s person–environment-fit theory, the congruency between career-ability match, career-personality match, and career-interest match are good indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation (Hopson and Hayes, 1978; Tieger and Tieger, 2009; Melgosa, 2001; Zaidi and Iqbal, 2011). Studies by Blau, (1987) indicate that the degree of match between an individual and his preferred working environment can be used as predictors of whether the individual will last long in the same career or not (tenure). Boyd and Bee (2009) concur with this observation that employees who are happy have lower turnover rates.

2.17 Possible causes of career dissatisfaction

Career dissatisfaction is a multi-factorial component just as career satisfaction is. It is manifested in one or more of the following ways. Career dissatisfaction usually results if there is no congruence between the work conditions or expectations with one’s interests, ability and personality. If there is a large discrepancy between the expected motivators and the offered motivators the individual may experience low levels of career realisation. Studies (Hurlock, 1973; Sperling, 1982) have identified several reasons why many people may experience job dissatisfaction. Some of these cases are summarised below:

- when an adolescent may have to take any job he could get regardless of his interests or preferences;
- having inadequate career guidance; the individual may hold certain expectations about a job only to be shocked by the rude awakening of reality when he sees an outstanding difference between what he expected and the actual reality;
- Dissatisfaction may also be due to circumstances; the subjects passed at secondary school may not meet the entry requirements for the career aspired for. The individual may not
have had a true picture of their abilities; as a result the individual had higher aspirations than their abilities;

➢ failure to adjust from protective home life to the work environment may result in career dissatisfaction;
➢ entering a career in which he will need some academic skill he lacks or will not get;
➢ choosing a vocation for which there is little or no present demand while one is young;
➢ entering training he will not be able to afford to finish training in time;
➢ one tries to fulfil the thwarted ambitions of his parents; and
➢ lack of career goals by the time one reaches the end of secondary school.

In brief, all these are associated with how career guidance is implemented. Inadequate or faulty career guidance may lead to one or more of these. This in turn leads to less career satisfaction and low career realisation. Low career realisation results in low motivation and low productivity at work. This is usually accompanied by generally low aspirations about self development in one’s career and a negative attitude about the working conditions or changing jobs frequently. The choice of a career is a very crucial decision and must be taken seriously. According to Hoppock (1957) the choice of an occupation may determine success or failure in life. It may also determine whether one will enjoy or detest his/her work. In brief, the choice of an occupation influences almost every other aspect of life because your career can interfere with your values, your family, your religion and even your hobbies. One cannot afford to choose a career haphazardly, then flounder around hopping from one career to another and expect to have career realisation.
Considering the far reaching influence of making poor career decisions, it is important that the student maximizes the development of career decision making skills by getting started early on career guidance. It is very imperative for those who participate as primary counsellors or as key consultants to be conversant with the different theories, be well equipped with the best, accurate and latest information on entry requirements and working conditions in different careers so that the student can make informed career decisions. It is also necessary for career counsellors to have information about trends in the job market and latest developments in different careers. In addition as the individual acquires other formal education in school, there is a need to link up the non-formal with the formal career guidance.

According to Chireshe and Mapfumo (2005), an effective guidance and counselling programme is expected to have the following components; planning, organising, implementation and evaluation. The same authors also observed that most schools do not seem to have a definite timetable or textbook or resource materials for that subject. Mutungwe et al. (2010) also observed that the facilitators in most career guidance programme are not thoroughly equipped with the necessary skills and resources. On the other hand, although most parents are keen to assist in career guidance, they are handicapped in that they lack adequate skills and resources. Without adequate career guidance from both formal and non-formal sources, the student may make blunders in career decisions and end up experiencing career dissatisfaction.

2.18 Relationship between career guidance and career satisfaction

The degree of career satisfaction experienced by any individual depends, to a great extent, on the effectiveness of career guidance. Good career guidance leads to satisfactory career choices and ultimately to career realisation; and conversely, poor career guidance may not lead to satisfactory
choices and consequently may result in low career realisation. Studies by Zaidi and Iqbal (2011) indicate that there is a strong correlation between career selection and job satisfaction. In the same vein there is correlation between career selection and career satisfaction. According to these authors; career selection lays the foundation of an individual’s career satisfaction and better career selection increases the chances of experiencing career satisfaction (Zaidi and Iqbal, 2011).

Tieger and Tieger (2009), proponents of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (or MBTI), strongly believe that matching a person's personality type to a career is the best guarantee of attaining career satisfaction. Hence, the degree of career satisfaction is a reflector of the effectiveness of the career guidance. Spector (n.d.) cited by Borchert (2000) adds that; job satisfaction is regarded as an indicator of good career decision making because it represents an important goal of career counselling and is regarded as an indicator of effective career guidance. Hence it is also commonly evaluated outcome for assessing career guidance effectiveness. From Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs the individual only experiences career realisation after attaining career satisfaction. In the same vein, if career satisfaction may be a predictor of career guidance effectiveness, the degree of career realisation may be used as a measure of the effectiveness of a career guidance programme.

The effectiveness of career guidance is best assessed after some years in the career than immediately after leaving school. A study on Australian adolescents (Sheldon, Hillman, Mcmillan and Curtis, 2008) indicated that although most students seemed satisfied with the career advice they got at school, however, it was realised after some years that they were not satisfied with their careers because there were mismatches between the career chosen (following career guidance) and their actual career aspirations.
According to ASHA (2004) publication, both career satisfaction and job satisfaction are related to how happy one is with their work life, but each is unique just as a career is not the same as the job. Career satisfaction may be defined as the level of overall happiness experienced through one's choice of occupations. Job satisfaction relates to one's current work situation and is dependent on many factors, including the marketplace, work conditions, job location, and other dynamic influences. Villard (cited by Adeyemo, 2007) describes job satisfaction as what the job offers which includes components such as financial rewards, resources, interests, challenges, occupational prestige, autonomy, relationships with co-workers and supervisors involvement in decision making, comfort factors such as working hours and the physical surroundings travel times, etc. It is how successful one is with his career. Succeeding in the world of work suggests that people work for three reasons; economic reason, social reason and psychological reason. These three will determine the level of satisfaction with one’s career.

Success is both a life goal and a career goal (Your Career, 1983) In general terms it is preceded by, but not equivalent to job satisfaction. In other words, it is job satisfaction, plus a sense of accomplishment that drives a person to work even if the other motivators are limited. Job satisfaction depends on the correspondence between the worker's needs and the motivators (reinforcement) the job provides (Meyer, 1975). In addition to the met needs, career satisfaction and achievement depend on the congruence of one’s personality and work environments (Gibson and Mitchell, 1981). Although these have distinct meanings, both of these constructs are necessary for one to experience career realisation.
2.19 Career realisation

Career realisation is the ultimate goal of all career guidance programmes. Occupation is a means of self realisation or self discovery and career counselling assists students to attain career maturity and actualisation (Rao, 2000, p. 218). Therefore career realisation can only be accomplished if career guidance places the individual into a satisfying career, congruent to their abilities, interests and personality. According to Roe (cited by Sharf, 1992, p. 264), work gives the individual an opportunity for self actualisation. However, for those who are mismatched, whose abilities go beyond what is required by their careers, self actualisation may be impeded. Career realisation is a multifaceted construct; therefore it connotes different things to different people. In this research, the functional definition for career realisation is: the fulfilling feeling one has about his/her career. It can be extended to imply the sum of job satisfaction plus career satisfaction plus the sense of fulfilment or accomplishment with one’s career which comes as a result of the congruence between one’s personality, interests, abilities and one’s career plus the inherent career motivators and de-motivators. In this research, career realisation is best represented in the following equation:

\[
\text{CAREER REALISATION} = \text{MOTIVATORS (TO MEET NEEDS)} + \text{CONGRUENCY BETWEEN CAREER WITH PERSONALITY, INTERESTS AND ABILITIES.}
\]

Fulfilment of the lower level needs on Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs comes first. This will lead to the higher subsequent level, which in turn leads to the next, and so on. According to Maslow’s Hierarchy, it is practically impossible to have the higher level fulfilled before the lower level needs are met. In the same vein, one may not experience career realisation when his/her basic needs are not met by the motivators from his/her career. Neither can one experience career
actualisation by simply having career personality-match or career-ability match. Besides the right match, a satisfying career must meet the individual’s basic needs. It is to achieve this end that career development theories have kept evolving, trying to have the right match and the appropriate motivators. It is only when there is the correct match and the expected motivators that a career is considered satisfactory. Only within such a career may the individual experience career realisation. Effective career guidance, then must lead the individual to the best career; a career which also provides the expected motivators. In brief, career realisation begins with job satisfaction which leads to career satisfaction and ultimately to career realisation, as illustrated below.

**Job satisfaction > career satisfaction > sense of achievement > career realisation**

**Career realisation = career satisfaction (sense of achievement) + contentment with what one gets from their career + close match between career and interests, abilities and one’s personality.**

Career realisation includes job satisfaction and career satisfaction and goes beyond these two. Although career realisation may vary from one individual’s perspective to the other, it generally involves what most employees value in a career, which the career may offer as motivators, reinforcement or rewards. It is about the demands of a career and what the career offers. There is need to have balance between the inputs from the employee and the output from the career and the employer. According to many psychologists, career realisation can be summed up as meeting one’s basic needs plus the extras, such as esteem needs. These needs are prioritized according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs according to this order: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and lastly, self actualisation. DuBrin (1992, p. 30) observes
that the typical adult satisfies about 85% of physiological, 70% of the safety (security), 50% (belonging/social/love), 40% esteem needs and about 10% self actualisation. In short, one will always desire to have his physiological needs met first and foremost. The sequence of attaining career realisation begins with the satisfaction of physiological needs, then safety, belonging, esteem and finally self actualisation. In other words it is job satisfaction > career satisfaction > career realisation.

Ipaye cited by Hwara (2005, p. 17) noted that in Nigeria, “workers seek for a job first to satisfy physiological and safety needs through earning a salary.” Only after basic needs have been met will an individual seek for promotion, holiday allowance, etc. Hoppock (1957, p. 81) also observed that needs may lead to satisfaction. However, he also noted that emotional needs may not always lead us to irrational occupational choices. Schaffer cited by Hoppock (1957, p. 94), studied job satisfaction as related to need satisfaction among 72 employed men, most of whom were in professional and semi-professional occupations. He states that

Over-all satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied. The stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment...the more accurate job prediction of over-all job satisfaction can be made from the measure of the extent to which each person’s strongest two or three needs are satisfied (pp. 94, 95).

In this case, effective career guidance is that which best meets the needs of the student as an employee. Such career guidance may lead to career realisation levels. According to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, basic physical necessities must be satisfied before higher level needs are addressed. According to Gibson & Mitchell (1981, p. 234) occupations are chosen to meet our needs; we choose the one that best meets our needs. Job satisfaction can result from the job that
best meets our needs today and promises to meet our needs in the future. The degree of satisfaction depends on the ratio between what we have and what we want. Hence a job or career that is most likely going to give us satisfaction is one that best satisfies our expected needs. Because careers are chosen to meet one’s needs (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981; Hopson & Hayes, 1978), a career that best meets one’s needs will most probably ensure career satisfaction and consequently career realisation (Huffman, 2002).

According to Singh (2005), the modern day adolescent is surrounded by a career world that is rampant with career information, both relevant and irrelevant. According to researches, the availability of information alone is not enough (Davidson, 2009), the young adolescent’s mind needs guidance in the process of career decision making so that they may make informed career decisions, avoid regretting and experience career realisation. Unfortunately, the common practice is to involve both the home and school in giving career guidance to the child (students). But unfortunately, each separately provides career guidance to the same student, who in this case is just a passive recipient. The student may often become confused by the conflicting advice. (See Figure 2.2).
Both the school and the home have a shared responsibility of providing career guidance to the student (child). However, there seems to be no direct interaction between the home/parent and the school concerning career guidance. The roles of each party are not distinct. When these responsibilities are not properly shared, there are no clear-cut role clarifications. There are grey areas and sometimes one of the parties may sabotage or there is a tug of war or stepping on each other’s toes; and this may prove detrimental to the child (Triddel, 1992; Shah, 2001).

Several researches (Your Career, 1983; Bloomberg, 1984; Singh, 2005; Sink, 1982; Davidson, 2009; Kerka, 2000, Nziramasanga Commission, 1999) strongly concur that in matters of career
guidance, sources of counsel may include these main stake holders; the school guidance director/counsellor, school administrators, teachers, your parents, your pastor, mentors, those already working in the career of your aspiration, and lots of books, interest inventories, personality inventories and other literature that deal with career choices and career trends. Students need to have adequate career guidance before making career decisions. Does formal career guidance provide adequate career guidance or is non-formal career guidance enough to lead to career satisfaction and career realisation? This is the major question the researcher seeks to answer. The researcher believes there is need to span the gap between formal and non-formal career guidance by taking a collaborative approach so as to optimize the student’s career realisation level when he/she is employed.

2.20 Chapter Summary
The demand for effective career guidance is high, for time is precious. No one wants to waste three or four years training for the wrong profession. As Murwira, (1997, p. 9) puts it; “careers may no longer be chosen on a trial and error basis as in the past.” This also implies that in the choice of a career, young people need to have a definite aim and remain focussed. A general lack of career self efficacy has been observed in many young people who flounder. In some countries it has also been observed that; “ten years after graduation about 80% of college/university graduates are working in careers that are completely unrelated to the careers they seriously considered as they trained in college or university (Your Career; 1983, p. 7). With the current trends we need an efficient career guidance system that focuses on the individual’s abilities, interests, personality, socio-economic trends, parental and individual values so as to maximize the student’s career realisation when employed.
This chapter examined the origin of career guidance and the theories that undergird the different approaches to career guidance. These theories include the talent matching theories and Holland’s person-environment–fit theory which focus on matching the individual’s abilities with the most suitable career. However, they do not consider that careers are also chosen to meet other personal needs. Life span approach theories focus on the importance making career decisions considering that career decision is not a one-time event and that careers influence one’s entire life. Hence, those who live with the individual have a strong influence on career decisions. The social learning and ecological theories emphasize the influence of the immediate environment although they focus less on the significance of the individual’s abilities. Lastly, the researcher also looked at Hoppock’s composite theory. This takes an eclectic approach and also realizes the fact that careers are not only chosen according to personality and abilities, but they need to meet the individual’s physiological, security, belonging and esteem needs. To get the most out all these theories, the researcher adopted Epstein’s model of overlapping spheres of influence and Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs, because the researcher believes that effective career guidance should involve both the home (parent) and the school. In order for the individual to experience career actualization, the career must meet his/her physiological, safety, belonging and esteem needs. This explains the basis of using these two theories in the theoretical framework.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter describes the research methodology. The researcher describes the research design, the research variables, the research population and sample. Lastly the chapter focuses on the instruments for data collection, data collection and data analysis.

The objective of this study was two-fold:

a. analysing the major sources of influence on secondary school students’ career decisions, and;

b. comparing the career satisfaction and career realisation levels of the participants according to the following categories; participants influenced by formal career guidance; participants influenced by non-formal career guidance and participants influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance in their career decisions.

The appropriate research methodologies were chosen to achieve the purpose of the study. The research methodologies need not disadvantage the research participants. Career decisions are crucial. They determine how successful or unsuccessful one might become in life. Career decisions have lasting ripple effects; one wrong step may cost an individual 4 years of retraining and other financial and psychosocial implications which may take almost a lifetime to correct. Once wrong decisions are made it is difficult to reverse the effects. The researcher believes that career realisation is everyone’s aim as they enter into any career. As observed by Belkin (1988, p. 511), people make decisions about careers with an aim of optimising their satisfaction by finding the best possible fit between their first priority needs and desires and opportunities that
confront them in the world of work. Realising that everyone’s aim in career decision making is to attain career satisfaction and career realisation, unnecessary experimentation with students’ lives was avoided in this study. To achieve the research objectives, the researcher had to select research methods that are as accurate and as precise as possible and yet exposing the research participants to as little risk as possible.

3.2 Research Design
The researcher used a descriptive research design, following a quantitative, non–experimental approach. This was carried out in the form of a causal comparative (ex post facto) survey research. The researcher tried to link already existing effects to some variable as the causative agent as suggested by Awoniyi, Aderanti and Tayo (2003, p. 47). The causes of high or low career realisation levels are studied after they have presumably exerted their effect on the variable. In this case, the researcher looked at the level of career realisation as a reflection of the effectiveness of the type of career guidance that influenced the respondent to select their career. In other words, the individual’s degree of career realisation depends on the effectiveness of the influential career guidance.

The researcher analysed the relationship that exists between the independent variables: type of career guidance (Formal and Non-formal) and dependent variable (career realisation level).

Descriptive research seeks to find answers to existing questions through the analysis of variable relationships. In this particular research the researcher analysed the association of these variables in retrospect. It is impracticable or unethical to arrange certain occurrences, such as assigning students into categories whereby one group may need to be channelled into career decisions based on non-formal career guidance and be deprived of any formal career guidance
and the other group deprived of any sources of non-formal career guidance and depend on only the formal sources only. It is highly likely that very few individuals would opt to volunteer and participate in such a research where they are deliberately deprived of desired resources for the sake of experimentation. Therefore an analysis of already existing, observable conditions was considered by the researcher as the only way to study the causation. The researcher was not in a position to manipulate the independent variables (type of career guidance) because this might have negative long term implications on the research participants. Hence she decided to focus on a pool of individuals who made their own career decisions based on the most influential forms of career guidance available. Hence the researcher used the causal comparative research.

The causal comparative research is also called the *ex post facto research* because the causes of a phenomenon are studied in retrospect (Borg & Gall, 1989; Best & Kahn, 1996; Sevilla et al., 1996). The main advantage of a causal comparative research is that it can be used to study cause–and-effect relationships in situations where experimental manipulations are not possible or difficult.

Causal comparative research is also advantageous in that it allows several variables to be studied in a single project. In this case, several factors associated with career realisation, such as the type of career guidance, closeness of career-personality match, interest-personality match and other demographic factors such as age, gender position are also studied. The causal comparative research is helpful in making inferences about what factors seem to be associated with certain occurrences or outcomes (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 538). Unlike most experimental researches, the causal comparative research does not allow for manipulation of participants, because the research is carried out after the effects are observed.
The most effective way of carrying the comparison in a causal comparative research is by comparing relative quantities. The researcher carried out a quantitative comparative analysis of the career realisation levels of former students (currently employees in 4 different organisations). According to Bryman (2001, p. 74), the main preoccupations of a quantitative research are measurement, causality, generalization and replication. In this case the researcher’s aim was to find out the antecedent or causation that gives rise to low career realisation among a certain group of employees. The researcher hypothesised that this noticeable difference in career realisation could be due to the nature of career guidance these employees received at secondary school level. In this case, the career guidance has already been done and cannot be manipulated, however the effects of each of these different types of career guidance can be analysed. Hence the researcher chose this approach, a causal comparative research.

Realising the possibility of other extraneous variables, the researcher also made a parallel analysis of the effects of such variables such as age, gender, employing organisations, position of the participants. In other words, all things being equal, how do individuals who were influenced by formal career guidance compare with those influenced by non-formal career guidance in their levels of career realisation. This done to minimize errors associated with such confounding variables.

According to educational researchers (Fraenkel & Wallen; 2000; Borg & Gall, 1989), the causal comparative research is intended to determine the possible causes for differences between groups of people. This is accomplished by comparing subjects in whom the characteristic is present with similar subjects in whom the characteristic is absent or present in a lesser degree. Career realisation level of the participants was the major dependent variable.
The researcher carried out a cross-sectional, quantitative research. The effects of making wrong career decisions may take years to be noticed, so it seemed less advantageous to carry out a longitudinal research, for this might take long (perhaps up to ten years). Meanwhile certain variables could be affected by time lapse. A shorter research (cross-sectional research) would provide a quick feedback so as to improve implementation of both formal and non-formal career guidance. So the researcher opted to carry out a cross-sectional research to analyse the impact of formal career guidance as compared to the non-formal career guidance on the career realisation levels of the research participants.

3.3 Major variables

The major variables are of two types, independent and dependent variables. The independent variables in this study are: Formal career guidance and non-formal career guidance. The dependent variable is: career realisation.

3.3.1 Independent variables

The major independent variables under study are formal career guidance, represented by the letter “F” and non-formal career guidance represented by “N/F”. In addition to this, a third variable emerged, ‘Both’. This group represented those participants who indicated that they were equally influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance in their career decision. This was observed by the researcher when the respondents completed the questionnaire of the pilot study. From the pilot study, it was observed that more than a third of the respondents were influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance. So, even in the actual research, instead of working with two groups as originally intended, the researcher ended up working with three groups. There was a large (35.6%) intermediate group of respondents in the actual research
who reported to have been strongly influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance. This increased the groups under study from two to three. However, according the working title of this study, the major independent variables under comparison are still two; formal career guidance and non-formal career guidance.

3.2.2. The dependent variable: Career realisation

Career realisation is an abstract concept, which is rather difficult to measure. There was no ready-made career realisation measuring instrument. However, because the researcher used a quantitative approach, and according to Bryman (2001, p. 74) the main preoccupations of a quantitative research are measurement, causality, generalization and replication. The researcher had to quantify career realisation so that it can be measured and thus allow comparisons to be made. Career realisation is a multidimensional concept, so it cannot be measured or assessed by asking a single question. Thus, a multiple indicator inventory (an instrument to measure relative career realisation level of employees) consisting of 20 questions about major aspects of career satisfaction was designed and used. From the operational definition of career realisation it is clear that it is closely associated to job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Hence, the researcher designed this Inventory based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Huffman, 2002) and Macdonald & MacIntyre, (1997) ‘s generic job satisfaction scale: The other factors contributing to job satisfaction include nature of the job (type), pay, collaborative spirit, administration, or supervision, flexibility, challenge, autonomy, development, family consideration. This is included in Section C of the questionnaire, items 25-44. Additional intrinsic indicators of the degree of career realisation were also used to make the comparisons more meaningful. A copy of this inventory is attached in the Appendix B.
3.3.3 Other indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation

The other indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation include a relative desire to influence others to join the same career, job involvement (Blau, 1987). In addition to this commitment to career and not wishing to change from that career (Blau, 1987) was also considered. Lastly, a satisfied feeling that one’s career matches with one’s interests and personality as supported by Holland’s career personality match was also considered. (Melgosa, 2001; Borchert, 2002; Tieger and Tieger, 2009; Desai, 2012) These were discussed in Chapter 2 and are summarised in Table 2.6.

3.4. Extraneous variables

Other variables that may mediate against the influences of type of career guidance on career realisation were also considered under demographic data as extraneous variables, these are:

- Age;
- Gender;
- Level of education;
- Professional discipline;
- Position and
- Years of working experience.

To reduce the threats due to such extraneous variables (uncontrolled variables that make it possible to have an alternative explanation), Fraenkel and Wallen (2000, p. 394) suggest randomization, homogenous groupings, and matching groups. The researcher analysed the impact of each of these extraneous variables looking using the matching-groups technique (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000) This involves comparing participants of the same age group, same
position and same number of years of experience as per type of career guidance. In other words, all things being equal, which type of career guidance results in higher levels of career realisation?

3.5 Population

The target population for this study were 400 employees in four different professions; at six selected different sites representing the four different employing institutions: The ministry of health, Ministry of education, Industry sector and the Business office represent the largest employing institutions in Zimbabwe. Hence the researcher purposefully targeted employees from these institutions. To ensure better representation, the researcher selected two schools and two business office employers.

- Harare Central hospitals,
- two schools in Harare (CBD and Sub-urban)
- one industry in Hi-Glen industrial site and
- two business offices (Harare CBD and sub-urban).

3.5.1 Research site selection

The research sites were selected from Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. It becomes highly likely to get the best representation of students from different schools as most people desire to work in the capital city. From The general analysis, The 90 participants indicated from the demographic data that they had received their secondary school education from different schools around Zimbabwe, but were now working in Harare.

- One site was Western part of Harare, in the industrial site;
a second one was at the Harare Central Hospitals, Parirenyatwa (CBD); Ministry of Health;

third were two business offices in Harare Central Business District (CBD) and Borrowdale Brooke: Office employees and

the last one comprised of two schools; one in Harare CBD and the other in Harare suburban, Northern part of Harare. Ministry of Education).

In brief, the participants were from two government employing sectors (Ministry of Education and Ministry of Health) and two private employing sectors (Business office and Industry). The accessible population consisted of the following (professional employees) categories; health workers, industry employees, educational institution employees and business office employees.

### 3.5.2 Research Sample

Fraenkel and Wallen (2000, p. 397) identify two major weaknesses of the causal comparative research as lack of randomization and inability to manipulate an independent variable. In a causal comparative research it is difficult to randomly assign the participants to groups because the researcher has no say in the formation of the comparison groups. In the case of a causal comparative research, random assignment is not possible, because the research is *ex post facto* (From after the fact). However, the research sample was purposefully selected according to the following criteria:

- Having at least “O “ level education
- Having been in employed in one of the institutions for at least two years.

The criteria were explained before participants could participate. The researcher drew a sample from Harare, the capital city, representative of the population from different parts of the country.
These four different employing institutions represent the major formal employment sectors in Zimbabwe. Two sites were selected to represent the Ministry of Education because this group represents a relatively large group of employees. However, the numbers of questionnaires distributed for each employing institution was the same.

The causal comparative research involves looking at results first, then making inferences for the possible causations of such results, studying the effects of the variables in retrospect. In this case the researcher looked at differences in the levels of career realisation in employees. Some seemed to experience low career realisation, while others seemed to be experiencing higher levels of career realisation. It was practically impossible to extract equivalent groups for comparison, because the researcher could not manipulate the sample. In a way analysing the relative distribution of participants influenced by formal or by non-formal career guidance in the whole sample would give a reflection of how each type of career guidance is acceptable to these former secondary school students (then employees).

Sevilla et al. (1996, p. 150) also suggest randomizing within the groups and exercising selective manipulation; that is, selecting subjects that fit the variables under study. Hence the researcher used purposive sampling, getting those individuals that meet the criteria. Because career guidance was introduced in Zimbabwe about 20-25 years ago (though some schools still have not introduced it formally), the researcher tried to get a sample from a population comprising of relatively young workers, the majority of them with 10-20 years of working experience.

The researcher also used stratified sampling to get a better representation of gender from the professional categories. Realising that most of the respondents were females, purposive sampling
was also carried out so as to have a balance in the proportion of the males and females especially among the health and education employees (although the females were still relatively more in most employing organisations). For example, among the health workers, 6-8 questionnaires per ward were distributed. Suppose there were 8 health employees in a ward and only two of these are males, then I would suggest that both males and females be involved as respondents instead of having only females as respondents.

To get the groupings, formal, non-formal and both, this happened by self selection of the sample. As the respondents indicated the major source of influence in their career selection, so they were categorized (see Table 3.1 above). The whole group of 93 participants was categorized according to their responses. According to Sevilla et al. (1992, p. 192) for a causal comparative research (ex post facto), a minimum of 15 participants per group is ideal. Whereas one would have expected an almost equal distribution of 31 in each category, the results were quite different. There were relatively more respondents who reported to have been influenced by Non-formal career guidance than those influenced by Formal career guidance.

The researcher decided to work with these unequal groups. Because this is a causal comparative research, this says a lot about acceptability of each of these types of career guidance. The researcher will discuss more on the probable reasons under the discussion of data analysis. According to Borg and Gall (1989), the success of a causal comparative research depends on the investigator’s skill in selecting groups that are homogenous with respect to certain critical variables, e.g. age, sex, educational qualification, years of working experience and nature of employing organisation, position, etc. The homogeneity of the sample was relatively good and representative. It consisted of professional employees of a wide range of educational
qualification, from the untrained, Ordinary Level secondary school graduates, working as support staff to some PhD holders, some working as Chief Executive Officers, heads of departments or technicians.

On the overall the return of questionnaires was 58%. This was slightly higher than in the pilot study, which was 55%. The returning or completion of the questionnaires was generally higher among employees from the Ministry of Education, especially females. The tight schedules of health workers also affected the return and completion of the questionnaires, (some had to take the questionnaire overnight). The industry employed respondents also had a low return because some went for the Christmas break and New-year holiday before returning the questionnaires. Apparently the education and health sector is slightly dominated by females.

Initially the researcher intended to have equal numbers of participants from each group as shown below. However, considering the return rate from the pilot study made the researcher to distribute even more questionnaires and the actual outcome of the composition of research participants was slightly different from the figures planned for in the research proposal (Table 3.1). This meant that the groups would be composed of unequal numbers.
Table 3.1: *Proposed numbers of research participants and actual numbers used*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employing institution</th>
<th>Proposed number of participants</th>
<th>Actual number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Health</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business office</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 *Data collection instruments*

The primary sources of data are the participants i.e., respondents who have studied up to Ordinary level of education or beyond. The secondary sources are the library resources, such as books, journals, newspapers, internet, etc.

The questionnaire consisted of structured questions (mainly closed form section and a couple of open ended questions) were used. These allowed for quantitative comparisons and the open ended section allowed the participant to express his/her point freely. This open ended section opened a window for the researcher to get the participants opinions in their own words.
3.6.1 The Questionnaire
The questionnaire originally consisted of 74 questions. The researcher carried out an item analysis and reduced them to 45 questions, in three sections. By focusing on the few questions that were considered to be of critical significance it allowed the researcher to carry out a detailed analysis of the impacts of the different variables under study and link them with the possible effects observed. Sections A and B had questions designed to collect information on the independent variables; formal, non-formal career guidance and both formal and non-formal having a concerted influence. In addition to this the questionnaire also extracted information on the respondents’ opinion on career guidance and each respondent’s self report on how satisfied they are with their careers. Each respondent’s career realisation level (the dependent variable) was determined by their responses to Section C of the Questionnaire.

3.6.1.1 Section A of the Questionnaire
This Section had 10 questions. These were designed to collect mainly demographic data. This information is useful to the researcher to know the distribution of respondents according to age, educational qualification, gender, years of experience. This, in a way can be used to balance the homogeneity of the sample used in the research. It also provided information on other indicators of career realisation such as job involvement, the tenure, a relative desire to change careers.

3.6.1.2 Section B of the Questionnaire
Section B of the questionnaire had 14 questions on a 5-Likert Scale. Questions 11, 12, 13, 16, 19 and 20 in this section were used to determine the independent variables; sources of influence (type of career guidance that influenced the respondent most in their career decision). This is displayed in Table 3.1. The rest of the questions solicited information on the respondent’s
opinion about the career guidance they received. This revealed the respondents’ perceptions about the career guidance they received.

3.6.1.3 Section C of the Questionnaire
Section C of the questionnaire is a self-reporting inventory for assessing career realisation levels of each respondent. This inventory consists of 20 questions on a 5-point Likert Scale and one last question that is open ended. The researcher decided to use a multiple indicator measure as an inventory for the following reasons stressed by (Bryman 2001) that a multiple indicator measure (questionnaire) provides a wider range of responses thus making it possible to observe distinctions. A Multiple indicator measure also refines the reliability of the instrument. Because there was no available pre-made inventory on career realisation, the researcher decided to prepare one for use in this research. The researcher designed this inventory based on Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs, The ASHA (2004) Omnibus Survey Job satisfaction scale and Macdonald and MacIntyre’s (1997) **Generic job satisfaction scale**. According to these authors, other factors contributing to job satisfaction include: nature of the job (type), pay, collaborative spirit, administration, or supervision, flexibility, challenge, autonomy, development and family consideration. The researcher wanted to contextualise the inventory so that it best suits the participants living in our present Zimbabwean economic conditions.

The inventory solicited information on the degree of career realisation depending on the extent these expected needs are met in one’s present career. Each of the possible responses on the 5-point Likert Scale (0, 1, 2, 3, and 4) was assigned a value (weighted) so that 0 has a value of 1 point, and 4 had the most (5) points. This way, if an individual ticked all the zeros (lowest level), of the 20 questions of the career realisation inventory, their career realisation score would be calculated as 1x20 questions = 20 points; and if he ticked all the fours on their questionnaire their
score would be 5x20 questions = 100 points. These points were aggregated and a score was computed for each. The fewer the points received indicated a relatively lower career realisation score and the more the points the higher the career realisation level (see the weighting scale summary in Table 3.2)

Table 3.2: *Point Allocation of Career Realisation Inventory Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score (on questionnaire)</th>
<th>Points allocated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest possible total from this scale is computed by adding the scores for all the 20 questions.

For example: if on Question one the score is 0; question two it is 3 and question three it is 1. Then the score for the three questions are computed as follows:

Table 3.3 *Sample calculation of career realisation score*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>Column ticked</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 1 + 4+2 = 7
Suppose the participant ticked the column 4 on all the 20 Questions; then the score will be 20 x 5 points = 100 (maximum score). Suppose they ticked column 0 on all the 20 questions; then the score is 20x1 point =20 points (minimum score). The score for each respondent were computed and interpreted according to Table 3.4:

Table 3.4: Career Realisation Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description (According to Maslow’s Heirarchy of needs) to Career realisation level</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description (According to Maslow’s Heirarchy of needs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F=20-29</td>
<td>Hardly any basic needs met</td>
<td>F=20-29</td>
<td>Hardly any basic needs met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E=30-39</td>
<td>basic/ mainly physiological</td>
<td>E=30-39</td>
<td>basic/ mainly physiological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D=40-49</td>
<td>some needs met, physiological and security</td>
<td>D=40-49</td>
<td>some needs met, physiological and security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=50-59</td>
<td>average level/ physiological, security &amp; belonging</td>
<td>C=50-59</td>
<td>average level/ physiological, security &amp; belonging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B=60-69</td>
<td>Above average/ physiological, security, belonging &amp; esteem</td>
<td>B=60-69</td>
<td>Above average/ physiological, security, belonging &amp; esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A= ABOVE 70</td>
<td>Self Actualisation/ Most needs met</td>
<td>A= ABOVE 70</td>
<td>Self Actualisation/ Most needs met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F=20-29</td>
<td>Hardly any basic needs met</td>
<td>F=20-29</td>
<td>Hardly any basic needs met</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6.2 Testing for reliability

There are several ways of testing for instrument reliability. One of these methods is the inter-scorer reliability method (Awoniyi et al, 2011). The instruments were rated by different specialists in the field of guidance and counselling at Curriculum Development Unit and at a Teachers’ Training College.

3.6.3 The pilot study

Prior to embarking on this research, the researcher carried out a general feasibility study to find out how researchable the topic is. The researcher had informal interview with some guidance and counselling teachers, one in a school in the western part of Zimbabwe, another two in Harare and a fourth one in the eastern part of Zimbabwe. From these discussions the researcher gathered the general facts about the general strategies currently being used, the challenges and possible solutions.

In addition, twenty questionnaires were distributed to participants according to the criteria stated. Out of the 20 Questionnaires distributed, only eleven (55%) questionnaires were returned. These were tested for reliability by analysing the responses and the parts that seemed not clear were corrected. The summary of the pilot study is in the Appendix section.

The results of the pilot study indicated that the research is very likely to be feasible, so the researcher consulted with the supervisors and then went ahead with the research. A suggestion to include a letter of self introduction of the researcher to the participants was made. An Item analysis was done on the questionnaire and some of the questions were amended accordingly.

From the pilot study the following observations were made:
It is very highly possible to carry out a causal comparative research on the influence of career guidance on the degree of career realisation,

Six of the respondents report to have been influenced by both formal and non formal career guidance, while a relatively small percentage (0.09%) report to have been influenced by Formal career guidance. Hence instead of assuming a dichotomy of individuals being either influenced by formal career guidance or non-formal career guidance, there are others who are also influenced by both types of career guidance. So, instead of working with two independent variables, the researcher had to work with three independent variables.

There seemed to be a positive correlation (0.42) between career interests-match, career – personality match, and relatively higher levels of career realisation.

Those who reported “No” to the option to change career also seem to have higher levels of career realisation.

Most of the respondents who had high scores in the career realisation Inventory also scored relatively high on other indicators of career realisation that are positively correlated to career realisation.

Those who participated in the pilot study were not included in the main research. This was done to check the feasibility of the research and refine the reliability of the instrument.

3.6.4 Instrument validity

The researcher ensured the validity of the research by refining the instrument and by improving the internal validity.
3.6.4.1 General validity of instruments

The instrument was confirmed for content validity and face validity by giving the sample questionnaires to experts in the field. This included experienced teachers who have at some time taught or are currently teaching guidance and counselling at secondary school level. These were selected from four different secondary schools. The instrument was further refined, scrutinised for errors, clarity of purpose and checked for construct validity by giving it to specialists in the area of business studies and the researcher’s supervisors. This was especially important for section C of the questionnaire which contains some constructs for assessing or evaluating career satisfaction and career realisation. This included constructs that are difficult to measure, hence they needed to be weighted for easier comparison.

3.6.4.2 Internal validity

The internal validity is the degree to which observed differences on the dependent variables are directly related to the independent variables - not to other uncontrolled or extraneous variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). There are several threats to internal validity in a causal comparative research due to inability to manipulate the independent variables. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) observe that the major reason for these threats is that the groups may not be equivalent in numbers, age or gender because the researcher has no say in either the selection or the formation of the comparison groups. However, it was possible to reduce most of these threats to a minimum by using matching-groups technique (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000).

3.6.5. Subject characteristics threat

Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) describe subject characteristics threats as the possibility that the characteristics of the subjects could contribute to the observed relationships. The researcher tried
to minimize these threats by using the matching procedure (Borg & Gall, 1989). This was accomplished by trying to create homogenous subgroups and matching subjects which can be compared; for example trying to balance the proportions of males and females, and matching and comparing the career realisation level of respondents in the same age group or respondents of the same educational qualification. This allows the career realisation levels of the three groups to be comparable.

3.6.6. Data collection threat

Data collection threats can be due to using different data collectors and having the data collector revealing some unnecessary information to the respondents. These threats are reduced by using the same data collector, the researcher. By having the researcher collecting the data this may also reduce data collector bias. The researcher ensured that the respondents are not exposed to unnecessary information that would influence their responses. Thus, the respondents used for the pilot study were not included in the main research and though they were of similar category, they were not from the exact group.

3.7 Data collection

Data collection was scheduled for the months of November 2012 to January, 2013. Letters of permission from the responsible authorities were obtained. The participants were told the criteria for participation. The conditions for informed consent were also explained to them through the introductory letter attached to each questionnaire. The researcher collected the data herself distributing the questionnaires and collecting them at the different sites. Working in liaison with the officers in charge, most of the questionnaires were distributed and collected on the same day.
The greater percentage of the questionnaires that were not returned were among those which were with the participant for a longer time; those distributed in the morning then collected in the afternoon or on the next day. The questionnaire was completed in one sitting with most of the participants. However, due to irregularities in working hours, the questionnaires for some participants in certain professions such as in the ministry of health and industry; the questionnaires were distributed on the first day then collected on the second day.

Because the researcher carried out a quantitative research, the data collection procedure did not take as much time as a qualitative research. However, the process took a little longer than expected because of holidays, (so data collection started in December, 2012 and was completed in February, 2013). The end of year and New Year holidays interrupted the process slightly. Immediately the questionnaires were returned they were coded in preparation for data analysis.

3.8. Data analysis

The data collected were analysed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences. Cross-tabulations of frequencies and percentages were used to summarise the responses. Tables showing the relationships between variables category by category were also used to make the comparisons more specific.

The information in Table 3.1 was used to determine the two types of career guidance. The respondents were then classified according to their responses to which type of career guidance had the strongest influence on their career decision. Although the researcher had anticipated a dichotomization of the types of career realisation (formal and non-formal), a third group
emerged, that of individuals influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance. Eventually the researcher worked with three groups:

A. Formal (F)
B. Non-formal (N/F)
C. Both (B)

The main hypothesis was then tested at the 0.05 % level of significance. The degree of career realisation was compared for formal and non-formal career guidance. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also used to analyse the relationships between variables. A Chi-Square test was also carried out to compare the relative distribution of frequencies with the expected frequencies per type of career guidance. The comparisons of males versus females, the four different professions, and the different age brackets were made. These findings were systematically analysed based on the research questions and research hypothesis. The outcomes of these findings are reported in Chapter 4 and displayed in bar graphs, pie charts, frequency tables and contingency tables to allow for quick comparisons.

In order to compare the different sources of influence, “Formal”, “Non-formal” and “Both”, a Chi square test was carried out to compare the expected and the observed frequencies of the three groups under study. This was necessary so as to make it possible to analyze the relative influence of the two major sources of career guidance, “Formal” and “Non-formal”. A one way analysis of variance was used to compare the means of levels of career realisation between the groups under comparison. The range and standard deviations for the three groups were also computed. This was important for analyzing the spread of the scores in each of the three groups under study. These testing procedures are summarized in Table 4.1.
This chapter explained the sequential procedures followed by the researcher in the data collection process. Justifications for each procedure were also given accordingly. The next chapter describes how the collected data were analysed and while the last chapter discusses the implications of the research findings and make recommendations.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the research findings and analysis. Analyses related to each research objective and research hypothesis; and Conclusion. The main purpose of this research was to compare the degree of career realisation between individuals who were influenced by formal forms of career guidance with those who were influenced by non-formal forms. This was carried out in the following sequence:

1. Compare the frequencies and percentages of respondents according to the type of influencing career guidance (Formal, Non-Formal, and Both).

2. Analyze and compare the participants’ perceptions on the relationship between career guidance and career satisfaction.

3. Compare the participants’ self-rating on other career realisation indicators, according to the three groups (types of career guidance).

4. Compare the participants’ self-assessment of their level of career realisation using a career realisation inventory.

The dependent variable is career realisation and the independent variables are the types of career guidance. Although there are two independent variables, Formal and Non-formal (major types of career guidance) that the researcher originally focused on, in the process of data collection it was realised that there is a group of individuals (35%) who indicated that they were equally influenced by both formal and non-formal of career guidance. Hence the researcher ended up focusing on three groups (comparing these three) instead of two as initially planned. These groups were labelled as follows:
F = Respondents influenced most by formal career guidance

NF = Respondents influenced most by non-formal career guidance

B = Respondents influenced by formal and non-formal career guidance

However, there is a possibility of mediating variables, such as gender, age, educational qualification, number of years of working experience, position, or the type of employing organisation. The researcher anticipated that these might mediate against the effects of the type of career guidance on career realisation. Hence the researcher included these variables in the demographic data so as to analyze the impact of each on the degree of career realisation. Ultimately, the final analysis was based on the presumption that all things being equal, which group seems to experience relatively higher levels of career realisation.

Of the 160 questionnaires distributed 96 were returned and of these three were partially completed. The remaining 93 were coded and the information entered and analysed using SPSS version 16.0. However, after the entries were made there seemed to be 3 respondents with outliers in some of the responses to the questions. So the researcher discarded these and worked with 90 research participants.

4.1 Outline of research objectives and hypotheses

As presented in chapter one of this research, the objectives are linked to the hypotheses. These are summarized in Table 4.1. Each of these research hypothesis was analysed and tested and Table 4.1 shows what method was used to test each hypothesis.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Analysis method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>To find out to what extent formal, non-formal and ‘both’ types of career guidance in secondary schools influence the ultimate career choice.</td>
<td>( H_01: ) There is no significant difference (at 0.05 level of significance) in the expected and observed number of students who are influenced by formal, non-formal and both types of career guidance in choosing a career.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>To analyse and compare former students’ perceptions on the relationship between career guidance and career satisfaction.</td>
<td>( H_02: ) There is no significant difference in the perceptions about career satisfaction of students who were influenced by formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their career decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>To compare career realisation levels of students who were influenced by formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their ultimate choice of a career.</td>
<td>( H_03: ) There is no significant difference in the career realisation level (at 0.05 level of significance) between students who were influenced by formal, by non-formal or by both formal and non-formal career guidance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>To find out the relationship between career realisation score with other indicators of career realisation</td>
<td>( H_04: ) There is no significant relationship between career realisation score with other career realisation indicators.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Demographic information of the respondents

The researcher distributed 160, (forty at each site), questionnaires and 93 (58%) were returned. This research topic is sensitive, as it solicited information about the participant’s satisfaction levels with their work and career. Hence, most were not very comfortable to participate. Of these three were partially completed in one item. Consequently the valid total used was 90.

The respondents consisted of 38 males and 52 females, adults, of ages ranging from 20 to about 60 years. This included a wide range of years of experience at work. The educational qualifications ranged from untrained employees, (having completed ‘O’ Level, this is important for the secondary school guidance and counselling is given at different stages in ‘O’ Level) to PhD holders of different professions. This means that they are representative of different positions. These research participants were selected from four classes of employees (representative of common careers where a lot of people find formal employment in Zimbabwe) as follows:

- Ministry of Health employees
- Ministry of Education employees
- Industry employees
- Business office employees

The researcher used Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS 16.0) to analyze the research findings. The results were displayed in contingency tables and graphs to clarify associations between variables, and to enhance the degree of comparisons. The responses to the career realisation inventory were analyzed and the career realisation score for each participant was
computed. A One-Way-Analysis of variance was done to compare the career realisation scores.

A summary of the demographic information is presented in the frequency tables below:

Table 4.2: Participants Frequency Table (% by gender)
(N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Most of the calculations are reported rounded to one significant figure.

Among the participants there were relatively more females than males possibly because the education and the health profession were dominated by the females. In addition, females are more willing to open up and respond to questionnaires than most men. The majority of the questionnaires that were not returned were among those that were sent to males.

Table 4.3: Participants Frequency Table (% by organisation)
(N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Office</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were relatively more respondents from the Ministry of Education employees although 40 questionnaires were distributed to each employing organisation was allocated. Because career guidance was introduced in the curriculum about 25 years ago (although there are still some
schools that may not be implementing it formally), the researcher purposefully tried to have the greater percent of the participants who fall in the category of less than fifty years old.

Most of the participants in this research are of relatively fewer years of working experience, 42% had 2-5 years of working experience and 33% had 5-10 years of experience. The participants consisted of mainly trained personnel, holders of certificate, diploma, Bs/BA, MA/MSc and PhD. Actually the majority were diploma holders (42.5%) and BSc / BA (27.6%). This made a relatively balanced representation of the different categories and enhances the reliability of the results.

There are two main types of career guidance that influenced each of the respondents to ultimately choose the career they are in. These are “formal” and “non-formal” career guidance. In addition, it is also possible for a respondent to be equally influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance. The researcher ended up with three categories: Those influenced by formal (F), “non-formal” (N/F) and lastly, those influenced by “both” (B) formal and non-formal. These three types of career guidance influences will be abbreviated as follows in this research;

F= formal
N/F= Non-formal
B= Both (formal and non-formal)

4.3 Analysis of demographic data according to type of career guidance

As mentioned earlier, demographic data gives us a glimpse of the impact of other variables, besides the ones directly under study. The impact of each of these variables was analyzed
according to the type of career guidance and employing organisation and other information of significance. Table 4.4 and Figure 4.1 show the frequencies according to the type of career guidance.

Table 4.4: Frequencies and Percentages of Participants According to Type of Career Guidance (N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of career Guidance</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal (F)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-formal (N/F)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both (B)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution of participants according to type of career guidance is also displayed in the pie chart.
More than twice as many (44.4%) respondents reported that they were influenced by non-formal career guidance as those influenced by formal career guidance (20.0%). The rest (35.6%) indicated that they were equally influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance.

The data was also analysed according to the distribution of participants in each employing organization. This is illustrated in Table 4.5
Table 4.5: Frequencies of Respondents According to Employing Organisation (N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employing Organisation</th>
<th>Formal</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-formal</th>
<th></th>
<th>Both</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business office</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twenty percent (20%) of the participants from the Ministry of Health reported to have been influenced most by formal career guidance while 40% indicated that they were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their career decision. The rest were influenced equally by both. A majority of those influenced by formal career guidance (31.6%) are employed in business offices while the majority of those influenced by non-formal career guidance are almost evenly distributed in the four employing organisations represented. The respondents influenced by both types of career guidance are more in the industry (52.2%). However, the overall observation is that, formal career guidance seems to have the least influence while non-formal career-guidance seems to influence most of the participants in this research. From the total sample, the researcher also made a comparison of the expected distribution as per employing organisation and the distribution according to type of career guidance. This comparison helps to confirm whether the sample was representative of the organisations from which the sample was drawn.

1. Ninety one percent participants are of ages below 50 years old and almost 50% of them were influenced mostly by non-formal career guidance although formal career guidance
was already introduced in schools (from 1989 to date). These had higher chances of being influenced by formal career guidance.

2. Most of the respondents have a diploma or certificate (42.5%), or have at least a BA or BSc degree.

3. Most of the BA/BSc, MA/MSc and PhD degree holders were influenced by non-formal career guidance while the Postgraduate diploma or certificate holders were influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance. This seems unusual, one would expect those with lower educational qualification to be easily influenced by non-formal career guidance.

4. About 60% of the respondents are support staff or hold other positions not related to leadership, and most of these were influenced by either non-formal career guidance or by both formal and non-formal career guidance.

5. More than 75% of the respondents have only up to 10 years of working experience. Those respondents with 5-10 years of working experience were almost equally influenced by either formal career guidance (26.7%), or by formal career guidance (30.0%). This implies that most likely they were in secondary school when career guidance was introduced in secondary schools hence they had higher chances of being exposed to both non-formal and formal career guidance.

4.4 Data analysis related to specific research hypotheses

Each research objective was linked to a specific corresponding research hypothesis.

4.4.1. Research hypotheses one

H01: There is no significant difference (at 0.05 level of significance) in the expected and observed number of students who are influenced by formal, non-formal and both types of career guidance in choosing a career.
The researcher also compared the expected frequencies with the observed frequencies. (See Table 4.6)

A Chi-square test was carried out to compare the observed and expected frequencies. The results are shown in Table 4.6

Table 4.6: Chi Square Test: Comparing the Expected and Observed (N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF GUIDANCE</th>
<th>OBSERVED (O)</th>
<th>EXPECTED (E)</th>
<th>O-E</th>
<th>(O-E)^2</th>
<th>(O-E)^2 / E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FORMAL</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>-12</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NON-FORMAL</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOTH</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Chi-Square results are summarised in Table 4.7

Table 4.7: Chi-square test results

Null Hypothesis | $X^2$ | Df | Decision |
----------------|------|----|----------|
There is no significant difference between the expected and the observed numbers of participants influenced by the formal, non-formal and “both” types of career guidance | 8.2  | 2  | Reject null hypothesis |

From the Chi-square ($X^2$) table, df 2 at 0.5 = 5.99
Calculated \( P = 8.2 \) Since \( p \) value > 5.99. The hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant difference between the observed and the expected numbers of participants influenced by the different types of career guidance.

- About 20.0% of the participants indicated that they were influenced mainly by formal career guidance, mainly through career guidance lessons (41.8% reported that career guidance lessons influenced them the most).
- More than one third (35.6%) of the participants reported to have been influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance.
- Forty four (44.4 %) were influenced by non-formal sources of career guidance. Among the non-formal sources of influence, parents seem to have the greatest influence (49.5%).

The research findings indicate that both formal and non-formal career guidance influence students in their process of choosing careers.

As a matter of fact, besides those who were influenced solely by formal career guidance and solely by non-formal career guidance, 35.2% of the respondents reported to have been influenced equally by both formal and non-formal career guidance.

### 4.4.2 Research Hypothesis 2 (responses to Question 18, 24 and 45)

**H03:** *There is no significant difference in the perceptions of participants about the relationship between career satisfaction and career guidance.*

Research Hypothesis 3 had responses in two parts, which complemented each other.
The participants from all the three groups responded almost similarly. So the results are summarized in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Perceptions on the Relationship between Career Guidance and Career Satisfaction (N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>N/F</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Right subject selection leads to right Career selection and to some degree of career satisfaction</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good career guidance leads to satisfactory career choices</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all the three groups it was unanimously indicated that good career guidance, including the process of subject selection, may lead to satisfactory career choices. However, in both questions, there were higher percentages (94%) of respondents influenced by formal career guidance who indicated the importance of good career guidance as a steppingstone to career satisfaction as compared to 75% and 65% for non-formal and 77% and 70% for ‘Both’.

Although there are some minor differences in percentages of the three groups, the overall observation is that at least more than 65% from all the three groups indicated that there is a strong positive relationship between effective career guidance with a high degree of career satisfaction and career realisation. This indicates that they understood the questions in the questionnaire and whatever they reported was relatively truthful.

Therefore Hypothesis **H03**: “There is no significant difference in the perceptions about career satisfaction of students who were influenced by formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their career decisions” was accepted.
4.4.3. Research Hypothesis 3

The objective of this hypothesis was to find out the perceptions of students on the relationship between career guidance, career choice and career satisfaction and consequently career realisation. Does career guidance influence career realisation? (Refer to Question 45 and Question 18 on the research questionnaire): My personal opinion about career satisfaction is...

The responses concurred with the responses to Questions 18 and 24, emphasizing that effective career guidance involves right subject selection and right career choices which ultimately leads to career satisfaction and career realisation.

The responses to this question served to buttress the validity of the career realisation inventory.

The results of the participants’ opinions are shown in Table 4.9

In the context of this research, the term satisfaction was used synonymously with realisation because most of the respondents could not easily understand the concept of career realisation and differentiate from satisfaction.

The responses obtained for Question 45 indicate that there is a close relationship between effectiveness of career guidance and the degree of career realisation. The effectiveness of career guidance is a determinant of the degree of career realisation. Highly effective career guidance is accompanied by a greater degree of career realisation.
Table 4.9: Respondents’ Opinions on Career Satisfaction
(N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response to question 45 (What constitutes career satisfaction)</th>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>N/formal</th>
<th>Both</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Enabling working conditions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Remuneration/salary/ benefits/profits/ rewarding.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Close Match between one’s interests with the career chosen (Doing what you enjoy)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Blank</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The response that was repeated (28.9%) by most respondents (formal, non-formal and both) stressed that the remuneration or salary is a steppingstone towards having the basic needs met and but this alone may not guarantee career satisfaction and career realisation. Although salary may be considered as the paramount need others 28.9% stressed a close match between one’s interests and career. In brief the responses indicated that career satisfaction can be accomplished only if the career chosen meets one’s basic needs as well as matching with one’s interests, abilities, and personality. Only then can one enjoy their career. Hence career guidance, whether formal or non formal channels the individual into the right or wrong career path so that they will end up with or without career satisfaction and ultimately attain or fail to attain career realisation. The question of career satisfaction is a very sensitive one. Very few people are willing to fully open up or disclose their feelings about their working conditions or state it directly that they are not satisfied with their career or work related conditions, it makes them vulnerable. Almost one third (32.2%) of the respondents did not respond to this item. It is a sensitive one for many
people. This is one of the reasons why the researcher had to use a multiple-indicator inventory to measure career realisation and career satisfaction indirectly, lest some of the respondents be tempted to under-report or over report so as not to expose their true feelings about their working conditions.

The respondents from both groups (formal and non-formal) expressed their views on career satisfaction in almost similar ways and the percentages are very close. Their opinions on career satisfaction closely match the career realisation inventory that was used to compare their career realisation levels. The two most repeated statements were that a career must meet the basic needs, especially physiological needs and congruency of one’s career with interests and abilities. This was expressed as good salary above poverty datum line, and benefits. Congruency between one’s career with his/her interests, abilities (i.e. doing what one enjoys), was strongly emphasized by many respondents. This implies that the general definition of career satisfaction is similar for all the three groups.

The responses to this question buttressed the major factors included in the career realisation inventory as the determinants of career satisfaction and ultimately career realisation. The responses also confirmed the participants understanding of the relationship between good career guidance and career satisfaction and career realisation. From the responses to this question, career satisfaction was repeatedly linked to proper or adequate career guidance. This indicates that the participants believe that good career guidance is associated with career satisfaction and career realisation. This concurs with Maree and Ebersohn’s (2002:144) observation that; “The underlying motive to achieve success in a career is self-actualisation based on the individual’s particular work values and priorities. Effective career guidance then should provide the essential
information that may lead individuals to make informed decisions that will land them in a career of their passion without regrets.”

4.4.4 Research Hypothesis 4

H04: *There is no significant relationship between career realisation score with other Career satisfaction and career realisation indicators.*

The preceding hypotheses formed the foundation for this one. The participants’ responses about what gives career satisfaction confirmed what the researcher calls the indicators of career realisation. Such factors include contentment with one’s career, not desiring to quit, experiencing a sense of achievement as one performs the duties of their career, and a close match between one’s career with one’s interests and personality.

4.4.4.1 Indicators of degree of career realisation

There are several indicators of career realisation besides the ones represented in the designed career realisation inventory. Some of the most common ones are influencing others to join a similar career. Contentment is generally characterized by not desiring to change career, number of times one has changed their career, desiring to remain in the same career for a relatively longer time (tenure). The researcher decided to use these indicators to buttress the constructs that make up the designed career realisation inventory in this study. The individuals with a high score in the career realisation inventory are likely to score high on the other career realisation indicators. There is a positive correlation between Career realisation score and these career realisation indicators. This was validated by the Pearson’s correlation in the pilot study. These results in the correlation of the main study are summarized in Table 4.10
There is a strong positive correlation between the career realisation score and the following career realisation and career satisfaction indicators;

- Number of people influenced to join the same career (Job involvement)
- Congruence between one’s career with his/her interests

There is a relatively weak correlation between career realisation and the following indicators.

- Choosing to remain in the same career (commitment)
- Congruence between an individual’s career with his/her personality and career realisation.

Table 4.10: *Interpretations of Pearson’s Correlations*  
(N= 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Pearson’s r</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Number of people influenced to join the same career (job involvement)</td>
<td>0.628</td>
<td>Strong correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Congruence between one’s career with their interest</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>Strong correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Choosing to remain in the same career</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td>Weak correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Congruence between one’s career with their personality</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>Very weak correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Career gives sense of achievement</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>Very weak correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these, it is clear that the above noted indicators are of great significance in comparing career realisation levels of the groups under study.

Therefore hypothesis **H04: There is no significant relationship between career realisation score with other Career realisation indicators** was rejected.

There is a positive correlation relationship between career realisation score and other career realisation indicators such as, influencing other people to join the same career, relative desire to stay in the same career, the congruence between one’s career with his/her interests.
4.4.2 Career- personality match

The findings of this research indicated that personality–career match correlation is weak hence it might be considered of minor significance. This is contrary to the well-known Holland’s Person-environment-fit Theory which states that the congruence between one’s personality with his/her career enhances one’s degree of career satisfaction and career realisation. (Person environment fit models are based on Holland’s (1985) Personality theory of vocational choice which assumes that people making successful vocational choices gravitate towards work environments which fit their personal orientations... Studies confirm the Minnesota Theory of work adjustment that concurs with Holland’s theory that there is a correspondence between an individual’s personality and abilities and his preferred work environment (Blau 1987:241). Gibson and Mitchell, (1981) also assert that career satisfaction; career stability and achievement depend on the congruence between one’s personality and environment (composed of largely other workers of similar personality). Probably the results could give a finer picture if the participants had taken a standard personality test.

4.4.3 Influencing others to join the same career (job involvement as an indicator of career satisfaction and career realisation)

Usually if one has a positive self-image about their job they talk about it and influence others into a similar career. Job involvement is defined by Blau (1987) as the “importance of one’s job to his self-image.” According to Blau (1987), job involvement, importance of one’s job to his self image and organisational commitment, are significant predictors of employee turn-over. Greater job involvement is generally characterised by talking positively about one’s career and encouraging others to join it. One may conclude that; the greater the job involvement, the higher
the career realisation level. Participants frequencies and percentages of their influence on others
to join the same career are shown in Table 4.11 and Figure 4.2.

Table 4.11: Influencing Others to Join Same Career (An Indicator of Career Realisation)
(N = 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type of career guidance</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Formal (N=18)</td>
<td>Non-formal (N=40)</td>
<td>Both (N=32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of people influenced to join the same career</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 people</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 people</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that generally a large percentage of those influenced by formal career
guidance influenced more people to join the same career than did those influenced by non-
formal, and both. This, according to Blau, (1987) is an indicator of higher levels of career
satisfaction and career realisation.
Figure 4.2. Influenced more than 10 people to join same career.

A relatively large percentage (55.6%) of the respondents influenced by formal career guidance reported that they influenced more than 10 people each to join the same career as compared to (22.5%) of those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance.
4.4.4.3 Career-interests match

This is based on Parson’s career guidance teachings. Career realisation has been described in this research as a fruit of the sum total of both job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been conceptualized as resulting from congruence between a person’s interests and the work environment (Holland cited in Nuata, 2007), while career satisfaction as correspondence between a person’s values. Therefore, career guidance aims at assisting clients identify one or more potentially satisfying careers (Sharf, 2006). It is to this end that interest and values inventories are frequently administered to help clients explore how their personal characteristics map onto the world of work, with the assumption that a good match will result in satisfaction (Nuata, 2007).

According to Tolbert (1980) occupational satisfaction is based on the degree of congruence of lifestyle and occupation as well as the suitability of occupation to one’s lifestyle. Hence, job satisfaction is considered an aspect of career development and provides a way to assess the effectiveness of school programme and to establish accountability measures.

The researcher also compared the indicators of career realization according to the type of career guidance. This is illustrated in Table 4.12.
Table 4.12: Comparative Analyses of Indicators of Career Realisation as per Type of Career Guidance (N = 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator variable</th>
<th>Formal F (N = 18)</th>
<th>Non-formal N/F (N = 40)</th>
<th>Both B (N = 32)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Career suits my interest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Career suits my personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Career gives me a sense of achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Wish to quit and enter a career of my choice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I enjoy my work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A majority of the respondents from all the three groups indicated that their careers match their interests and personalities and that their careers give them a sense of accomplishment (see Table 4.12). A relatively larger percentage (83.3%) was observed of those that were influenced by formal career guidance than those influenced by non-formal career guidance (42.5%), or by both types in their career decision (71.9%) indicated that they enjoy working in their careers. However, those influenced by both (21.9%) formal and non-formal career guidance had the least percentage of those who wish to quit and change careers as compared to those influenced by formal (44.4%) and non-formal (47.5%) career guidance.

1. Almost an equal percentage of the two groups, (44.4% of formal and 47.5% non-formal) wish to quit and pursue a career of their own choice.

2. However, a notable observation is that a very small percentage (21.9%) of those influenced by both desired to quit.
Inability to enjoy one’s work is a symptom of career dissatisfaction and low career realisation. Usually those with a low career realisation score are generally less committed and would easily wish to quit and pursue a career of their actual choice. They lack career satisfaction so they would rather look for greener pastures where they can experience career satisfaction and career realisation. Conversely, enjoying one’s work is also an indication of a relatively high degree of career realisation.

4.4.4 Contentment with one’s career

Contentment with one’s career is an important indicator of career satisfaction and to some extent, some degree of career realisation. Career contentment and work content values are the most effecting factors contributing in job satisfaction which measure the intrinsic level of job satisfaction. While job satisfaction can be used as a measure of the degree of career realisation, job attachment is an even better yardstick for it shows one’s commitment to maintain the same career. Commitment to the job is a better indicator of career satisfaction than mere job satisfaction because job satisfaction is a more temporal connection that may change when the working conditions change that are associated with behavioural intentions such as propensity to leave.

The concept of job attachment is closely associated with the tenure, which is an indicator of career satisfaction. However, some employees may continue on the job because they are attached to the job not because they are satisfied but possibly because they do not have a better option. On the other hand not all turn-over may be considered as an indicator of dissatisfaction, but at times it might be a sign of progress as after self development. However, a large percentage of the reasons behind employee turn-over and particularly a change of career may be associated
with obsolescence, discontentment or career dissatisfaction. In the context of this research, and from the perspective of career realisation, if the individual holds on with less job satisfaction, but having strong attachments to their job or career, they are ranked to have more career realisation than one who lacks commitment. In other words, if the employee can endure and hold on even though other expected conditions are not met, then they are not just in their career for salary but they also value other needs being met in their career such as belonging and esteem needs. The participants’ relative desire to change career shows some degree of dissatisfaction. The frequencies and percentages of the different groups are shown in Table 4.13 and Figure 4.3.

Table 4.13 *Desire to Change Careers (Discontentment with one’s career)*
(N=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Given an option to change would you say</th>
<th>Type of career guidance</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES or NO</td>
<td>Formal (f)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Non-formal (f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is also illustrated in the graph in Figure 4.3:
Sixty percent of those influenced by formal career guidance indicated that they would not wish to change careers whereas 45% of those influenced by non-formal and 56% of those influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance indicated that they would not wish to change their career. This seems to imply that those influenced by formal career guidance and by both seem are more satisfied and content to remain in their present careers.

4.4.5 Research Hypothesis Five

**H05:** There is no significant difference in career realisation between students who were influenced by formal, by non-formal or by both formal and non-formal career guidance.
From the preceding chapters, the working definition of career realisation is job satisfaction plus career satisfaction plus the sense of fulfilment or accomplishment with one’s career which comes as a result of the congruence between one’s personality, interests, abilities and one’s career plus the inherent career motivators and de-motivators. The functional definition of career realisation in this study implies that it involves all the components of job satisfaction plus all the components that give career satisfaction plus extra components such as the contentment and not desiring to change careers. This is illustrated below;

\[
\text{CAREER REALISATION} = \text{MOTIVATORS} + \text{CONGRUENCY BETWEEN CAREER WITH PERSONALITY, INTERESTS AND ABILITIES} > \text{JOB SATISFACTION} > \text{CAREER SATISFACTION} > \text{SENSE OF ACHIEVEMENT} > \text{CAREER REALISATION}
\]

This is also reflected in the ladder of career realisation, based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs; one cannot reach the top before the basic needs are met.

According to Gibson & Mitchell (1981), occupations are chosen to meet our needs; we choose the one that best meets our needs. Job satisfaction can result from the job that best meets our needs today and promises to meet our needs in the future. The degree of satisfaction depends on the ratio between what we have and what we want. Hence a job or career that could give us satisfaction is one that best satisfies our expected needs. In view of this, the researcher made the career realisation inventory as an extension of the generic job satisfaction scale in conjunction with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs so that it measures not just mere job satisfaction but also how actualized the individual is with their career.
Because “Maslow’s hierarchy of needs or motivators incorporates both biological and psychosocial theories, believing that survival needs must be satisfied before a person can attempt to satisfy higher needs” (Huffman, 2002, p. 428), the individual with more points (higher score) is likely to experience more career realisation than the one with less points. This is supported by the responses of the participants of this research.

When responding to the question ‘What is your opinion about career satisfaction?’ (Question 45); the largest percentages (28%) of respondents indicated that for them, career satisfaction is: “Remuneration/salary/benefits/profits, /being rewarded for your labour”. This was followed by (23%) “Close match between one’s interests with the career chosen or doing what you enjoy”. Employees with a greater congruency between their career and their interests, abilities and personality tend to have relatively higher job satisfaction and greater career satisfaction. This ultimately leads them to experience higher career realisation levels. Boyd and Bee (2009) observed that workers who are happy have lower turnover rates, meaning the companies are spared the expenses of searching for and training replacements for them. Job satisfaction influences the efficiency and profitability of employing organisations. One can rightly conclude that job satisfaction is important to both the employee and the employer. The career realisation levels (based on the scores from the career realisation inventory) of participants from the three groups were compared. The two major groups to be compared are those participants influenced by formal career guidance versus those influenced by non-formal career guidance. However, as explained earlier, there is an intermediate group that was influenced by both types of career guidance. Career realisation score is based on the weightings of the responses to questions 24-44,
Section C, on the questionnaire. The career realisation inventory was explained in Chapter 3. For quick reference the weightings are summarized in Table 4.14.

A score below 20 implies that the respondent ranks his/ her career as fulfilling none or the least of his needs and expectations. A score between 20-29 means only a few of these needs and expectations are met or fulfilled. A score of 30-39 implies that some of the needs and expectations are met or fulfilled; hence there is low career satisfaction. A score within 40-49 range means that the employee experiences average career satisfaction; (because only about half of the needs and expectations are met). A score of 50-59 implies that at least more than half of the expectations and expectations are met or fulfilled, the employee may experience above average career satisfaction and some degree of career realisation at a lower level. A career realisation score between 60-69 means that the employee may experience very high career satisfaction and career realisation that is above average. A score above 70 implies that the employee may experience extremely high career satisfaction, and very high career realisation. Such employees usually do not desire to quit or change careers. Usually, high career realisation is marked by high worker retention.
Table 4.14: *Career Realisation Levels*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description (According to Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs)</th>
<th>Career realisation level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F=20-29</td>
<td>Hardly any basic needs met</td>
<td>Low career satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E=30-39</td>
<td>Basic/ mainly physiological</td>
<td>Average Career satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D=40-49</td>
<td>Some needs met, physiological and security</td>
<td>High career satisfaction (Low career realisation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=50-59</td>
<td>Average level/ physiological, security &amp; belonging</td>
<td>Average career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B=60-69</td>
<td>Above average/ physiological, security. belonging &amp; esteem</td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A= 70 &amp; ABOVE</td>
<td>Self Actualisation/ Most needs met</td>
<td>Very high career realisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants’ levels of career realisation were compared according to the type of career guidance. For the sake of easy comparisons the groups are compared in two categories: First, those with a low career realisation level, a score below 50 (See Table 4.15). Second, those with a score above 50 are compared as per group (See Table 4.16).

Almost 70% of the participants have a career realisation score below 50. Among these, those influenced by non-formal career guidance have the highest percentage followed by ‘Both’ and lastly those influenced by formal career guidance. However, it is worth pointing out that the group ‘Formal’ had the highest percentage of participants with the lowest score and the highest score (See Table 4.15).
Table 4.15: *Cross-Tabulation of Career Realisation Score versus Type of Career Guidance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career realisation score</th>
<th>Formal</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non/formal</th>
<th></th>
<th>Both</th>
<th></th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
<th></th>
<th>Grading</th>
<th>Career realisation level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Cum. %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F 20-29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Extremely low career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E 30-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Very low career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D 40-49</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 50-59</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
<td>Average career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B 60-69</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
<td>Above average Career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Above 70</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td>High career realisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total above 50</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% above 50</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants with scores above fifty (>50) were added and the percentages of those with scores above fifty were compared with those with scores below fifty(<50). For the sake of clearer comparisons, the above table was presented showing the distinct categories. The table on the next page summarizes these findings further.
Table 4.16: Career Realisation Score- Type of Career Guidance (Comparing Frequencies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Career realisation score</th>
<th>Formal N=18</th>
<th>Non-formal N=40</th>
<th>Both N=32</th>
<th>Total N=90</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>3 (16.7%)</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
<td>3 (9.4%)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>10 (55.6%)</td>
<td>30 (75%)</td>
<td>23 (71.9%)</td>
<td>63 (70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>70 and above</td>
<td>4 (22.2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>8 (44.4%)</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>9 (28.1%)</td>
<td>27 (30%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the aggregate career realisation score of each participant, only about 30% of the respondents indicated that they experience some degree of career realisation, while 70% of the respondents had a score below 50, indicating that at most, about half of their expected needs are met well. More than forty four percent of those influenced by formal career guidance reported high levels of career realization while 25% of non formal and 28% of both reported high levels (above fifty) of career realization.

It is interesting to note that those influenced by formal career guidance have almost the same frequencies 4 in the highest level (above 70) and 3 in lowest level (below 29) while those influenced by non-formal and both are not represented at all (0%) in the highest level (Score above 70) levels of career realization. This seems to imply that formal career guidance could be effective or less effective depending on the individual because the frequencies seem to be evenly spread. On the other hand those influenced by non-formal and both have most of their scores in the lower ranges. This is clearly illustrated in Table 4.17 and Figure 4.4.
Table 4.17: Career Realisation Score - Type of Career Guidance (Frequencies and Percentages) (N = 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of career guidance (frequencies and %)</th>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>Non-formal</th>
<th>Both</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career realisation score</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The general observation is that relatively a greater percentage (about 45%) of the respondents influenced by formal career guidance have a career realisation score above 50 compared to those influenced by non-formal career guidance (25%) who have a career realisation score above 50.

Figure 4.4. Comparison of Career Realisation Levels.
Legend

Series 1 = Formal career guidance
Series 2 = Non-formal career guidance
Series 3 = Both formal and non-formal

Career realisation scores

Category 1 = below 50
Category 2 = 50-59
Category 3 = 60-69
Category 4 = above 70

4.4.6 One way analysis of variance

Although most participants career realization scores seem to be within average range (between 40 and 60) there is seems to be significant difference in the numbers as per type of career guidance. A One Way Analysis of variance was carried out to compare the means of the career realisation levels of the three groups under study.

Table 4.18: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Comparing means of career realisation scores of formal, non-formal and both.
(N = 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum squares</th>
<th>of Df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>578.429</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>289.215</td>
<td>2.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>11513.395</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>130.834</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12091.824</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.7 Interpretation of One way ANOVA

Because the p value (0.116) is greater than 0.05; this means that there is no statistically significant difference at 0.05% level of confidence in the means of the three groups studied. This implies that the insignificant difference could be due to sampling error. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis \( H_0 \): \textit{There is no significant difference in career realisation between students who were influenced by formal, by non-formal or by both formal and non-formal career guidance} was accepted. Conversely, the research hypothesis \textit{there is a significant difference in career realisation between students who were influenced by formal, by non-formal or by both formal and non-formal career guidance} was rejected.

The career realisation scores were also compared in terms of standard deviations. The results are summarised in Table 4.19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career guidance</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>48.6316</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.13557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-formal</td>
<td>42.0732</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10.28443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>43.1613</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.30268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43.8132</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>11.59110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On comparing the means and standard deviations of each of the three groups; the results indicated the following:

- The participants influenced by formal career guidance have the highest mean and yet they also have the widest range as their standard deviation is greatest.
Those influenced by non-formal career guidance have moderately low standard deviation, though they are the most in abundance, (N = 40).

The participants influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance have the lowest standard deviation and the mean is very close to the mean of all the participants’ career realisation scores.

4.4.8 Extraneous variables (See Table in Appendix Section)

Although the research findings indicate that there is no significant difference in career realisation between individuals who receive formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance, there are noticeable differences which may be attributed possibly to mediating variables that may moderate the results. These include the employing organisation, age, gender, position, educational level and years of working experience. These are such as to influence one’s level of career realisation. The following section analyses the impact of these mediating variables. The mediating variables that might have an impact on career realisation include the following: gender, employing organisation, age, educational qualification, position and length of working experience.

4.4.8.1 Gender

The percentages of male respondents and female respondents that have a career realisation score above 50 are very similar. However, relatively there are more males (35%) than females, (27.5%).

4.4.8.2 Employing organisation

Each organisation has uniqueness in offering remuneration working conditions. This may influence the employee’s level of career realisation. In this study, the employing organisation
does not seem to have a significant influence in the career realisation of employees. The general ratio of almost 70:30 is maintained.

4.4.8.3 Age
Earlier researches have indicated that job satisfaction and career satisfaction increase with age. Katz (cited by Morrow & Mac Elroy, 1978) reported job satisfaction to be unrelated to career stage. According to Boyd and Bee (2009, p. 471), “work satisfaction is at its peak during midlife, (what they call midlife- career stability). Mid-life career crisis encroaches in those who feel that their work is not appreciated, and the result is burnout, decline of zeal and work energy. However, some have become proficient at directing their own behaviour in ways that allow them to maintain levels of personal satisfaction even in unpleasant circumstances”. Ability to endure even in dire circumstances is a higher level of maturity in career development, for it shows one’s level of commitment to their career.

On the contrary, this research has indicated that the career realisation of the respondents seems to decrease with age up to the late fifties. Respondents of ages below 30 had the highest percentage 31.7% and the respondents of ages 51-60 years had the lowest percentage (25%) of responses with a career realisation score above 50. Surprisingly, seventy five percent (75%) of the four (4), respondents of ages above 60 years indicated a very high career realisation score of above 60. Blaustein et al, (cited by Boyd & Bee, 2009) observed that young adults engaged in careers for which they prepared in high school or college, have higher levels of satisfaction.

4.4.8.4 Number of years of working experience
Age is usually related to years of working experience. Job satisfaction, it used to be believed, increased with time on the job. However, recent researches indicate that job security is elusive
because of the speed at which job requirements and employees priorities shift. Thus, workers who have been on the job for some time are no longer assured of having greater security, higher incomes or higher status positions than beginning workers do (Boyd & Bee, 2009:423).

The study indicated that there is no direct relationship between the career realisation score with the number of working experience. Actually the majority of the respondents, about (40%) in his study were within the 2-5 years of working experience bracket. Thirty three percent (33%) of these have a career realisation above 50 while only 18.3% of the 5-10 years of working experience had a score above 50. Interestingly, 60% of the middle aged individuals, (10-15 years of working experience) have a career realisation score of above 50. From then on, above 15 years and onwards, the percentages of respondents with a career realisation score above 50 begin to decline.

4.4.8.5 Educational qualification
Educational qualification seems to have very little significance to career realisation. There seems to be very little difference between the two major categories. About 27% of BA/ BSc degree respondents and 32% of the diploma/ certificate holders had a career realisation score above 50. One would expect the opposite to be true since people of higher education seem to have greater access to career information.

4.4.8.6 Position
In this study, position seems to have a significant influence on the career realisation score. This is shown in Table 4.19. A relatively greater percentage of those in higher positions (66.6% of officers, and 54.5% of the managers) seem to be experiencing a higher career realisation score than those of lower positions (25% of the support staff). However, because those in higher
positions are just a handful, the general ratio is maintained among the larger group of support staff.

Table 4.20: Summary of the Influence of Extraneous Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Significance on career realisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Career realisation is not influenced much by gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employing organisation</td>
<td>Career realisation is greatly influenced by employing organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Career realisation generally decreases as one approaches middle age (around late fifties) then it increases with age towards retirement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational qualification</td>
<td>Career realisation is not greatly influenced much by educational qualification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Career realisation increases as employees get to higher positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years of working experience</td>
<td>Career realisation increases up to about 15 years of working experience, and then it begins to decline with increasing years of experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering the distribution of the sample used in this research, it seems quite representative of the population being studied so that the impact of any extraneous variables is minimal.

The researcher worked on the assumption that all these extraneous variables have very little or insignificant impact on the level of career realisation; as has been revealed, in the above discourse, the variables with slightly significant influence on career realisation are position and employing organisation. Thus the researcher used a sample with respondents from different employing organisations and of varying positions. Hence all things being equal, those respondents influenced by formal career guidance experience relatively higher career realisation levels than those influenced by non-formal forms or by both formal and non-formal. But
considering the numbers, formal career guidance is not as convincing and appealing to the students as non-formal career guidance. Apparently more students tend to be more influenced by non-formal career guidance probably because of the support and follow through it has on the student as he/she continues in their career path.

Although there is no significant difference in career realisation levels between the participants influenced by formal career guidance and those influenced by non-formal career guidance; however, generally a larger percentage of those influenced by formal career guidance indicated a higher degree of career realisation than those influenced by non-formal career guidance. This was also indicated in their higher level of enjoying their work, desire to influence others to join their profession, higher degree of commitment to their career, not keen to quit, but willing to maintain and develop themselves and stay on to retirement. The respondents with a higher career realisation also indicate a match between career and interests, career and personality, and that their careers also give them a sense of accomplishment.

However, even though the individuals influenced by formal career guidance were relatively fewer in number (18 out of the 90 respondents), 45% of them seem to experience a higher levels of career realisation, while only 25% of those influenced by non-formal career guidance reported to be experiencing high career realisation levels. Formal career guidance is apparently more effective than non-formal career guidance (because those influenced by it reported higher levels of career realisation). However, it seems not well promoted in the secondary schools, or rather not as convincing to the students as non-formal career guidance to influence many secondary school students’ career decisions. This study also indicated that 28% of those influenced by both
formal and non-formal career guidance reported to experience high levels of career realisation (see Table 4.20).

Studies by Zaidi and Iqbal (2011) indicated that there is a positive relationship between career selection and job satisfaction. The correlation between career selection and job satisfaction is $r = 0.595$ in Zaidi and Iqbal (2011)’s studies. Therefore, right career selection is paramount to career success. A wrong career selection in this regard leads to numerous problems in the long run. The same authors posit that career selection based on the consideration of abilities, personality traits and values may to provide maximum satisfaction with one’s career. Hence, better career selection increases the chances of career satisfaction and career realisation. However, according to the findings of Zaidi and Iqbal (2011), right career selection lays the foundation for an individual’s satisfaction from any job in the career he/she chooses to pursue. Because job satisfaction represents an important goal of career counselling and is regarded as an indicator of effective career decision making, it is considered an important outcome for evaluating career guidance effectiveness (Spector cited by Borchet, 2004). This implies that satisfactory career decisions are only a result of good career guidance, and conversely, inadequate career guidance is reflected may result in less career satisfaction. (Ipaye, 1996; Davidson, 2009; Zaidi and Iqbal, 2011).

On the other hand, job satisfaction is closely linked with career satisfaction. Because of this relationship between career counselling and job satisfaction it is also assumed that career realisation is an outcome of effective career guidance. Adequate career guidance is an important predictor of career satisfaction and career realisation. Actually, job satisfaction has been
conceptualized as resulting from congruence between a person’s interests and the work environment (Holland cited in Nauta, 2007); therefore, the closer the congruence, the higher the chances of attaining career satisfaction. Career realisation is the end-product of a chain of reactions that have to happen correctly. Adequate career guidance, leads to right subject selection, which in turn leads to right career decision. Right career decision will lead to career satisfaction which in turn leads to career realisation. This is illustrated below.

**Adequate career guidance > right career decision > career satisfaction > career realisation.**

This means that; for an individual to attain career realisation certain criteria have to be fulfilled. The results of this study indicated that 63% of the respondents experience a relatively average degree of career satisfaction. However, only about 30% of these respondents in this study seem to experience high levels of career realisation (see table 4.16).

The main objective of this study was to find out if there is a significant difference in career realisation between the respondents who were influenced by formal or non-formal career guidance. According to the results, there is no significant difference at 5% level in the degrees of career realisation between the two groups. However, small noticeable differences were observed in some indicators of career satisfaction such as; the desire to remain in the same career, influencing others to join the same career. Those respondents influenced by formal career guidance had higher percentages in influencing others positively to join a similar career, contentment that is characterized by not desiring to change career, number of times one has changed their career, desiring to remain in the same career for a relatively longer time. Those influenced by formal career guidance also had higher percentages reporting that there is congruence between their career with their interests and personalities. Although the respondents
influenced by formal career guidance seem to experience relatively higher levels of career satisfaction and career realisation, out of a sample of 90, only 18 reported to have been influenced mostly by formal career guidance. This may suggest that there is something disagreeable about how formal career guidance is presented, so that it seems less appealing to the students, yet it is more effective. Probably due to the smallness of the size of the sample, especially those who were influenced by formal career realisation, one can only infer that there are slight differences that are not of statistical significance.

4.5 Chapter summary
From the foregoing discussion, there is no significant difference in career realisation levels of those influenced by formal career guidance and those influenced by non-formal career guidance. While the researcher would have expected an equal distribution of the participants in each of the three categories under study, 30 per category, this was not the result. A very small percentage of all the participants (18) indicated that they were influenced by formal career guidance, while 40 reported to have been influenced by non-formal career guidance and the rest, 32 were equally influenced by both formal and Non-formal career guidance.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

This chapter summarises the findings of the entire study and discusses the possible implications. It is divided into the following sections: summary of research findings, limitations of this research study, contributions of this study to existing literature, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary of research findings
The main objective of this research was to compare the career realisation levels of two groups: those individuals who were influenced by formal career guidance and those influenced by non-formal career guidance in their choice of careers. It was also the researcher’s aim to use these findings to suggest a feasible approach to the implementation of career guidance in secondary schools so that the students can make informed career decisions and optimize their career satisfaction and career realisation levels.

Before getting to compare the two forms of career guidance, the researcher sought to establish the significance of career guidance to the adolescent. Career guidance is the foundation of good career selection which may lead to career satisfaction and higher levels of career realisation. The self esteem possessed by students is related to the appropriateness of vocational choice. To a great extent, the degree of career realisation is a reflection of the effectiveness of the nature of career guidance. Several research findings (Shumba, 1995; Mapfumo et al., 2002; Desai, 2012; Herr & Cramer, 1974) emphasize the significance of career guidance; that there is a positive correlation relationship between career selection, self esteem, job satisfaction, and job
performance (Zaidi & Iqbal, 2011). Career guidance also broadens students’ horizons about self awareness and career awareness and gives the adolescent an orientation to the world of work (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981). In addition, it also helps students to be successful thus adding value to their lives, the community, society and organisations they are associated with (Sink, 2005). Research has also indicated that the key stakeholders in career guidance are the school, the home and the child (Davidson, 2009; Ali & Graham, 1996; Shah, 2001; Nziramasanga Commission, 1999).

The findings of this research indicate that there is no significant statistical difference at 5% level in the career realisation levels of individuals who were influenced by formal career guidance and those who were influenced by non-formal career guidance in their career selection. However, there are some noticeable differences (worth mentioning) indicated in the findings of this research. These will be discussed the following sections.

**Hypothesis: H1:** There is no significant difference (at 0.05 level of significance) in the expected and observed number of students who are influenced by formal, non-formal and both types of career guidance in choosing a career. A Chi-square test was used to test this hypothesis. The Chi square p value of 0.025 was obtained and because it is smaller than 0.05 the null hypothesis; There is no significant difference (at 0.05 level of significance) in the expected and observed number of students who are influenced by formal, non-formal and both types of career guidance in choosing a career was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. There is a significant difference in the expected and observed numbers of students influenced by formal, non-formal and both types of career guidance. While formal career guidance that is officially offered in schools is expected to influence relatively more students, the opposite was observed.
Parents and familial sources were reported to be the most influential in students’ career decisions.

The findings of this research indicate that besides parents, the school career guidance lessons, school administrators and teachers are the second most influential forces in career decisions of adolescents. These results concur with Mapfumo and Chireshe’s (2005); Davidson, (2009; Jungen, (2008) findings that parents and relatives are the major sources of influence in career decisions. Other findings support the same thought that parents influence career decisions in subject selection, developing high career aspirations, in making decisions for college training, as role models (Sink, 2005; Singh, 2005; Bloomberg, 1984; Mutekwe and Modiba, 2012; Desai; 2012).

Studies in America (Fowkes, 2009) also indicate that parental influence seems to decline as the child gets older. According to a study by Helwig (cited by Fowkes, 2009), students in the 10th grade reported that their parents were the most influential in their career aspirations, while the older ones, those in the 12th grade, indicated that teachers were the most influential. Hence, in this study (which involved participants who have passed through secondary school) there is a possibility of having the influence of both teachers and parents. However, as Hurlock (1973) observes, parental influence on career guidance wanes as the adolescents grow older.

The influence of formal career guidance (school administrators and teachers), is profound. Even before formal career guidance was introduced formally in schools, a number of students reported to have been influenced by schools in their career decisions. Contrary to the popular belief that parental influences in career guidance declines with age, the findings of this research indicate
that only 20% of the participants of this research were influenced by formal career guidance, i.e. the school administrators and teachers, in their selection of career, mainly through career guidance lessons and Career Day guests. In this research, parental influence was ranked highest by the participants, followed by formal sources and peer influence was ranked sixth in career decision-making.

The observation that students benefit very little from formal career guidance maybe misleading though, because in this research, although there are fewer participants who were influenced by formal career guidance, those few reported higher levels of career satisfaction and career realisation. Although formal career guidance seems to influence relatively fewer students it may be considered effective. The research findings indicate that almost half of the (44.4%) of the research participants were influenced by non-formal career guidance, especially by their parents. This concurs with previous research findings, for example Mapfumo et al. (2002) findings indicate that parents and relatives have the strongest influence in career decisions of most secondary school boys and girls in Zimbabwe. Slightly more than two in five students rated parents/guardians as the primary influence on their career planning (Dietsche, 2013). Studies in South African schools by Bloomberg (1984, p. 77) indicate that fathers (52%) and mothers (40%) were rated as the most influential in relation to subject choices by secondary school students. Similar observations were made in Nigeria by Okeke (cited by Ipaye, 1996), whereby 60% of the students indicated that they are willing to take after their father’s occupation and 25% after their mothers’ occupations. Researches in Nigeria by Gesindo (cited in Ipaye, 1996) indicate that parental influence was rated at 66% for the students in teachers colleges and 56% in students at technical colleges. Familial influences seem to have stronger impact because it is
intentional and persistent; parents, relatives, mentors and sponsors tend to be effective because they continue to provide support to the child (both social and financial support) during the career training period. Parental influence is both intentional and unintentional. Young (1997) cited in Davidson, (2009) observed that parental influence is most helpful when it is intentional, planned and a goal-directed action. Sink (2005) confirms that most parents influence their children’s career decisions both intentionally and unintentionally. Actually, most parents are so interested in their children’s future that they know their children’s goals and so assist them towards those goals. This is particularly easier for parents than for teachers because the former live relatively longer with their children than the teachers.

The parental approach to career guidance is usually on one to one basis, unlike, formal career guidance, where it is group guidance through career guidance lessons or Career Day guests. Group guidance approach has its limitations; it lacks the one to one interaction and does not usually follow through. As such, it becomes deficient on relational aspects. Most schools do not have a specific, permanent, trained guidance and counselling teacher (Mapfumo & Chiresh, 2005). Consequently, they rely on any teacher who might be having a deficit in the number of teaching periods. In this case the student may not develop strong relational ties that should accompany effective guidance. This way, formal career guidance in most schools becomes more of information-centred than student centred, providing needed information but without much personal touch with the students. Because of these constrains of lack of manpower, each career advisor may be responsible for 50-100 students, besides his/her usual subject teaching load.

Due to the differences in approach, the student centred approach, common in non-formal career guidance, seems to be more attractive to most students. Student centred approaches tend to be
proactive and individualised. On the other hand, information centred approaches tend to be passive, relying on students to initiate contact and are more general, focusing on satisfying entry requirements and subject selection. This is may not be what many students look for only. For as observed by several researches, (Singh, 2005; Davidson: 2009, Dietsche, 2013) providing information alone does not suffice. According to Sheldon, et al. (2006) students are most satisfied with career advice in the form of consultancy with a school based career advisor. Although talks by career advisors are the most common approaches, they are rated as less satisfactory.

The results seem to indicate that while formal career guidance seems to be more effective in guiding students into their desired career, non-formal career guidance seems a plausible option for most students than formal career guidance. The effectiveness of a career guidance approach depends on producing employees with high career realisation. This is only achieved through its pro-activeness, ability to build trust and confidence in its clients and the perceived support and follow through after secondary school.

**Hypothesis H2**: *There is no significant difference in the participants’ perceptions about the relationship between career guidance and career satisfaction* was accepted.

Effectiveness of career guidance may be defined differently depending on who is evaluating it and what the expected outcome is. In this research, it was defined from the participants’ perspective. According to Bimrose (2006) what matters most is; what benefits the clients most. In this case it is what the student finds very useful as they become employees.
Indeed most of the participants from all the three groups subscribe to the concept that career guidance has significant benefits to the student. Herr, (1979, p. 135) posits; “guidance process helps students to become competent decision makers and to select high school courses and to make school plans more congruent with their abilities than is true of students not exposed to such processes.” Guidance avails students with relevant career information to make informed decisions which they will not regret later. Yet, as Davidson (2009) puts it, information alone is not enough; they need to be guided, especially if they are guided by competent adults such as career guidance teachers and informed parents, they also gain confidence in the perceived support from these sources of guidance. Students who have received adequate career guidance tend to develop persistent interests (Hurlock, 1973). In addition to this, Watts et al. (1996) also note that career guidance is also beneficial if it promotes both vertical and horizontal mobility by increasing the employee’s range of skills.

In all the three groups it was unanimously indicated that good career guidance, including the process of subject selection, may lead to satisfactory career choices. More than 65% of participants from all the three groups in this study agreed or strongly agreed that good subject selection and adequate career guidance leads to some degree of career satisfaction. It is from this background that career guidance counsellors get their motivation, for they hope to get their clients into satisfying careers. “Helping clients identify one or more potentially satisfying occupations is also a common goal of career counselling” (Sharf cited by Nauta, 2007).

According to (Bimrose, 2006) investigating what constitutes effective guidance is complex. Research on the effectiveness of career guidance indicate that even where clients had not implemented the action agreed or taken the advice offered, they reported that their guidance was
useful in that it acted as a catalyst for constructive (positive) change in various ways. In other words, as long as the client makes progress towards achieving their aspired career goal, career guidance can be described as effective.

**Hypothesis H3:** There is no significant relationship between career realisation score with other career realisation indicators was rejected.

Career realisation, which is the pinnacle of career success, is characterized by contentment with one’s career to such an extent that the individual does not look for only survival needs from his/her career, but enjoys his/ her career and feels a sense of achievement as he/she performs the tasks. For one to enjoy their work, the degree of congruence between one’s career and their abilities, their interests and personality will be high. Hence, interest, personality and values inventories are used to assist clients to explore the best possible match of a career with their personal characteristics based on the assumption that a good match will result in career satisfaction (Hansen, cited by Nauta, 2007). Career satisfaction, a product of effective career guidance, leads to career realisation. To a great extent, the degree of career realisation is a measure of the effectiveness of a career guidance programme. However, the effectiveness of career guidance programme depends on from which theoretical perspective we approach it. As Bimrose (2006) observed, the desirable outcomes of effective career guidance practice, in part depend on the theoretical perspective informing practice. For example, the expected outcome for the trait-factor approach to career practice would be to match the client to the 'best fit' employment, education or training opportunity by assisting with a rational decision-making process.
Even the earliest theories of career development, such as the trait-factor theory focus on striking a close match between the individual’s abilities, interests and their career. Tieger and Tieger (2009) point out that the three important factors considered when helping clients find career satisfaction have been; abilities, interests and values. In addition to this, these authors also emphasize personality type as an integral factor in job satisfaction.

Other research findings also confirm the relationship of the above mentioned career satisfaction indicators to a high degree of contentment and commitment. Career contentment can also be achieved by choosing the career on the basis of personal traits (Zaidi and Iqbal, 2011); this is true according to Holland’s Person-environment-fit theory. Although Zaidi and Iqbal (2011) associate these indicators to career satisfaction, this implies that they also have a positive correlation with career realisation score.

According to this research there is a positive correlation between career realisation score and other indicators of career realisation; such as not wishing to change careers and influencing others positively to join the same career. The findings of this research indicated that those participants with a relatively high career realisation score reported to be content with their careers, and to have a close match between their careers with their abilities, interests and personality. The effectiveness of career guidance is measured by its ability to lead the client to a career that meets his/her needs at optimal level with minimal stress. It is the sum of both the best match between abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality with the appropriate career and the sustainability of that congruence by an enabling environment (support from familial forces and significant others) and conditions in the workplace. In brief:
Career realisation = Congruence between the career and abilities, aptitudes, interests, personality + enabling supporting environment + enabling working conditions.

All these aspects that constitute career realisation are the ones the researcher analyzed as indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation. The researcher evaluated the effectiveness of career guidance practice from the eclectic approach, which takes the best of the different theoretical views. In this case, the non-formal career guidance leans more on the child-developmental approach of career guidance, with parents as the most influential providers of career guidance. Parents, as an interested party, claim to be in the best position to assist the student to develop self-awareness and self-determination. On the other hand formal (school) career guidance, dominated by the school career guidance programme, leans more on the trait factor-theory, matching abilities, interests, personalities and aptitudes to the appropriate career. Their aim is to match the client to the 'best fit' career education or training opportunity by assisting with a rational decision-making process which may lead to a satisfactory career choice (Bimrose, 2006). While the latter boasts of knowing the students/child’s abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality and how to match these to the best career, the former boasts of knowing the students/child’s early childhood experiences and his/her personality and aspirations then provide sustainable support accordingly, leading to career choices with the least regrets and greater satisfaction.

**Hypothesis H4:** There is no significant difference in career realisation levels between students who were influenced by formal, by non-formal or by both formal and non-formal career” was accepted.
There was no statistically significant difference at 0.05 level in the career realisation levels of participants from all the three groups in this study, although there were some observed differences in the proportions in the groups. The respondents influenced by formal career guidance reported relatively higher percentages in other indicators of career satisfaction and career realisation as compared to those respondents influenced by non-formal career guidance.

For example, there was a very small percentage that indicated feelings of dissatisfaction with ones’ career (characterised by regretting one’s career choice and wishing there was an opportunity to change). Instead, a relatively high percentage of them indicated “NO” to the option to change careers. In addition to this, a relatively greater percentage of those influenced by formal career realisation also reported that their career gives them a sense of accomplishment and that there is greater congruence between their career and their personality than those influenced by non-formal career guidance. These results are consistent with the findings of Zaidi and Iqbal (2011), which indicated that parental influence in career decision making does not necessarily result in higher job satisfaction.

Although the researcher initially intended to focus on two groups, formal career guidance and non-formal career guidance, a third variable emerged. This is an intermediate group of those participants who reported that they were equally influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance. Majority of respondents from this group reported moderate to high levels of career realisation. Though they did not report the highest career realisation levels, neither did they report the lowest. Probably perceived support from both formal and non-formal career guidance advisors seem to give them an edge as compared to the other two groups. This concurs
with Davidson’s (2009) findings that perceived parental support gives affirmation and boosts self efficacy of adolescents in their process of career decision making.

5.2 Implications
A relatively large percentage of the participants (44%) indicated that they were influenced by non-formal career guidance. This means that non-formal career guidance has very strong influences on students. This strong influence could be due to relatively strong social contexts. A strong social fabric tends to promote non-formal career guidance as was observed by Watts et al. (1996, p. 371).

In addition to economic and political factors, the significance attached to guidance and its nature are strongly influenced by social and cultural factors...for example; countries with strong social stratification are likely to have relatively limited needs for formal guidance services; individuals tend to make choices within socially circumscribed limits and are able to get much of the help they need from their family and from informal networks. In societies with high levels of social mobility...formal career guidance assumes greater importance...their family and informal networks are less likely to provide informed help...and there is likely more recourse to formal guidance services to provide the help that is required.

Ipaye (1996, p. 28) also noted that “cultural biases in career development are promoted by the strong social fabric of the African communities/families”. However, in this study the results seem to indicate that non-formal career guidance does not necessarily result in high levels of career satisfaction or career realisation. This too has its implications. Although non-formal career guidance is well accepted, it still is not very effective because the guidance providers, parents mainly, are not skilled in the area and neither do they have the needed resources such as career awareness information, inventories for assisting the student to develop self awareness. Then why is it still popular even though it has these limitations? The strengths of non-formal career guidance lie in its “student centred approach” and the perceived sustained support to the student. According to researches by Sheldon et al. (2008), student centred approaches are highly
proactive and individualised, responsive to each student’s individual needs; and student are most satisfied with career guidance in the form of individual consultations (one-on one). Parents seem quite keen to assist their children in career decisions. However studies have indicated that the major challenge is that parents often feel ill-equipped and helpless to support student’s career decision-making for a range of reasons including: lack of knowledge and information, lack of skills to have career conversations and fear of being unduly influential (Sink, 2005, Davidson, 2009, Desai, 2012,). Hence given an opportunity and rightly equipped, they could be harnessed to improve the effectiveness of career guidance for secondary school students.

Twenty percent of the research participants reported to have been influenced by formal career guidance, and they reported relatively higher levels of career realisation as compared to the other two groups. One can infer that formal career guidance is very effective in assisting students in career decisions and career self-efficacy. However, the daunting question is: if formal career guidance is very effective in leading students to attain high levels of career realisation, then why is it unpopular with most students? Formal career guidance uses the information centred approach in providing career guidance. Formal career guidance has the students’ academic information, it has the career awareness information and to some extent has tools for assisting students to develop self-awareness. However, as Sheldon et al. (2008) observed, information centred approaches tend to be passive and less individualised, relying on providing generalised career information through talks to groups of students (on subject selection and entry requirements), simply satisfying systems administrative requirements. According to Sheldon et al. (2006), student rated this approach as less satisfactory for it does not build trust and
confidence between the student and the career guidance provider. Formal career guidance has its strengths and its limitations.

The large numbers of participants who indicated that they were equally influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance (more than a third of the respondents) also seem to suggest that it seems a plausible option for many students to marry the two forms of career guidance than it is to depend solely on either. On the other hand, the relatively few numbers of those reporting to have been influenced by formal career guidance seem to imply that formal career guidance is still not very popular or readily accepted by many students in spite of its effectiveness. Apparently many students acknowledge the strengths of both of these forms of career guidance. Realizing that formal career guidance has not won the confidence of most students and conversely most students reported that they were strongly influenced by non-formal career guidance; it is encouraged that school counsellors should involve other stakeholders, both inside and outside the school, i.e., the home and community workers (Singh, 2005, p. 77). Probably collaboration between the two forms of career guidance seems to bring out the best for relatively more students. According to a study by Zvobgo (2009, p. 72) the schools need to work collaboratively with the parents to enhance the effectiveness of the guidance and counselling programme, of which career guidance is part. As other researchers have suggested; because schools are in an optimal position to influence contextual factors such as parental support and the school environment, positive learning experiences (Davidson, 2009); educators should seek avenues to utilize parental influence to enhance students’ career development journey (Whiston & Keller cited by Davidson, 2009).
5.3 Limitations of the research

This research had limitations some that were foreseen and others that were not foreseen by the researcher. For the ones that were anticipated, the researcher had ways to overcome or reduce the limitations as discussed earlier in the preceding chapters. The fact that it is a causal comparative research implies that it is very prone to some intrinsic limitations although the researcher tried to reduce these to the least possible level. In a causal comparative research, manipulation of variables is almost impossible. Hence in this case the results only lead one to make inferences, not definite conclusive statements. However, though associated with some limitations, it opens up gaps in research.

Measuring the outcomes of a career guidance programme is a complicated process (Bimrose, 2006). The measurement of the outcomes depends on the perceptions and expectations of the people who received the career guidance (Bimrose, 2006). The expected outcomes are best measured or evaluated by the recipients of the career guidance, the students, who are currently employees. These were the participants of this research. In this case, the measure of the participants’ self reports were used because there was no ready-made instrument for measuring the effectiveness, the researcher designed a career realisation inventory. Besides this, there are other complications associated with measuring the outcomes such as the fact that we cannot easily place a dollar value on the outcomes. In addition to this, there was no control group as in an experimental research. From the ethical point of view the researcher could not tamper with the participants’ future lives by assigning them into specific groups, so instead of random assignment, the participants self–selected themselves according to the type of career guidance they chose to be influenced by.
Because the researcher could not manipulate the independent variable, type of career guidance in the sampling process meant that the groups under study were not necessarily equal in numbers. Though this might have appeared to be a limitation, it brought out some insights on the relative acceptability of each type of career guidance. Trying to screen out the excess of some of the groups would prove a misrepresentation of the relative influence of each of the three types of career guidance in a given natural population. Most probably the differences in numbers precluded the statistical preclusion that is generally associated with experimental researches. However, based on the statistical formulas used such as the One-way ANOVA, one can still make conclusive inferences.

While most researchers would have expected a longitudinal approach to such a research, the relatively longer time involved in a longitudinal research made it impossible for the researcher to follow that approach. Instead the researcher carried out a cross-sectional research. Formal career guidance was introduced in secondary schools about two and half decades ago (although some schools still have not yet implemented a structured programme of career guidance). A longitudinal research would take a long time tracking a cohort of students through secondary school, into their respective career training and subsequently into their employment for at least five years. Because a relatively longer time could have been taken in a longitudinal research, we cannot afford to wait to evaluate the effectiveness of the career guidance programme for 12-15 years.

Besides, the researcher would have to track the research participants and there might be a possibility of losing some of the participants through death or losing their contacts. So, instead of
a longitudinal research, a causal comparative cross-sectional research was carried out to study the effectiveness of the different types of career guidance in retrospect. In addition to this, the follow-up involved in such a longitudinal research would be extremely costly as individuals needed to choose freely where to go for their career training and subsequently, their employment in different parts of the world.

The participants of this research were employees in Harare, Zimbabwe. Although this is representative of Zimbabwe at large, the findings may not directly apply to other populations, instead one can only infer.

The influences of the independent variables are also complicated in that they could be direct or indirect, which made it difficult for the participant to specifically say who/what had the strongest influence in their career decision. For example, parents, teachers or mentors could influence as role models (indirectly) or as they provide information on entry requirements for certain careers (directly).

Another major limitation is the dearth of literature with information on the current career guidance programme in Zimbabwe was a major limitation. Not much has been researched and documented about non-formal and formal career guidance practices because its inception. There was very scanty literature (documented information) on career realisation, and no existing generic career realisation scale. The economic situation in Zimbabwe is fluid. This could possibly confound the participants’ understanding of career satisfaction and career realisation. The researcher had to design a career realisation inventory considering the Zimbabwean
economic context. In addition to this, the researcher had to prepare the career realisation inventory based on generic job satisfaction, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and other sources.

5.4 Contributions of this study to existing literature

Despite its limitations, this research will contribute some insights to the existing literature in the world of career guidance. Because the findings indicated that most students value the parental career guidance, probably for the support they get in career decision making and whereas the parents also value their involvement in their children’s career decision making, findings of this research seem to indicate that they are inadequately equipped to do so. Other researches in Zimbabwe by Mapfumo et al. (2002) seem to support that relatives, especially parents, are the chief influences in career choice. In this particular study, it is possible that most school administrators and parents do not take into consideration the children’s interests, and personality, job market and demand. Hence, it might be necessary to equip the parents with the appropriate skills and career information and find appropriate ways of involving them in their children’s career guidance.

On the other hand, because most research participants influenced by formal career guidance seem to report relatively higher levels of career realisation, and yet formal career guidance somehow seems not easily acceptable to many students. Schools seem to have the needed career entry information and records of student abilities readily available. Research seems to support that too. Singh (2005, p. 73) states that; “Secondary schools are in an ideal position to give career guidance, they know their pupils’ abilities and they can make links with the world of work. Unfortunately, very few students seem to realise this or to seem to have confidence in the formal school career guidance.” From such observation, it might be a better option to marry the two
types of career guidance so as to optimize the benefit to the student. This argument is buttressed by the observation that those who were influenced by both formal and non-formal career guidance are more than those who were influenced by formal career guidance and they also seem to experience relatively high career realisation levels than those influenced by non-formal career guidance. In addition to this, this intermediate group, seem to experience relatively higher levels of career realisation than the other two groups on considering career–personality match and concerning career contentment and the relative desire to quit or change career. Those influenced by ‘Both’ had the least percentage of participants desiring to quit or change professions. As established earlier in this research, commitment is an indicator of career satisfaction and a predictor of career realisation.

The system approach to career guidance seems to promise better dividends for all the stakeholders. Collaboration of the two parties could optimize career satisfaction and career realisation levels of the student because the student will get balanced career guidance and support from both stakeholders. This concurs with Epstein’s model of overlapping spheres (Davidson, 2009; Lemmer, 2007) that advocates for parent and schools participation. Because career development is a process, not an event it no longer suffices that it be handled as a ‘one-man’ show. According to the Epstein model, schools and families share the responsibility for student’s success, and interact to help the student achieve academically and prepare for their future (Davidson, 2009, p. 22).

Many educators concur with this view. Ali and Graham (1992, p. 2) posit that careers guidance is no longer an exclusive preserve of careers officers only. The secret is to focus on their common goal yet each party playing their role. As Shah (2001) puts it; there is need for teachers to share
their ownership and habitual control of the student’s academic and career decisions with parents to ensure that the child benefits from both influences. Katz (cited by Shah, 2001, p. 243) points out that there is interaction between these environments, but the family is responsible for (child) development in the home, and the school is responsible for formal educational progress. This is also effective in career development, as long as there is role clarity, and the right attitude of team spirit, the common goal success of the child will be achieved. Sink (2005, p. 231) suggests that school counsellors could create opportunities that enhance parents’ knowledge and understanding of the trends in the career world and the possible implications for their children. According to Kerka (2000), career guidance providers and career educators might be more effective in achieving their desired goals if they shift the focus from the individual to the family system.

A study by Sanders, Epstein and Conos-Tadros (cited by Davidson, 2009) indicated that parents of high school students are interested and would such as to be involved in their adolescents’ education. However, Davidson (2009) observed that the educators are often not welcoming to parent involvement at the school level. Akos (cited in Davidson, 2009) recommends that educators must go beyond interacting with families on an as needed basis, but instead replace the old model of educators as the sole experts with a co-expert or a collaborative model.

However, as Shah (2001) points out, the current challenge is to identify roles and set boundaries between home and school without splitting responsibility down the middle too, for this could prove to result in a child with less career self-efficacy as they will not be getting the needed support from both the home and the school. From the findings of this research, it is advantageous for the two parties to marry their ideas about career guidance for this may have positive
synergistic benefits to the student’s career realisation. Non-formal career guidance brings in the strengths of familial social and financial support most needed by an adolescent in critical times of career decision making. Having lived with their child from childhood, parents may know more about the child’s personality, his/her aspirations and interests better than the school career guidance counsellor. On the other hand the school knows the student’s abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality. In addition to this, the school has greater access to the entry requirements for different careers and have information about the job market. This is illustrated in Epstein’s model of overlapping spheres. For career guidance, instead of the three spheres, with the home, the school and the community, involvement of the student as part of the decision making process is very vital for the student is going to live with that decision. When the student owns the decision, their career self efficacy will be boosted. In Epstein’s overlapping spheres model illustrated below, the student is more important than the community when it comes to career decisions. Hence the student as a stakeholder may be used to replace the community. However, these key stakeholders (school, student and his family) are all in the community, hence it is necessary to consider the general community needs when making career decisions. Zaidi and Iqbal’s (2011) research findings indicated that the student usually experiences greater career satisfaction if they participate freely in the decision making, and not train for a career under coercion or other manipulation.
Thus, these two stakeholders (family and school), work as a team to optimize the benefits of career guidance to the student. These three, the school, the family and the student are the key stakeholders in career guidance. They can form a ‘system’; a complementary system which works collaboratively.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this research sought to compare the career realisation levels of students influenced by formal career guidance and non-formal career guidance. The results indicated that there is no
statistically significant difference at 0.05% level in the career realisation levels between students influenced by formal career guidance and those influenced by non-formal career guidance. The study also indicated that Formal career guidance seems not very convincing to the students, because only 20% indicated to have been influenced by formal career guidance as opposed to 44% who reported to have been strongly influenced by non-formal career guidance.

Although formal career guidance was introduced in secondary school almost 30 years ago, and is being implemented in most schools countrywide, there seems to be still some pockets in Zimbabwe where formal career guidance still needs to be introduced and implemented. Probably the lack of implementation is due to constrains such as inadequate manpower and less zeal because career guidance is not an officially examinable subject. On responding to the significance of career guidance; it was unanimously indicated that career guidance is very necessary for the students to make informed career decisions. In view of this the researcher would such as to recommend that, as much as possible, career guidance should involve all the interested stakeholders, i.e, the student, the school and the parent. The schools have the light; the parents are such as the candle stand or are the hands that hold the torch to light the student’s career pathway to career satisfaction and career realisation.

5. 6 Recommendations and suggestion for further research

The findings of this research seem to point out the significance of the synergistic impact of a collaborative venture between the two major sources of influence of career guidance, the home and the school. In addition to this, the third most important stakeholder in terms of career guidance and career decisions is the student. It is very imperative for the student to be actively involved. Research According to recent research findings (Epstein, Sanders, Simon, Salinas,
Jansorn & Van Voorhis, 2000; Davidson, 2009) career counsellors and career educators should (1) shift the focus from the individual to the family system; (2) help families become more proactive; and (3) consider ways of duplicating helpful types of family functioning in schools, especially for children whose families are not proactive.

In view of this, the researcher would like to make the following recommendations:

- Career guidance providers need to refine their strategies, by taking advantage of the strengths of each of the key stakeholders; the strong influence of the family system and the expertise of the school administrators.
- Participation of all the stakeholders is important, (with neither one domineering), especially participation of the student in the career decision-making is of paramount importance. Including the child will give him confidence and boost his career self efficacy. (Zaidi and Iqbal, (2011).
- Since career development stretches throughout the lifespan it may be necessary to adopt an integrated approach, whereby every subject taught throughout secondary school is linked to its practical application in the world of careers (Tolbert, 1980; Ipaye, 1998). It may be more beneficial if the process of career guidance is initiated early in secondary school, before the students select their Ordinary level subjects, which will determine their subsequent specialization at Advanced Level (Singh, 2005). Because career development is a process, the programme needs to be continually and progressively ongoing, not just a once a lifetime event of the career guest day.
➢ Parents need to be encouraged to be proactive and be deliberately engaged in the planning of their children’s career development. There is need for the career guidance teachers to arrange to directly meet with the parent of each students just such as on the academic consultation days. This will enhance a collaborative spirit and strengthen the ties between the home and the school. As Papalia et al. (2004, p. 417) put it, when parents are deliberately involved in their children’s education it will offer academic motivation to their children.

➢ Parents need to be equipped with the appropriate career counselling skills and resources such as career awareness information, and the entry requirements for specific careers.

➢ Schools could organize consultations with parents and students at one on one basis, in addition to the usual generalized group guidance approach. Sink (2005) asserts that counsellors need to develop ways to multiply their effectiveness by working with parents to help the students in making career decisions.

In addition to this, the researcher recommends further research the in the following areas:

➢ It might shed more light to this study if a similar research could be done in another city or on a larger population from both large and small cities and even including employees from the farming industry.

➢ Because career realisation is a long term outcome, if time permits, a longitudinal research, following a cohort, tracking a group of students from early secondary school to ten or fifteen years into their employment may need to be done.

➢ The researcher also s recommends that a study be carried out on the attitude of parents towards forming a collaborative alliance with the school on teaming up (in a joint
venture of career guidance programme) to assist the student to maximize his/her career satisfaction and career realisation level.

- It might also be more beneficial if a research is carried out on finding out the attitudes of students on the proposal that students be actively involved in subject selection and career planning partnering with their parents and the school.
REFERENCES


Hwara, S. (2005). *Pupils’ view on the career guidance and counselling in secondary schools*


APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM AND LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Consent Form For participants

Dear Sir/ Madam,

My name is Constance Chifamba. I am a studying for a Doctor of Philosophy in Education with the University of Zimbabwe, Department of Educational Foundations. I am working on a research on career guidance in Secondary Schools, The information obtained will benefit the schools, parents and students in refining the process of career decision making.

I am writing to solicit your participation in my thesis research. Participation in this research is absolutely voluntary. There are neither compensatory benefits nor any anticipated risks associated with participation in this study. All the results of this study will be handled confidentially and according to the laws of the country. Please do not write your name.

Please feel free to contact me for queries or clarifications: chifambaconstance@yahoo.com;

Cell: 263774818642

Thank you for your time and commitment to making this study a success.
Sincerely,
Constance Chifamba
APPENDIX B

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Please read each question carefully and answer as truthfully as possible. This questionnaire consists of three sections. Respond by putting a tick in the corresponding box. This information will be treated with confidentiality. Please do not write your name.

Section A

1. Name of Organisation: _______________________________________________________
2. Gender
   - Male
   - Female

3. Age Group;
   - Below 30 years
   - 31-40 years
   - 41-50 years
   - 51-60 years
   - 61 and above

4. Highest Level of education
   - PhD
   - Masters
   - PG. Diploma
   - BA/BSc
   - Diploma/ Certificate
   - Other; Specify ______________________

5. What position do you hold at your institution?
   - Officer (e.g. CEO, CFO)
   - Manager
   - Department Director
   - Support Staff
   - Other; Specify ______________________

6. How long have you been in the same CAREER?
   - 2-5 Years
   - 5-10 Years
   - 10-15 Years
   - More than 20 Years

7. Approximately how many people have encouraged/ influenced you to join your CAREER?
   - None
   - 1 – 5 People
   - 5 – 10 People
   - More than 10 People
8. Given the option would you such as to change your CAREER?  
   Yes ☐  No ☐ 

9. Reason for changing CAREER:  
   Working Hours ☐  Retrenchment ☐  Other; Specify ☐ 
   Salary ☐  Family Consideration ☐ 

10. How long do you intend to continue in the same career?  
   Less than 5 Years ☐  5 – 10 Years ☐  
   For 10 – 20 ☐  Until Retirement ☐ 

Section B  
**In your opinion, rank the following statements on a 1-5 scale**  
1. = Strongly Agree  2= Agree  3= Undecided.  
4= Disagree.  5= Strongly Disagree.  
Indicate by putting an X in the appropriate box

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<tr>
<td>11. Guidance and counselling lessons at school had the strongest influence on my choice of career.</td>
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<td>12. Administrators and Teachers at school influenced me the most in my career decision.</td>
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<td>13. My parents/guardian influenced me the most in my career decision.</td>
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<td>14. My career suits my interests</td>
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<td>15. My career suits my personality</td>
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<td>16. This career gives me a sense of accomplishment</td>
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<td>17. Career Day Guest speakers influenced me the most in my career decision</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Choosing the right subjects and right career may lead to some degree of career satisfaction</td>
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<td>19. I was strongly influenced by my mentor to choose this career</td>
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<td>20. The sponsor influenced me the most to choose this career</td>
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<td>21. If I were financially secure I would quit this job and pursue a career of my choice</td>
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<td>22. I enjoy my job so much; I talk about it with others.</td>
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<td>23. I wish I understood the entry requirements for different careers before I selected my subjects</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. Good career guidance leads to satisfactory career choices</td>
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211
**Section C**
In your opinion, rank the following working conditions or reinforcement/allowances/incentives (which may or may not be available at your workplace) on a scale of 0-4. Indicate by placing an X in the appropriate box.
.0=none/ Not available, 1= below average, 2= average, 3=above average, 4=very satisfactory

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<td>Liveable salary</td>
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<td>Accommodation allowance</td>
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<td>Utility (water, electricity, telephone) allowance</td>
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<td>Holiday allowance</td>
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<td>Educational assistance (skills improvement, including family members, children, spouse)</td>
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<td>Healthy working relationships</td>
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<td>Prestige/popularity/ recognition</td>
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<td>Spirituality/ religious considerations</td>
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<td>I feel a sense of achievement/ A sense of accomplishment/ A sense of helping people</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>Loans (car, home improvement, Study etc)</td>
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<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Opportunity to attend workshops/ seminars</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>I find my work very rewarding</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>I am given some responsibility; I feel trusted</td>
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<td>42</td>
<td>Opportunity for promotion/ upward mobility</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>The work is too challenging/ or the work is too much I have to put in extra hours</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>Other (specify)</td>
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45. My Personal Opinion about Career Satisfaction is:
APPENDIX C:
RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

Table 3.6 Summary of the Results of the Pilot study

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<td>H</td>
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<td>B</td>
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</table>
1 August 2012

To whom it may concern

The bearer, Mr. Wisnui Masango, C.H.A. REGISTRATION NUMBER B.12.253.3.11 is a DPhil (student) in the Department of Educational Foundations at the University. She is carrying out a research on "A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL CAREER GUIDANCE ON CAREER REALIZATION AT SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS" as part of her DPhil course. I am kindly asking you to assist her with the information, which she may require including the use of library facilities. I may be contacted on the above address for any further information, which you may need.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. O. Hapanyengi
(Chairman - Educational Foundations)
all communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Education, Sport, Arts and Culture"
Telephone: 734051/59 and 734071
Telegraphic address:
"EDUCATION"
Fax:
794505/705289/734075

CONSTANCE CHIFANBA
NO 1 BENTAR WAY
NEW ALEXANDRA PARK
HARARE

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SPORT, ARTS AND CULTURE.

Reference is made to your application to carry out research in the Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture institutions on the title:

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL CAREER GUIDANCE ON CAREER REALIZATION BY SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director responsible for the school which you want to involve in your research.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Ministry since your study is instrumental in the development of education in Zimbabwe.

T.L. Mudema
For: SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION, SPORT, ARTS AND CULTURE
10 December 2012

Dear Constance Chifamba

Ref: RESEARCH ON CARRIER GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This letter serves to inform you that, you can go ahead with your research at Borrowdale Brooke Spar and our sister company, Joina City Spar.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

Sipho Ndebele
General Manager
APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH AT PARIRENYATWA HOSPITAL

NAME OF APPLICANT: CONSTANCE CHIFAMBA

ADDRESS OF APPLICANT: NO1 BENATAR WAY
NEW ALEX PARK, HARARE

NAME OF INSTITUTION: UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: PROF. E. ZINDI

PROJECT PROPOSAL

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE INFLUENCE OF
FORMAL & NON-FORMAL CAREER GUIDANCE
ON CAREER REALISATION OF SEC SCHOOL STUDENTS

OBJECTIVES

1. TO ANALYSE FORMER STUDENT'S PERCEPTIONS ON
THE CAREER GUIDANCE THEY RECEIVED.

2. TO SUGGEST A FEASIBLE CAREER GUIDANCE INSTRUMENT THAT WILL HELP THE SCHOOL, STUDENTS & PARENTS

METHODOLOGY: DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH

USING QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS TO
COMPARE CAREER REALISATION OF EMPLOYEES
A 75 POINT QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE USED

TIMETABLE: FROM 3-7 DECEMBER 2012

PATIENT INCLUSION CRITERIA

TARGET POPULATION (SAMPLE OF 30 NURSES)
USE OF RESULTS

To assist the implementation of career guidance in secondary schools and at home.

REFERENCES

I promise to forward the Conclusions of the study to the CLINICAL DIRECTOR.

NAME: C. CHIFamba  SIGNATURE: C. CHIFamba
(Cell: 0774 815 642)

STATION PERMISSION

1. CONSULTANT
   NAME: [Signature]
   Agree/Do not Agree

2. WARD MANAGER
   NAME: [Signature]
   Agree/Do not Agree

STAFFA GROUP OF HOSPITAL
PRINCIPAL MATRON
14 NOV 2012
P.O. BOX CY 198, CAUSEWAY
ZIMBABWE
The University of Zimbabwe

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL CAREER GUIDANCE ON CAREER REALIZATION BY SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

A Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis

By

Constance Chifamba

Cell 263774818642

E-mail: chifambaconstance@yahoo.com

February, 2014

Contents

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INTRODUCTION 6

TOPIC: A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL CAREER GUIDANCE ON CAREER REALISATION BY SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS. 6

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1.1.1 Introduction 6
1.3 Background to the study 7
1.4 Statement of Problem 9
1.5 Purpose of study 9
### APPENDIX E

(DEMOGRAPHIC DATA)

Table 4.4 *Demographic Data (Frequencies) According to Type of Influencing Career Guidance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Non-formal</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yrs of experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5yrs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10yrs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20yrs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 20yrs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.20 Extraneous variables - Career realisation score- Cross-tabulation. (frequencies and percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Career realisation score (Below 50)</th>
<th>Career realisation score (Above 50)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>72.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business office</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 30 years old</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 yrs</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 yrs</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60 yrs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 60 yrs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Qualification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA/BSc</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>70.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGDip</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dip./Certificate</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>67.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. Director</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support staff</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>67.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Working exp.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5 yrs</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10yrs</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15yrs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20 yrs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 20 yrs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.9 Participants’ perceptions on the relationship between career guidance and career satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qn</th>
<th>Variable statement</th>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>Non-formal</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Right subject selection leads to right Career selection and to some degree of career satisfaction</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Good career guidance leads to satisfactory career choices</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Oneway Analysis of variance

ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>578.429</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>289.215</td>
<td>2.211</td>
<td>.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>11513.395</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>130.834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12091.824</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Hypothesis Test Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  The categories of Type of career guidance occur with equal probabilities.</td>
<td>One-Sample Chi-Square Test</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  The categories of career satisfaction score occur with equal probabilities.</td>
<td>One-Sample Chi-Square Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  The distribution of identity is normal with mean 47.00 and standard deviation 26.99.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.876</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  The distribution of organization is normal with mean 2.45 and standard deviation 1.07.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  The distribution of gender is normal with mean 1.58 and standard deviation 0.50.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  The distribution of age is normal with mean 1.95 and standard deviation 1.10.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  The distribution of level of education is normal with mean 4.21 and standard deviation 1.28.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  The distribution of professional discipline is normal with mean 3.27 and standard deviation 2.29.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  The distribution of position is normal with mean 3.95 and standard deviation 1.14.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 The distribution of yrs of experience is normal with mean 2.13 and standard deviation 1.34.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 The distribution of No of pple influenced is normal with mean 2.23 and standard deviation 1.06.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 The distribution of Option to change is normal with mean 1.53 and standard deviation 0.50.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 The distribution of Times changed is normal with mean 1.31 and standard deviation 0.71.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Reason for change is normal with mean 2.67 and standard deviation 1.43.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The distribution of Yes you plan to work is normal with mean 2.48 and standard deviation 1.31.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>The distribution of Career suits interests is normal with mean 2.50 and standard deviation 1.40.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Career suits personality is normal with mean 2.57 and standard deviation 1.45.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Career gives sense of accomplishment is normal with mean 2.82 and standard deviation 1.52.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Entered career as stepping stone is normal with mean 2.89 and standard deviation 1.31.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Wish to quit and pursue career of own choice is normal with mean 3.11 and standard deviation 1.57.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of I enjoy my work is normal with mean 2.51 and standard deviation 1.37.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of VAR00001 is normal with mean 0.00 and standard deviation 0.00.</td>
<td>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>Unable to compute.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.
## REPRESENTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS: WHERE PARTICIPANTS LEARNT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of secondary school</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Filabusi High school</td>
<td>38 Kukudzana High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruya High school</td>
<td>39 Zimuto High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makumbe High school</td>
<td>40 Nyanga High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyashanu High school</td>
<td>41 St John’s High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highfield Highfield school</td>
<td>42 Chikwaka High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loreto High school</td>
<td>43 Chinhuoi High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen Elizabeth High school</td>
<td>44 Chinyauthwera High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mashoko High school</td>
<td>45 Chikore High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Stark High school</td>
<td>46 Waddilove High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siyano High school</td>
<td>47 Kuwadzana High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dandaw High school</td>
<td>48 Rusununguko High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chibue High school</td>
<td>49 Pakham High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zengeza High school</td>
<td>50 Mwamba High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hartzel High school</td>
<td>51 Mwamba High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dadaya High school</td>
<td>52 Hatfield High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murewa High school</td>
<td>53 Chaplain High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwayedza High school</td>
<td>54 Glenview High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Theresa High school</td>
<td>55 Nkhowe Mission High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>David Livingstone High school</td>
<td>56 Bonda High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Glen View High school</td>
<td>57 Hatfield High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nagle House High school</td>
<td>58 Mwamba High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nyamukono High school</td>
<td>59 Montrose High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kwayedza High school</td>
<td>60 Visitation High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Theresa High school</td>
<td>61 Thekwane High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>David Livingstone High school</td>
<td>62 Glen Norah High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glen View High school</td>
<td>63 Loreto High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Murewa High school</td>
<td>64 Mwamba High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tongogara High school</td>
<td>65 Visitation High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eaglesvale High school</td>
<td>66 Jameson High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foundation College</td>
<td>67 Founders High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zengeza 4 High school</td>
<td>68 Manunure High school</td>
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<td>Murewa High school</td>
<td>69 Queen Elizabeth High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foundation College</td>
<td>70 Mbaulo High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zengeza 4 High school</td>
<td>71 Kakora High school</td>
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<td>Murewa High school</td>
<td>72 Regina Coeli High school</td>
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<tr>
<td>St Ane’s High school</td>
<td>73 St John’s Nyanga High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kambuzuma High school</td>
<td>74 Rusununguko High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wedza High school</td>
<td>75 Hartzell High school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>