

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY
DYNAMICS AMONG AFRICAN MATRICULANTS: APPLICATION OF THE
CIRCUMPLEX MODEL.

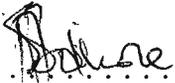
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DEGREE OF MASTERS IN COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that all the work presented in this thesis is my own work unless otherwise specified.



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DATE: 24/03/97

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between career indecision and family dynamics among matriculants. The sample was drawn from two high schools in an African township. The Olson Circumplex model of Marital and Family Systems was applied to test various types of family relations and how they would influence career decisiveness. Career indecision is, therefore, the independent variable with the two dimensions of family relations (cohesion and adaptability) as given in the model as primary predictor variables. Other variables that were tested were exposure to career information as determined by the differences between the two schools, and gender differences. The My Vocational Situation (MVS), the Career Decision Scale (CDS) and the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale III (FACES III) were used as instruments of measurement. Multiple regression and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were used as methods of statistical analysis.

Significant differences were found between subjects from the two schools. Findings indicate that exposure to career information is a strong determinant of career decisiveness. It was also found that career identity is highly correlated with career decisiveness. Differences were also found between male and female participants particularly in the measures of career indecision, career identity and occupational information, with boys being more decisive than girls. Family adaptability was demonstrated to have a weak correlation with career indecision while no statistically significant relationship was demonstrated between family cohesion and career indecision.

Recommendations in this study are that career counselling in the schools needs to be introduced and intensified. Career information given to pupils should also be integrated for them to assist them achieve career identity.

Research has demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between career development and family dynamics. Results of this study, however, demonstrate a weak relationship. This brings up questions about the Circumplex model applied in this study and the FACES III as an instrument used to test it. Further research is recommended in this area.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

	PAGE
1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	1
1.1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM	
1.1.2 THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	
1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	8
1.2.1 CAREER EDUCATION AND CAREER COUNSELLING IN SOUTH AFRICA	
1.2.2 CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND THE INFLUENCE OF THE FAMILY	
1.3 PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY	11
1.4 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES	14
1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS	14
1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY	16

CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT	18
2.1.1 THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN RELATION TO THE ROLE OF THE FAMILY	
2.1.1.1 Personality Theories	19
2.1.1.2 Developmental Theories	23
2.1.1.3 Situational or Sociological Theories	27
2.1.1.4 Psychoanalytic Theories	29
2.1.2 THE RELEVANCE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES IN RELATION TO THE AFRICAN ADOLESCENT AND HIS\HER FAMILY	29
2.1.3 CAREER EDUCATION, THE FAMILY AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT	36

2.1.4	THE THEORY OF CAREER INDECISION	38
2.2	THE OLSON CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL AND FAMILY SYSTEMS	39
2.2.1	OVERVIEW OF THE MODEL	
2.3	CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS	46
2.4	TRANSITION IN FAMILIES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR ADOLESCENTS	50
2.5	DIFFERENCES IN GENDER WITH REGARD TO CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND THE FAMILY INFLUENCE	56
 CHAPTER III - METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES 		
3.1	SAMPLING	58
3.1.1	SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION	
3.2	RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN	60
3.3	INSTRUMENTS	61
3.3.1	THE CAREER DECISION SCALE (CDS) Reliability Validity	62
3.3.2	MY VOCATIONAL SITUATION (MVS) Reliability Validity	64
3.3.3	FAMILY ADAPTABILITY AND COHESION EVALUATION SCALE III (FACES III)	66
3.3.3.1	Development of the FACES Reliability and Validity	
3.3.4	BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE	69
3.4	PROCEDURES	70
3.5	ISSUES IN TRANSLATION OF INSTRUMENTS	71
3.5.1	CONCEPTUAL EQUIVALENCE	
3.5.2	EXPERIENTIAL EQUIVALENCE	
3.5.3	VOCABULARY EQUIVALENCE	
3.5.4	METHOD OF TRANSLATION	
3.6	DESIGN AND ANALYSIS	73

3.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	74
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CHAPTER IV - RESULTS

4.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER INDECISION AND OTHER CORRELATES	76
4.1.1 CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY COHESION	
4.1.2 CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY ADAPTABILITY	
4.1.3 CAREER INDECISION AND CAREER IDENTITY	
4.1.4 GENDER EFFECTS	
4.1.5 SCHOOL EFFECTS	
4.1.6 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY COHESION\ ADAPTABILITY	
4.1.7 CAREER INDECISION AND CAREER CHOICE	

CHAPTER V - DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 FAMILY COHESION AND CAREER INDECISION	89
5.2 FAMILY ADAPTABILITY AND CAREER INDECISION	91
5.3 CAREER IDENTITY AND CAREER INDECISION	94
5.4 EXPOSURE TO CAREER INFORMATION AND CAREER INDECISION	96
5.5 GENDER DIFFERENCES AND CAREER INDECISION	98
5.6 CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF AFRICAN MATRICULANTS	100

CHAPTER IV - CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS	103
6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR APPLICATION	107
6.2.1 INTRODUCTION AND INTENSIFICATION OF CAREER COUNSELLING IN THE SCHOOLS	
6.2.2 CONSIDERATIONS FOR FAMILY INFLUENCE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES	
6.2.3 SURVIVABLE AND RESPONSIVE PROGRAMMES	
6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	109
6.4 REFERENCES	111
6.5 APPENDICES	125

LIST OF TABLES

	PAGE
TABLE 1: Sample distribution by age.	58
TABLE 2: Sample distribution by gender	60
TABLE 3: Summary table of the comparison of internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach alpha) obtained for the original instruments and the translated instruments use in this study.	70
TABLE 4: Mean scores and standard deviations for total samples	76
TABLE 5: Coefficients of correlation between test measures	77
TABLE 6: Mean scores on career identity as measured by the My Vocational Situation(MVS)and career indecision as measured by the Career Decision Scale (CDS) by level of family cohesion as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale III (FACES III)	77
TABLE 7: Mean scores on career identity as measured by the MVS and career indecision as measured by the CDS by level of family adaptability as measured by the FACES III.	79
TABLE 8: Mean scores and standard deviations for various variables by gender.	84
TABLE 9: Mean scores and standard deviations for various variables by school.	84
TABLE 10: Prediction of career indecision score (IS) by stepwise multiple regression selection using school, gender, family cohesion and family adaptability as predictors.	86

LIST OF FIGURES

	PAGE
FIGURE 1: The Circumplex model of Marital and Family Systems.	41
FIGURE 2: Sample distribution by age.	59
FIGURE 3: Family cohesion, career identity and career indecision.	78
FIGURE 4: Family adaptability, career identity and career indecision.	80

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Career development is influenced by both individual and situational factors. Tolbert (1974) defined career development as a life-long process of developing work values, crystallising a vocational identity and learning about work opportunities. It implies that arriving at a career decision is affected by various persons, conditions, personal needs and attributes. Burck's definition (in Burck and Reardon, 1984) detailed the definition of career development is: "the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and chance factors that combine to shape the career of any given individual" (p. 6).

The above definitions suggest that career development is a function of both individual (personal needs and attributes) and situational (persons and conditions) factors. According to Sundal-Hansen (1985) career development and career guidance or career counselling programmes that have been based on early career development theories put an emphasis on individual factors and treated situational factors as chance factors only.

A full discussion of career development theories follows in the next chapter. At this stage a brief overview of the theories will be given.

The Trait-Factor model on which most theories are based proposes career choice as a process of matching person to job. Not only later career theories have drawn from this model, but also career guidance programmes have drawn heavily from it (Sundal-Hansen, 1985). Roe's theory proposed that career choice is influenced by the individual's needs according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and the desire to satisfy these needs. Bordin (in Brown, Brooks and Associates, 1990) proposed a psychoanalytic approach to career choice. Bordin suggested that an individual will choose a career according to his\her drives as determined by earlier parent-child relationships.

Theories such as Holland's theory of personality typologies maintain that a match between personality type or individual interests and work characteristics is a major determinant of career choice. This has been found to be a useful model and is widely used in various institutions for career counselling. A major drawback with the model, however, is that situational factors that might influence career choice are not given cognizance.

The situational or systems approach to career development is based on the assumption that other factors such as socioeconomic status, family circumstances and cultural features have an influence on career development (Osipow, 1983). The significance of the systems approach is captured in Watzlawick, Beaver and Jackson's statement (cited in Taylor, 1986): "A phenomenon remains unexplainable as long as the range of observation is not wide enough to include the context in which the phenomenon occurs" (p. 33). The situational approach also has a drawback in that no reference is made to the role played by individual factors in career development.

On the other hand, Super has developed a comprehensive theory of

career development which is known as the "Life-Span Life-Space" approach to career development (Super, 1990). Super's theory is a synthesis of most of the theories mentioned above. He calls it "a loosely unified set of theories dealing with specific aspects of career development, taken from developmental, differential, social, personality, and phenomenological psychology and held together by self-concept and learning theory" (Super, 1990, p. 199). In his theory Super acknowledges the influence of various aspects in an individual's span and space on career development, referred to as the "Archway Model" (Super, 1990, p. 201). Super's theory comes closest to giving cognizance to both individual and situational factors - the family being one of them - that influence career development.

The process of career development is determined at birth as a child is born genetically endowed with some individual characteristics. The family is the first major social institution into which a child is socialized during his\her formative years. It is within this institution that one's situational factors begin to be determined. Within the family the child is exposed to life roles and role models which begin to influence his\her career development. For instance, within the family a girl is encouraged to play with dolls and a boy is encouraged to play with toy cars. One child may grow up seeing his\her mother going to work everyday while another could see the mother taking care of the home every day. These factors have an influence on the role of the parent, parent-child relationships and ultimately, the decision and career choice made by the child.

The adolescence stage becomes the critical stage of this development. As the adolescent completes schooling years his\her main life-task becomes that of finding a niche for himself\herself in the world. The young person has to decide on a route that

defines him\her as a person. One of the most important ways of self-definition is the choice of a career. Because of the critical nature of adolescence as a stage of development, most research on career development has focused on this stage. However, there is a scarcity of research on the *African adolescent in South Africa.

This study aims to investigate the relationship between career indecision and family functioning as defined in the Olson Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems. This model proposes two central dimensions in family relations, viz.: cohesion which is defined as "an emotional bonding that family members have toward one another" and adaptability which is defined as "the ability of a family or marital system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress" (Olson, Russell and Sprenkle, 1983, p. 70). The levels of cohesion are defined in a continuum from lowest level of cohesion to the highest level of cohesion. The levels are: disengaged, separated, connected and enmeshed, in that order. The levels of adaptability are also defined in a continuum from the lowest level of adaptability to the highest level of adaptability. The levels are: rigid, structured, flexible and chaotic, in that order. Olson proposed that the relationship between these dimensions and family functioning are curvilinear. Curvilinearity is a relationship which would be graphically presented by means of an inverted U. That is, families falling on the extremes of the model are assumed to be more dysfunctional than families falling to the centre of the model which are assumed to be more balanced.

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*The word "African" in this study is not used in a discriminatory sense but as a means of distinguishing Black South Africans excluding Coloureds and Indians. Where the word "Black" is used it will refer to Africans, Coloureds and Indians. Where these words are cited from other works, they will be in inverted comas in this text.

On this basis it is hypothesized that the adolescents who are subjects of this study who fall to the extreme categories of the two dimensions, will be less career decided about their future careers than those falling to the central categories.

1.1.2 THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

From the foregoing discussion it becomes clear that though career development theories mention the importance of situational variables to individual's career development, they do so in abstract rather than operational terms (Smith, 1983). On the other hand Schulenberg, Vondracek and Crouter (1984) saw the limitations of career development literature in relation to family significance as failure to focus on (a) vocational development as part of human development; (b) the family as a functioning whole; and (c) familial and vocational changes over time. Since that time more research has been done on the family and career development (e.g. Kinnier, Brigman and Noble, 1990; Taylor, 1986). This study investigates the family influence as one of the situational variables influencing career development. Focus will be given to the African adolescent who is at a critical stage of development not only physically and psychologically, but also socially and politically. A critical look at parent-adolescent relationships in township families, a background from which subjects of this study come, will be taken. The researcher hopes to study the nature of the perceived family relationships in relation to career decisions or indecision depending on the individual's attributes and life circumstances.

In Erikson's theory of personality development the adolescent stage is characterised by identity on one side and identity confusion\diffusion on the other.

An adolescent's life task is to define his\her role in the world and to establish their identity. The family is the primary system which nurtures an adolescent through the childhood years and plays a primary role in helping the adolescent establish an identity. This identity formation also involves choosing a future career. Career choice is seen by Super (1990) as a way of translating one's idea of oneself into occupational terms. The family has an important role to play in the adolescent's self-definition. Therefore, it can be expected that in addition to psychological determinants of career identity and career decisiveness, the family is one of the situational determinants of career decisiveness. This process is, however, encouraged by exposure to career information through career guidance and\or career counselling and other sources such as the media.

Previous studies have shown that there are differences in the career development of African adolescents from adolescents of other groups of the South African population (Cloete, 1980; Cloete, 1981; Hickson and White, 1989; Stead, 1988; van der Merwe, 1993). Several explanations for these differences have been suggested, such as the communal nature of the African culture (Hickson and White, 1989); the poor state and the lack of career guidance and career counselling in African schools and other institutions where adolescents go to obtain information (Ferron, 1990; Naicker, 1994); changes in the structure in African families, for an example, father-absent families due to the migrant labour system (Cloete, 1980). The latter is based on the argument that in these families the father is regarded as the main decision-maker in the family. With an absent father, the African family of the 1970's could well experience problems with taking a major decision such as what

should a son or daughter become. While these factors can result in the African adolescent experiencing difficulties in taking career-related decisions, changes in the family structure may give a different picture. Changes in family structure in the past decades were as a result of industrialization and accompanying factors such as migrant labour. While changes that are taking place in the country in this decade are geared towards correcting the past, they may have a significant impact on the stability of social structures such as the family. Family practices such as the balance of power being in favour of the parental dyad or one member of this dyad, are beginning to be questioned. Olson referred to this level of change as second-order change (Olson, 1994). That is, change in the system which requires that the system adopts new ways of coping because the established ways are no longer effective. It is now found that in families children demand their say and no longer see their parents as adequate to take leadership. Therefore, the traditional balance of power has been disturbed. African families, especially in the townships, are significantly affected by these changes, resulting in instability in the families and thus impacting on their decision-making abilities, including decisions about careers. This inability to make decisions about careers is referred to as career indecision. Wanberg and Muchinsky (1992) define career indecision as:

a delay or an inability to make a career decision either because the individual is going through a need to collect more information about themselves and careers, or because the individual possesses attributes such as poor identity, external locus of control, low self-confidence and self esteem and anxiety." (p. 71).

Several factors influence career development of African adolescents. In order to meet their needs adequately, it is necessary to find out more about the associated factors. This study investigates career indecision as an aspect of career

development in relation to the family relationships. Other secondary factors such as exposure to career guidance, gender and career identity will also be investigated. Career indecision is categorised by Westbrook (1985) as a component of career maturity and one of the process variables of career development.

On the average, matriculants are at the adolescent stage which could range from 16-21 years. Coincidentally this is the stage at which they are in transition from school to either the world of work or to institutions of higher learning in preparation for entry into the world of work. It is at this stage, therefore, that they need to crystallise their career choices.

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.2.1 CAREER EDUCATION AND CAREER COUNSELLING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Career development of African matriculants in South Africa is seen against the background of Career Education as it occurred in the previous apartheid era. The British Department of Education and Science (in Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1985) defined career education as:

a preparation for adult life...a zone of critical decisions, a period when they must learn to know about themselves, to come to terms with their own strengths and weaknesses, to make choices, reach decisions and accept implications for those decisions. ... consultations should take place between pupils, teachers, parents and career officers about long term educational and vocation strategy or about short term tactics (p. 21).

Guidance services in South African schools were provided for in the National Education Act of 1967 (Behr, 1988). Guidelines for guidance in this Act covered personal matters, educational choice

and career choice. It was also provided that guidance be given in co-operation with the school and the parents. At that stage, only White, Coloured and Indian schools offered this service to their pupils in line with the provisions of the Act (Naicker, 1994). The Education and Training Act of 1979 then provided for guidance services in Black education. It was only in 1981 that guidance was introduced in the Department of Education and Training (Hickson and White, 1989; Mackay, 1981; Naicker, 1994). Psychological services in the Department of Education and Training should be seen against a background of disproportionate pupils-teacher ratios. In 1991, formerly Kwa-Zulu, Department of Education and Culture, the pupil-teacher ratio was 49:1 for the schools understudy. More disproportionate were the ratios of the educational psychologist to pupils which for many years remained at 1:50 000 as reported by Donald and Csapo cited in Naicker (1994) p. 29. Also, the fact that guidance is a non-examination subject, affords it lesser status than other subjects. It is offered only once a week while other subjects are offered at least once every school day (Behr, 1988).

The De Lange Commission of 1967 (in Behr, 1988, p.114) described Guidance as a service "essential to ensure that every pupil is provided with formative education to which he is entitled, with due allowance for the needs of the country on the one hand, and to his right to self-determination and to make his own choice on the other." According to this definition, school guidance is not just about giving advice and information and exercising control, but is more importantly about the development of the child towards self-actualization. Personal satisfaction could be achieved through self-awareness (self-knowledge), self-identity, career information and career choice as these relate to informed career decisions.

This definition is going to be tested in this thesis as we look at

the impact of career guidance as offered in high schools which took part in this study.

1.2.2 CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND THE INFLUENCE OF THE FAMILY

The relationship between career development and family relationships has been suggested in career development theories. There is a considerable amount of empirical evidence of the influence of the family on career development (Palmer, Splete and Freeman-George, 1985; Lopez and Andrews, 1987; Lopez, 1989; Palmer and Cochran, 1989; Kinnier, Brigman and Noble, 1990; Lopez and Andrews, 1987; Lopez, 1989; Palmer and Cochran, 1989; Palmer, Splete and Freeman-Goerge, 1985). There is also a growing amount of South African studies which suggest a relationship between family relations and career development (Bekker, 1991; Grobler, 1989; van der Merwe, 1993). Family structure and functioning are, thus, important factors in career development.

The influence of changes in family structure is also implied in a South African study done by van der Merwe (1993). Van der Merwe found that while students from single parent families obtained the same scores on career maturity as those from intact families, those who were from a family in which a parent had died tended to obtain lower scores. Lower scores in the latter group is possibly because of the trauma of death and the resultant disturbance in the family homeostasis and uncertainty about the future. While an intact family in which both father and mother are present is expected to promote development in its offspring, it can be argued that in single parent families a stronger bond between parent and child or children is most likely to develop. Kinnier et al (1990) found that individuals who are enmeshed in their family-of-origin tended to have more difficulties in making career decisions than those who were not enmeshed. Kinnier et al (1990) further warns that

"enmeshment, of course, should not be confused with emotional closeness. Emotional closeness...within families appears to promote high self-esteem, assertiveness, and a sense of well-being within children" (p. 312).

In this study the Olson's Circumplex Model of Family relations will be applied. The three-dimensional version of this model classifies types of family relationships into three broad categories within the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability viz. balanced, mid-range and extreme families. Balanced families fall in the intermediate categories of both cohesion (connected and separated) and adaptability (flexible and structured) on the FACES III (Olson, 1991). These families are regarded as functional. Extreme families fall on the extreme categories on both cohesion (disengaged and enmeshed) and adaptability (rigid and chaotic). These families are regarded as dysfunctional. Midrange families fall in between balanced and extreme families and they are balanced on one dimension and extreme on another dimension. This study will determine whether the differences in family relationships as defined in this model have an influence on career indecision.

1.3 PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

As primary figures in the lives of developing persons, parents have great influence on the career development of their children... In turn, children expect their parents to be important influences and turn to them for help with career planning more than to anyone else. However, although parents would like to fulfil the role more effectively, there is little assistance to guide them (Palmer and Cochran, 1988, p. 71).

A number of studies on career development have been done on other population groups such as American populations. This area of research is lately drawing the interest of local researchers. However, there is still a lot of work to be done with Black groups of the South African population. There are studies that have been done on or included the African section of the South African population. These have investigated other areas of career development such as career choice (Cloete, 1981), career maturity (van der Merwe, 1993) or career aspirations (Watson, Foxcroft and Horn, 1995). Mabena (1994) investigated the causes of career indecision of school leavers in KwaNdebele. Mabena's study gave a broad view of various factors that resulted in this phenomenon, especially among the African population. In this study the researcher chose to investigate career indecision of African matriculants because of a backlog in the literature in this particular section. The family structure and relationships within the African family are unique to its people and have a significant impact on the development of its offspring, including career development, particularly taking career-related decisions. African culture is seen as "authoritarian and more adult-centred" (Spence, 1982, p. 20). This contention can now be challenged in the face of major changes in the country. These developments may have significant meaning for the families and parent-child relationships. Campbell (1992) in her investigation of township families found that due to rapid social change these families were experiencing (a) the breakdown of respect for adults by their children; (b) the breakdown of parental authority; (c) the transformation of traditional power relations in the family, based on strict definitions of age and gender (p. 61).

It is expected that results of this study will be important for formulation of career guidance and counselling programmes in South African schools which have been integrated as well as for other

bodies who offer this service. Hickson and White (1989) contended that "it would be a mistake to develop career guidance programmes for blacks in exactly the same format as that for whites" (p. 78) -because of the position of disadvantage that the African child experienced under apartheid structures. This disadvantage resulted in inadequate provision of career guidance services to Black students.

Hickson and White (1989) found that "Black" adolescents were less career mature than their white counterparts, especially in the area of knowledge of self and knowledge of the world of work. An explanation that has been advanced for these findings is that: "the lack of self-knowledge can possibly be found in the sociocultural background of the black South African adolescent. The traditional black child is born into an extended type of family and a kinship system where strong affiliative habits develop and where communal norms strongly outweigh individual norms" (p. 80). These authors further suggested that the political situation of the 80's strengthened the group consciousness for black adolescents -which may "mediate against introspection and individuation" (p.80). Differences between the adolescent of the 80's and the adolescent of the 90's can be expected, especially in the face of major changes in the political situation. Burck (1984) contends that "preparation for change is not only mandatory but necessary for survival" (p. 20).

This study will serve to determine:

- (a) the types of family relationships in township African families as perceived by the adolescents in standard 10;
- (b) the influence of family relationships and family functioning on career indecision;
- (c) the guiding principle for career counselling and guidance for practitioners and policy-makers who are involved in service

delivery to this section of the South African population.

1.4 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

This study aims to test the nature of relationships between career indecision as a dependent variable and (a) family cohesion, (b) family adaptability, (c) career identity, (d) exposure to career guidance, and (e) gender as independent variables. It is hypothesised that there is a correlation between career indecision and these independent variables.

The hypotheses are stated in more detail in chapter III.

1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Career development: is a lifelong process of developing work values, crystallising a vocational identity, learning about opportunities, and trying out plans in part-time, recreational and full-time work situations. It involves effective investigation, choice and evaluation of occupational possibilities. It implies a long-term process of arriving at a career decision based on previous choices affected by various persons, conditions and personal needs and attributes (Tolbert, 1974).

Career: is a sequence of occupations in which one engages during a lifetime (Tolbert, 1974, p. 26). It includes work-related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner or annuitant. It also denotes alternate roles such as homemaker, citizen, and leisurite (Walsh and Osipow, 1983, p. 7).

Occupation: is a group of similar jobs which are task-, outcome-, organisation-, and society oriented (Walsh and Osipow, 1983, p. 7). For an example, social service as an occupation has nursing, teacher, social work, youth worker etc. as jobs with similar

orientation.

A vocation is an occupation to which a person has a commitment. It has a psychological rather than an economic meaning to the individual (Walsh and Osipow, 1983, p. 7).

Work: is a mental, physical or combined mental-physical activity that produces something of economic value. Work may thus produce a service to others as well as a material product (Tolbert, 1974, p. 26).

Career indecision: is a delay or an inability to make a career decision either because the individual is going through a normal stage of development and the delay is as a result of a need to collect more information about themselves and careers, or because the individual possesses attributes such as poor identity, external locus of control, low self-confidence and self-esteem and anxiety. The former are referred to as undecided and the latter as indecisive (Wanberg and Muchinsky, 1992, p. 71).

Career identity\ Vocational identity: means the possession of a clear and stable picture of one's goals, interests, personality and talents. It leads to relatively untroubled decision-making and confidence in one's ability to make good decisions in the face of inevitable environmental ambiguities (Holland, Daiger and Power, 1980). Career identity is seen to be part of the total self-concept (Zunker, 1990).

Career maturity: is an attitudinal and a cognitive readiness to cope with the developmental tasks of finding, preparing and retiring from an occupation (Herr and Cramer, 1988).

Super (1990) defines career maturity as "the individual's readiness to cope with the developmental tasks with which she\he is

confronted because of his\her biological and social developments and because of society's expectations of people who have reached that stage of development" (p. 213).

Family: is a natural social system with properties of its own, one that has evolved a set of rules, roles, a power structure, forms of communication, and a way of negotiation and problem solving that allows various tasks to be performed effectively (Bratcher, 1982, p. 88).

Family cohesion: In the context of this report cohesion is defined in terms of the Olson Circumplex model as an emotional bonding that family members have toward one another (Olson, 1994, p. 475). Families with moderate cohesion combine attachment and separateness. Families low on cohesion are described as "disengaged", members are independent and their commitment to the family is low. Families with extreme levels of cohesion are described as "enmeshed". They demand high degrees of loyalty from family members such that individuation is hampered (Dundas, 1994).

Family adaptability: According to the Olson Circumplex model family adaptability is the ability of a family or marital system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress (Olson, Russell and Sprenkle, 1983). Families that are moderate on adaptability are able to adjust to the situation. On the extreme level of adaptability families either adjust too little and are referred to as "rigid" and continue to use the same ways of solving problems regardless of changes within the family or in the surroundings, or they adjust too much, losing their stability and internal predictability and are referred to as "chaotic" (Dundas, 1994).

1.6 SCOPE AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to investigate the influence of the family on career indecision of African matriculants. The sample was drawn from two high schools in an African township outside Durban. Both high schools offer Guidance as a subject though at different levels of emphasis. Findings from this study should be treated with caution.

In the next chapter of this report literature on career development theories and their relevance to this study, previous related studies and the Olson's Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems which is applied in this study, will be reviewed. Research methodology will be discussed in Chapter III. An overview of sampling, sample distribution, instruments of measurement that were used, data collection and data analysis will be provided. The My Vocational Situation (MVS), Career Decision Scale (CDS), Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale III (FACES III), and the biographical questionnaire were used as instruments of measurement. Instruments of measurement are also discussed in chapter III. In chapter IV an empirical report of the results of the analysis of data will be given. Results are discussed in Chapter V and the relationship with previous findings is analyzed. Chapter VI gives conclusions drawn from the study and recommendations that may be useful for further research and for practitioners.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND CAREER DECISION-MAKING

Several theories pertaining to career development have been developed. Some of these theories focus on the stages that an individual grows through and how in these various stages he/she relates to the world of work. Examples of such theories are those of Super and Ginzberg. Other theories focus on factors that affect the career decision process or the type of career that an individual chooses. Such factors can be personality factors (e.g. Holland's theory of personality typologies, Roe's needs theory, Bordin's psychoanalytic theory), environmental factors (e.g. situational or sociological theories). The Trait and Factor theory regards career choice as a process of matching personality traits to job characteristics. A brief overview of these theories in relation to the role of family functioning in making career-related decisions is given below:

2.1.1 THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN RELATION TO THE ROLE OF THE FAMILY

In this section the theories of career development and how they relate to the influence of the family will be discussed. Focus will be given to the personality theories of Roe, Holland, the Trait-and-Factor, and Tiedaman and O'Hara's theories; developmental theories of Super and of Ginzberg; sociological theories; and psychoanalytic theories such as that of Bordin.

2.1.1.1 Personality Theories:

Early career development theories such as Roe's Needs theory and Bordin's psychoanalytic theory focused on individuals' needs as a major determinant of career choice. The underlying assumption is that career choice is an expression of one's psychological needs. Thus, factors outside the individual's psyche, such as the family, have no influence on the career decision-making process. Reference to the role of the family is more in the early stages of life, and the formation of the individual's personality (e.g. Roe's theory), than it is to the process of career development.

2.1.1.1.1 Roe's Theory of Needs

Roe was the first theorist to suggest that family interaction is salient to the career development process (Schulenberg, Vondracek and Crouter, 1984). She adopted Maslow's theory of needs to explain the meaning of work (Roe and Lunnenborg, 1990). She suggested that the quality of early relationships affects the development of interests and occupational choice. She hypothesised about early home relationships and parental types, i.e. whether they were warm or cold, as having a bearing on the preferred mode of interacting with others and predicted occupational choice. Bratcher (1982) saw Roe's theory as the closest to explaining the influence of family on career decision than most vocational theorists.

According to Roe these home relationships determine whether an individual would choose a person-oriented or a non-person oriented occupation as an expression of his or her need. Roe acknowledged that these home rearing patterns interact with an individual's psychological disposition and physiological and

physical strengths and weaknesses in the formation of the personality. Roe's theory gives us a different aspect of what parental relationships might have on children's career development, in this case career choice rather than career indecision which is the thesis of this report.

2.1.1.1.2 Holland's Theory:

Holland's theory is based on four assumptions, viz.:

- (a) that most persons can be categorised as one of six types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional;
- (b) that there are six kinds of working environments: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional;
- (c) that people search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles;
- (d) that behaviour is determined by an interaction between personality and an environment (Weinrach and Srebalus, 1990, p. 41).

Holland's description of these six personality types and working environments is as follows:

Realistic: These are the people who are characterized by an interest in activities that require motor coordination, skill and physical strength. They prefer working with things rather than with people. They also prefer making use of their physical skills rather than verbal and interpersonal skills. Their career fields of preference are the scientific and the mechanical fields.

Investigative: These are the people who approach life and problems in an analytical, logical and rational manner. They value intellectual stimulation and rely more on their thinking abilities than on their physical abilities. They prefer to work alone and understand things than work with people. They would usually prefer to work in the scientific career fields.

Artistic: The artistic people value self-expression and appeal more to their emotions in relating to the world. They dislike structure, have a creative way of appreciating beauty, and prefer to do things at their own pace and in their own way. They prefer career fields in which their creative selves can find expression.

Social: These are the people who are often described as people-helpers. They describe themselves as understanding, kind and caring. They often have good verbal skills and engage with people in a one-to-one and small group interaction. They prefer career fields in which they will be involved with helping people.

Enterprising: The enterprising personalities are described as assertive, risk taking, persuasive, with good leadership skills. Prestige, status and power are important to them. They have good verbal skills and get on well with people. They prefer career fields in which they will supervise, lead and direct.

Conventional: The personalities in this group are described as neat, orderly, detailed and persistent. They value order and structure and possess a high degree of self-control. They are good at mastering and following rules and regulations. They prefer career fields where they will organize, plan and deal with data (Gardner and Jewler, 1989).

From the above descriptions of people and the matching career fields, it becomes apparent that Holland's theory has an underlying assumption that individuals possess stable psychological traits that interact with their environment and influence them to choose particular careers and/or working environments (Brown, 1990). The theory does not suggest any role that might be played by the family in the individual's career development.

2.1.1.1.3 Trait and Factor Theory:

This theory is rooted in the psychology of individual differences, applied psychology and differential psychology (Herr and Cramer, 1988). The above approaches conceive of an individual as an organisation of capacities and other properties that can be measured and related to the requirements of occupations.

The Trait-Factor theory is based on four assumptions:

- (a) Each individual has a unique set of traits that can be measured reliably and validly;
- (b) Occupations require that workers possess certain traits for success;
- (c) The choice of an occupation is a straight forward process and matching is possible;
- (d) The closer the match between personal characteristics and job requirements, the greater the likelihood for success (Herr and Cramer, 1988, p. 101).

While this theory acknowledges that variables such as aptitudes, needs and interests, stereotypes and expectations, adjustment, risk-taking and aspirations interact to influence career choice, the role

of the family is not seen as major in this process.

2.1.1.1.4 Tiedaman and O'Hara Vocational Decision-Making Model:

Tiedaman and O'Hara viewed career development as part of a continuing process of differentiating an ego identity. According to Tiedaman and O'Hara a person's ego identity develops according to: (a) the person's early childhood experiences with the family unit, (b) the resolution of certain psychosocial crises at distinctive developmental stages, (c) the consistency between society's meaning systems and that of the individual, and (d) the emotional dimensions of each of the above three factors. These theorists' viewed the individual's career choice development as a function of his\her view of self and his\her sense of agency.

2.1.1.2 **Developmental Theories**

2.1.1.2.1 Super's Theory

Super's theory of career development is based on the premise that an individual undergoes vocational development as one aspect of his\her total development at a rate determined in part by his psychological and physiological attributes and in part by environmental conditions, including significant others (Tolbert, 1974). Super's theory has been regarded as one of the most comprehensive career development theories because of its inclusivity. On the other hand, however, Super maintained that "...there is no Super's theory, there is just the assemblage of theories that I have sought to synthesize." (in Brown, Brooks and Associates, 1990, p. 199). This synthesis aims to lead to a theory which brings life-span and life-space into one model. In his theory, Super made fourteen proposals, taking into consideration the biological, psychological and socioeconomic determinants of career development (Super in Brown, Brooks and Associates, 1990). The self-concept is an important construct in

Super's formulations. He viewed occupational choice as an attempt to implement a self-concept. With use of the Career Archway, he demonstrated the interactive experiential learning, self-concept, and occupations-concept formation that would take place through the interaction of the individual and the environment. Super saw this development as a function of a total being.

With the Career Archway model Super demonstrated that an individual's biographical background forms the basis of his\her career development toward the self. On one side of the arch the pillar is formed by his intrinsic characteristics whilst on the other, it is formed by extrinsic factors. In Super's theory, the family is considered to be but one of these factors, but an important factor for career development.

Super identified four (4) career life stages in which this development takes place viz:

- (a) growth stage: 0-14 years
- (b) the exploration stage: 15-24 years
- (c) the establishment stage: 24-44 years and
- (d) the decline stage: 65+

In each of these career developmental stages there are developmental tasks that an individual must achieve. Super termed this development career maturity. Career maturity is defined as "the individual's readiness to cope with the developmental tasks with which she\he is confronted because of his\her biological and social developments and because of society's expectations of people who have reached that stage of development." (Super, 1990, p. 213).

The respondents in this study are in the 17-22 years age bracket, which puts them at the exploration stage according to Super's theory. This stage is divided into three substages viz:

(a) Tentative substage (15-17):

During this stage the individual begins to consider his needs, interests, capacities, values and opportunities. Tentative choices are made and tried out in fantasy, discussion with peers and significant others and other experiences such as weekend jobs. In the case of the subjects in this study this substage is affected by a number of other factors. Firstly it is common place to find that adolescents of this age are in a much lower school standard than would be expected at their age. Therefore, while an adolescent of 15-17 years would normally be expected to be in their secondary education level, some of them would still be in their higher primary, or even lower primary levels. In Super's theory career development is explained as a function of chronological age, but for a child as mentioned above, who is still only exposed to primary education, he\she is more likely to be more at the growth stage than engaging in any kind of career exploration. Secondly, this adolescent is hardly exposed to any week-end jobs which have potential to tap on his\her capacities and the role models in her environment are usually limited to teacher, nurse, clerk, policeman, domestic worker, factory worker or labourer. Even at this stage, their tentative exploration is limited.

(b) Transition substage (18-21):

At this stage the adolescent gives reality factors more importance as he\she enters the world of work, post secondary education or training. The adolescent is at a stage at which he\she implements his\her self concept. However, it is most frequently not possible for the adolescents in African communities to find expression of their self-concept in their choice of career. Career choice is influenced more by socioeconomic circumstances than by self-concept. Matriculants mostly look for a career for which they or their parents can

afford to pay, or for which financial aid is available, or in which they can be paid a salary while studying. Studies of career aspirations of the African adolescents give an indication of high aspirations (Cloete, 1981). It can be argued that their self-concept is more expressed in their aspirations than it is in their career choices.

(c) Trial substage (22-24):

At this stage, the young adult tries out the choice that he has made in his first job. As pointed out before, for an African young adult, this stage may come later in his\her life.

Super's theory, much as it acknowledges the influence of a wide spectrum of factors in career development, but the foregoing arguments sensitize the reader to the fact that this theory, when applied to African adolescents in South Africa, needs, at the least, to be applied with some adjustments. Specific circumstances of these adolescents should be taken into consideration.

2.1.1.2.2 Ginzberg's Theory

Ginzberg's theory is an attempt at bridging the gap between social and psychological explanations of career development patterns. Ginzberg's theory identifies 3 main stages in career development viz: (a) Fantasy period (before age 11); (b) Tentative period (ages 11-17); (c) Realistic period (17-young adulthood). This theory has since been reformulated and the stages are identified as: development of interests at about age 11; development of capacities at ages 13-14; development of values at ages 15 and 16; and the transition stage at age 17 and 18 (Sharf, 1992).

In Ginzberg's theoretical terms an adolescent is at a realistic stage of career development. At this stage the individual makes choices. In making choices he has to make compromises between reality factors

and personal factors. Ginzberg later replaced the term "compromise" with the term "optimization". By optimization he meant satisfying one's most important needs by availing oneself of the opportunities available, with recognition of possible restraints. Possible restraints suggested by Ginzberg are family income, parental attitudes and values, inadequacies of the educational institution including its failure to keep up with changing opportunities for women and minority groups (Tolbert, 1974).

Both Super and Ginzberg recognised the influence of the family on career development but only as a "chance" factor since "...individuals have a moderate degree of destiny control in the choice-making process,..." (Hotchkiss and Borow, 1990, p. 263). As a result of the present day career development theories, career counselling programmes take little or no cognizance of these "chance" factors. To attain the optimization referred to in Ginzberg's theory, career counselling programmes need to cover a broader base than the individual, his personality and the various fields of work as is presently the case.

2.1.1.3 Situational or Sociological Theories

While most theories regard situational factors as chance factors in career development, sociological theories propose that these factors play an important role in career decision-making. Sociologists study individuals in their collective roles as members of social institutions such as families, religious groups etc., and how the functioning of these institutions affect individual behaviour. Unterhalter (1979) counted placement of the child in a particular school, college, or university, and subsequently an occupation, as one of the four important functions of the family, the other three being reproduction, maintenance and socialization. The family

imparts attitudes and values to the child and determines his chances of attending a university and the type of occupation he\she will pursue. She, however, acknowledged the part played by the individual's intelligence, energy or special aptitudes in influencing his life-chances.

2.1.1.3.1 Krumboltz's Social Learning Theory:

Krumboltz's social learning theory leans closely to the situational theories. Krumboltz suggested that career development is as a result of past and present experiences and the anticipation of future experiences (Amatea, 1984). He classified the experiences into four sets of factors: (a) genetic endowment and special abilities, (b) environmental conditions and events, (c) specific learning experiences, and (d) task approach skills.

The family is an important institution in which an individual acquires these experiences. As early as 1951 Miller and Form (in Herr, 1974) in their study of social adjustment of the worker, concluded that no single factor influenced the majority of occupational choices, rather that "chance experiences undoubtedly explain the process by which most occupational choices are made" (Herr, 1974, p. 244). They identified factors such as father's occupation, intelligence, family status in education and income, financial aid and influential contacts and social and economic conditions to be related to career choice.

Bason and Howe (in Herr and Cramer, 1988) found that parents are more influential in career choice and career maturity than non-parents. Culture and social class boundaries were found to impact on career choice. Propositions by these sociological theories warrant re-evaluation, especially their application to township African adolescents for whom social conditions are constantly under change and the parental structures are challenged by the instability brought

about by this change.

2.1.1.4 Psychoanalytic Theories

2.1.1.4.1 Bordin's Theory:

A psychoanalytic approach to career choice was suggested by Bordin (in Brown, Brooks and Associates, 1990). This theory proposed that there is a relationship between an individual's biological needs, drives and the family atmosphere. In the world of work an individual would find an expression of his\her personality. According to this theory a choice of a career is a way of self-realisation and an expression of one's emotional needs such as curiosity, precision, power, concern with regretted wrongs, nurturance and expressiveness (Bordin, in Brown et al, 1990).

In formulating this theory, Bordin explained career indecision in terms of self-doubt, lack of clarity of needs and a polarity between work and spontaneity as causing paralysis in career development.

Lopez (1989) and Kinnier et al (1990) also adopt a psychodynamic approach in explaining the interaction between the adolescents' identity formation, separation and individuation from parents and making career decisions. These ideas are discussed further in paragraph 2.3.

2.1.2 THE RELEVANCE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES TO THE AFRICAN ADOLESCENT AND HIS\HER FAMILY

Career development is a process of making career-related decisions. Self-identity is a significant component of decision-making and making choices. It is a way in which the pupil answers for himself\herself the questions: what can I do best? what do I want

most? (Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1985). McDaniels and Gysbers (1992, p.12) proposed a model which they called life-career development. In this model home, school, work, community and family are core systems in career development. They also suggested that gender, ethnic origin, religion and race are factors which play a role in career development. However, the family is the first environment within which a child discovers himself\herself as a separate entity from others. Bratcher (1982) enumerated two basic assumptions which underlie the family systems approach to career development: " (a) the family as the primary and, except in rare instances, the most powerful emotional system we ever belong to and which shapes and continues to determine the course and outcome of our lives; (b) family relationships tend to be reciprocal, patterned and repetitive, and to have circular rather than linear motion" (p. 88). During adolescence the family becomes the anchor factor as the adolescent struggles with issues of identity. Incidentally, it is at this stage that the adolescent has to make a major decision about the future career as they complete their school years. Lopez (in Brown and Lent, 1992) put it summarily: "Sound decisions are closely linked to the extent to which the adolescent has acquired self-understanding" (p. 6).

At this stage of life the adolescent needs to experience both a sense of belonging and a sense of separateness (Lopez, 1992). This sense of belongingness and a sense of separateness is mostly a function of both the broad cultural factors, as well as the factors specific to each family. The African family, in the traditional African culture, has been known to be giving their younger members less autonomy and the older members offering directive counselling to their young (Ferron, 1990). On the other hand, in a South African study by Stead and Watson (Stead, 1996), parents were seen by Black high school students as one of the important sources of occupational information. This is a significant observation that parents were found to be a

major support system, whether they are more or less informed than other systems. While the influence of the family on the activities of children is universal, it is traditionally more so with the African family which is known to "generally ascribe to communal life and extended families." (Hickson, Christie and Shmukler, 1990, p. 174). Educational and vocational guidance has been seen as intuitive among "non-white" families (McFadden and Djassoa, 1985). These beliefs should, however, be seen within the context of the current dramatic changes taking place in South Africa. Families in African townships are significantly affected by the change and are in the process of major transition from a predominantly African tradition to Western tradition. Such change is seen to have brought about "shift of role" in these families (McFadden and Djassoa, 1985, p. 10).

Career development theories as discussed in paragraph 2.1.1, emphasise individual and personality factors as major factors in career development. The sociological perspective on the other hand gave attention the behaviour of groups as collectives in relation to work and work-related situations rather than to individuals within groups. In other words, though the sociological theories concerned themselves with social factors, the emphasis is more on institutions than on individuals (Hotchkiss and Borow, 1990).

Knowledge about self and careers is facilitated by, informally, talking to parents, relatives, friends and other role models in the young person's social network; and formally through teachers and Guidance teachers, visits to career information centres and through exposure to career development programmes. Career development is an interaction between the individual's biological development and his\her social development.

Recent South African studies (Hickson and White, 1989; van der Merwe, 1993) have found African adolescents to be less career mature

than their white counterparts especially in the areas of the knowledge of self and knowledge of self in relation to the world of work. Various explanations have been advanced for these findings: "the lack of self knowledge can possibly be found in the sociocultural background of the Black South African adolescent. The traditional Black child is born into an extended family and a kinship system where strong affiliative habits develop and where communal norms strongly outweigh individual norms." (Hickson and White, 1989, p. 80). The kinship system mentioned by these authors is, however, observed to have changed, especially in the urban and township families. Grandparents who used to be a significant part of these families, are left in the rural homes to take care of the "original home" while the younger parents of today's adolescent stay in cities and towns to make a living. Another home is established in the township where the nuclear family is staying and the children attend school in the township school. Sometimes this family is seen as "essentially self-sufficient" or "atomistic, individualistic and free from kinship networks" (Unterhalter, 1979, p. 128). This tendency towards individualism among black adolescents was also found in a study by Hickson, Christie and Shmukler (1990) and attributed to the "esoteric milieu of the school" from which their sample was drawn (which was non-racial and of English medium instruction), "urbanisation" and "the winds of change". These changes, may, in fact signal a breakdown of the culture of communalism and the authority and respect which were traditionally afforded to parents in the African family. Urbanisation is especially seen to have resulted in a decline in traditional customs and in an increase in the incidence of female-headed households (Moller, 1993). The increase in female-headed families may be a consequence of migrant labour, change in societal values and rules related to sexuality and sexual behaviour, the incidence of teenage pregnancy and the growing notion of the emancipation of women. This signals a change in the system of rules in African tradition. The influence of African parents over

their children may further be minimised by increased politicization of the adolescent in recent years (Stead, 1996). This suggestion is different from what Hickson and White (1989) suggested to be the strengthened group consciousness of black adolescents. These two suggestions bring about a challenge to social scientists who would have to think about the psychological changes that the major political and social changes of the 90's have brought about.

Gilbert (1989) proposed that there is a relationship between social change and psychological change and how cultural processes become psychological processes. He saw this change at two levels viz.: a social level - that is, between people (the child and society) which is known as interpsychological change; and inside the child, known as intrapsychological change (p. 96). Gilbert (1989) therefore proposed that individual development is located in society and culture. In a society undergoing rapid change, like the African township society, the old ways of doing things will change. Existing laws and rules will shift. It will become necessary for new controls to be put in place in place to act as guides at both the interpsychic and the intrapsychic levels. How the individual interprets his\her culture becomes a crucial part of the process of development and how the tasks are mastered. The adolescents who were selected as subjects for this study are caught up in such political and social changes. They are also undergoing major developmental changes as they transit from being children to being young adults with tasks to make decisions such as career choices.

Present theories of career development lack this important fact of the relationship between society and culture and the development of the individual, including career development. Gilbert (1989) sees psychology as having "...severe limitations when operating in a milieu in which rapid social change and a change of the status quo is the norm" (p. 92).

Roe's theory, for instance, while based on family relationships, does not propose that the nature of these relationships has an influence on career development and thus career decidedness, but it proposed that early childhood relationships evoke a need in individuals, which needs form part of the individual's personality. Roe proposed that individuals seek to satisfy these needs in the type of occupation that they will choose.

Holland's theory proposed that the personality of the individual is the main factor that would determine the field of work that an individual would choose. In his theory Holland introduced the concept of identity which he defined for both people and environments. Identity is defined as "the possession of a clear and stable picture of one's goals, interests and talents" (Weinrach and Srebalus, 1990, p. 45). The family is an important factor in the formation of this identity. The sociological view is that the family to which a child is born ascribes to the initial status and opportunities open to him\her (Unterhalter, 1979), and the environment and living standards are related to identity formation and career development (Stead, 1996). The family as a socialising agent determines the unfolding of this identity as it imparts attitudes and values upheld by the society. It is doubtful whether career choice is primarily a match between personalities and occupations without bringing into the process the contextual dynamics.

Further, the psychoanalytic approach to career choice suggested by Bordin (in Brown, Brooks and Associates, 1990), proposed that the individual's biological needs or drives and the nature of his\her family relationships in early child-parent interactions give rise to a certain personality type. As a result of his\her personality type, an individual will want to be in a certain type of work environment in order to attain self-realisation. Partly like Roe's theory,

Bordin's theory suggested that career choice is an expression of or a way of fulfilling emotional needs. In another way it is similar to Holland's theory that suggests a match between personality and environment in which the parent-child relationships can be enacted.

A global look at these theories suggests that an individual would make a decision about a career on the basis of mostly individual intrapsychic factors viz. personality, emotional needs, self-expression in the work situation, with the process being facilitated by knowledge of careers. Contextual matters and their role in career development receive little if any consideration in the theories. Career counselling programmes in South Africa have also been criticised for being individualised and taking very little account of contextual matters (Euvrad, 1987; Hickson and White, 1989; Naicker, 1994). This is not a need felt only by researchers and practitioners, but a need felt by pupils as well. In Euvrad's study 12% of pupils wished to discuss parents, to get "a clearer insight into their parents' perspective" and "to improve their relationship with their parents" (p. 49). However studies abroad and locally have indicated a strong link between career development generally, and career indecision in particular, with family dynamics (Bekker, 1991; Lopez and Andrews, 1987; Palmer and Cochran, 1989). Gilbert (1989), therefore, contended that there is a need for a theory that may enable a clear understanding of behaviour in relation to social change. This has implications for a better understanding of career behaviour in relation to changes within the family as a social institution. These are important considerations for our South African diverse situation, especially the African youth and the specific implications of their social situation.

This thesis is an attempt at looking at these gaps, especially the nature of the changes in African family and its implications for career development of their youth.

To understand career development of the African child in South Africa, a brief look at career education and career counselling in South African schools follows.

2.1.3 CAREER EDUCATION, THE FAMILY AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Career education as defined by the British Department of Education and Science (in Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1985) signifies the importance of education in school settings as a joint venture between teachers and parents. This point is taken further by the principles of school Guidance as stipulated by the De Lange Commission (Behr, 1988). Of the 9 principles of School Guidance drawn up by the De Lange Commission of 1967 (Spence, 1982 p. 15), four (principles 2, 3, 5 and 6) make a direct reference to culture and parents:

These principles emphasize the role played by culture, society and parents in Guidance. However, in spite of these principles, Guidance as a part of the education of that era, was always viewed with suspicion as another way of perpetuating apartheid.

However in most African schools Guidance as a subject is made to take the back bench. In most instances, Guidance teachers in these schools played the dual role of teacher and counsellor. In the sample for this study, in one school the Guidance teacher was fully responsible for teaching Guidance as a subject. As a result, pupils in this school had an opportunity for exposure to more career information and guidance. On the other hand, in the second school the Guidance teacher taught other subjects and offered Guidance secondarily. Behr's (1988) observation about career guidance in secondary schools is that it "is usually dealt with in the class context by the Guidance teachers on the basis of the prescribed syllabus" (p. 114). However, some advantages are advanced in this dual role: (a) if the counsellor is also a teacher, she\he can get to

know the pupils better, (b) as a teacher the counsellor can be seen by parents and pupils more as a member of the staff rather than be seen as a separate and a rival (School Council, 1971). The disadvantages thereof are stated as: (a) with one person specialising as a counsellor, the pupil will find security in knowing that there will always be one person to whom he\she can turn to for guidance; (b) with the turn-over of teachers, a stable counsellor will be able to keep records and provide continuity (School Council, 1971). It can also be argued that with a full-time counsellor there would be no rivalry between teaching and counselling, and the counsellor can provide a complete service. The teacher-pupil relationship and the counsellor-pupil relationship can also be kept uncontaminated for the benefit of the pupil. Another advantage could also be that a counsellor within the school is in a better position than a visiting counsellor to understand the pupil in context. It also allows for the development of a deep and trusting relationship between pupil and counsellor. However, the counsellor in his\her specialist role is not to take over the teacher's inherent role of guiding pupils, but the counsellor's role is to strengthen that service.

Against this background it can be expected that most African adolescents of the South African population receive limited career guidance and much less counselling. It is in schools in which career guidance is offered that the gap is narrowed to some extent. The influence of the greater society in general, and of the family in particular, become important aspects of personal development of the child and the formation of his\her identity. Career counselling programmes used in the school setting and by other bodies than the school, do not take into account the involvement of the family in the development process itself and more importantly its influence in the readiness of the adolescent to make a career decision. A.G. Watt's observations on career guidance in South African schools as more of a socialization process than promoting individualization (Behr,

1988), should be seen against the values of collectivism, authority and respect as closely embraced in the African culture.

The first social structure which takes a primary role in socialising a child and an adolescent is the family. It is therefore within the family that the above-named values embraced in the culture are passed down to the younger generations. Therefore, it can be expected that any changes taking place within any society, will hit hardest at the family as a unit. This study will investigate using the Olson's Circumplex model (discussed in paragraph 2.2), the influence of the African family which at this stage is undergoing change which is not only developmental, but also social and political as the country undergoes major changes. The focus will be on how these dynamics affect the career decisiveness of adolescents.

2.1.4 THE THEORY OF CAREER INDECISION

According to the definition of career indecision in paragraph 1.5, there are two components of this construct namely, career undecidedness and career indecisiveness. Wanberg and Muchinsky (1992) described the former group as going through a normal and temporary stage of development. They are seen to be delayed in making a career choice because of lack of information about themselves, occupations which are available to them or the process of decision-making. It appears, this group would be able to make the decision should they be assisted through the process. The latter group are described to be chronically indecisive and are not delayed in making a career choice because of lack of career information. Rather these individuals are characterized by high "levels of ambivalence, anxiety, frustration, an unclear sense of personal identity, low self-confidence and self-esteem, externalized locus of control and a tendency to blame others for their situation" (Wanberg and Muchinsky, 1992, p. 71). Taylor (1986, p. 11) used the term

"career uncertainty" as a broad phenomenon which included both career undecided and career indecisive individuals. In both groups Hartman, Fuqua and Blum (1985) identified anxiety as a common factor, with a difference that in career undecided individuals the anxiety is a state, and in career indecisive individuals the anxiety is a trait, with a higher correlation between trait anxiety and career indecision than between state anxiety and career indecision. They thus recommended different treatment interventions for the two groups.

The instrument used in this study and in most career indecision studies is the Career Decision Scale (CDS). The CDS unfortunately does not differentiate between the career undecided and the career indecisive. However, the fact that the construct validity of the instrument has been found to be high (.75 and .82), it can be taken as a reliable instrument to measure career uncertainty or career indecision as a broad phenomenon.

In this study the researcher refers to career undecidedness rather than career indecisiveness because the main goal is to measure the effects of exposure to career guidance (for this purpose samples were drawn from schools in which Guidance is offered as a subject) and of parental involvement on the career decidedness of subjects. To conclude that the subjects are decisive or indecisive as according to the foregoing definition of indecisiveness, would take more than the scope of this study. It is, however, expected that there will also be indications for career decisiveness with the use of the My Vocational Situation (MVS) which is an instrument with a subscale which directly measures career identity.

2.2 THE OLSON CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL AND FAMILY SYSTEMS

2.2.1 OVERVIEW OF THE MODEL

The Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems was developed by

David Olson in the early 1970's. Its major dimensions were cohesion and flexibility. Cohesion was defined as the "attractiveness of the group for its members", whilst flexibility (later named adaptability) referred to "the ability of the system to change rules and roles in the face of a crisis situation." (Cluff, Hicks, Madsen, 1994, p. 456).

Cohesion and adaptability were seen to be operating on a curvilinear continuum from low to high with the middle area representing healthy functioning families. Families falling outside the middle area were viewed as extreme and therefore dysfunctional. Support and Power were viewed as facilitating variables. Power was defined as "the ability of an individual to change the behaviour of other members of the family." (Cluff et al, 1994, p. 456).

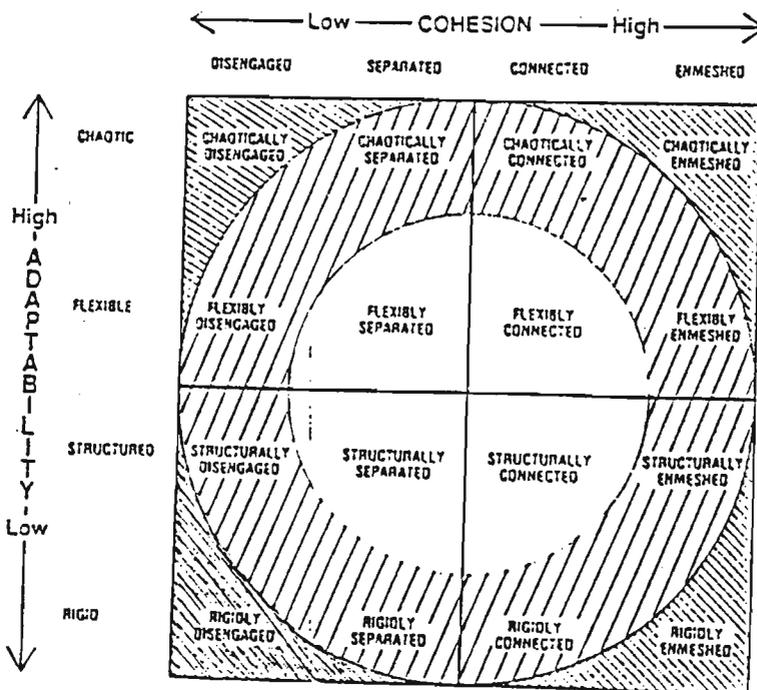
This model has so far been revised six times, the latest revision was in 1989. In its present structure the major dimensions of the model are (a) cohesion and (b) adaptability. Family cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding that members have with one another (Cluff et al, 1994). The variables in the family cohesion dimension are emotional bonding, boundaries, family involvement, marital relationship, and parent-child relationships. Family adaptability is defined as the amount of change in its leadership, role relationships, and relationship rules (Olson, 1994). Olson also used the term "flexibility" for "adaptability" to differentiate the latter from "adaptation" (Olson, 1994, p. 477). The variables in the adaptability dimension are: negotiation, discipline, rules, leadership, and roles. In this revised model Support and Power as facilitating factors have been replaced with communication as a facilitating factor.

The present Olson Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems gives sixteen types of marital and family systems. The cohesion

dimension has four levels ranging from disengaged (very low) to separated (low to moderate) to connected (moderate to high) to enmeshed (very high). The model hypothesises that central levels of cohesion (separated and connected) are viable for family functioning, while extreme levels of cohesion (disengaged and enmeshed) give rise to family malfunctioning. In enmeshed family systems family members overidentify with each other so that loyalty to and consensus within the family prevent individuation of family members. On the other extreme, in disengaged family systems there are high levels of autonomy with limited levels of attachment or commitment and each member does his or her own thing (Rice, Cole and Lapsey, 1990).

The adaptability dimension also has four levels ranging from rigid (very low) to structured (low to moderate) to flexible (moderate to high) to chaotic (very high). Olson hypothesised that families within the centre of the model (structured and flexible) will be more balanced and thus more functional than those falling to the extreme of the model (rigid and chaotic). [see figure 1]

Figure 1: The Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems
 (from Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen and Wilson, 1989, p.82)



The Circumplex Model classifies families into three broad categories which are Balanced, Mid-range and Extreme families. Olson referred to this model as the Three-Dimensional (3-D) Circumplex Model (Olson, 1991).

As mentioned above cohesion, adaptability and communication are aspects of marital and family behaviour. The concept of adaptability is based on the family development approach which hypothesises that families must change as they deal with normal transitions in the family. A classic example is when a child in the family reaches the adolescent stage. At this stage the adolescent has new expectations like more freedom, independence and more power within the family system. This transition disturbs the "equilibrium" that the family may have always maintained. To deal with the new situation, the family may need to change its traditional way of doing things. According to the Circumplex model, balanced families would be more equipped to deal with these changes than extreme families would.

However, Olson et al (1983) posited that these families (at central levels) do not always operate in a moderate manner. They do experience extremes sometimes, but they do not typically function at the extremes for long periods of time. In balanced families members are expected and allowed to be, for instance, both independent from and connected to their families. On the other hand, extreme families typically function at the extremes and family members are not expected to change.

Basic assumptions of the model suggest a curvilinear relationship between the two dimensions of the model and family functioning. By curvilinearity Olson referred to an inverted "U" relationship. The implication is that a family's functioning improves as the level of cohesion increases, but it comes to an optimum point where further or

more cohesion results in decline in family functioning. Therefore family cohesion needs to be balanced between the two extreme levels. In the same way, family functioning improves as the level of adaptability increases within the family. However, when the family becomes flexible beyond a certain optimum point, the level of family functioning declines.

The curvilinearity of the Circumplex model has been challenged in several studies (Cluff, Hicks and Madsen, 1991; Dundas, 1994). Studies testing the curvilinearity hypothesis of the model using the instrument which was developed by Olson called the FACES (Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale), which is also applied in this study, have yielded diverse, and thus inconclusive, results. Dundas (1994) categorises these studies into four viz. (a) those supporting the curvilinear hypothesis; (b) those finding no correlation between the FACES dimensions and family functioning; (c) those finding a linear relationship; and (d) those in which cohesion, but not adaptability, is found to be related to family health (Dundas, 1994, p. 193). In his study of a Nowergian sample Dundas (1994) tested whether the curvilinearity of the model found support cross-culturally; whether it depended on whether it is the families of origin or families of procreation that were described and; whether it was influenced by the data analysis technique used. Olson (1994) has defended his stand on curvilinearity by use of the Clinical Rating Scale (CRS) on clinical samples (families with emotionally\ behavioural disturbed adolescents and in family therapy) and control samples (families in which adolescents had no major emotional problems) using the Circumplex Model. His findings in these studies showed higher incidence of problems in the disengaged and enmeshed families than there were in separated and connected families. The same applied to the adaptability dimension. That is, there was a higher incidence of problems in rigid and chaotic families than there was in structured and flexible families. Olson (1994) maintains that in cases where a curvilinear relationship is not obtained, it is

because of possible limitations of the instrument used (FACES) and not a result of the model. Olson proposed that the use of FACES III as a measure with the 3-D Circumplex Model, a linear relationship could be found between family cohesion and well-being but that no significant correlation with family adaptability could be found (Olson, 1991). In these findings cohesion was demonstrated to be a more powerful predictor of family well-functioning than adaptability. This finding (that cohesion is a better predictor of family functioning than adaptability) is supported by Farrell and Barnes (1993). In the three dimensional Circumplex Model high scores in the FACES III measure balanced family types and low scores measure extreme family types. That is, high scores on cohesion are an indication of "connected" families which fall within the Balanced category of families, and high scores on adaptability are an indication of "flexible" families which also fall within the Balanced category of families.

Olson explained the curvilinearity and linearity of the Circumplex model in terms of first-order and second-order change. First-order change is the change which occurs within a given family system in which the basic family system does not change (Olson, 1994, p. 477). The evolutionary model refers to first-order change as change in which the system undergoes fluctuations in its functioning while the system itself maintains stability and remains more or less unchanged (Taylor, 1986, p. 41). It is a change in degree among family members as their situation as a unit changes. Too little and too much change are regarded as problematic. For instance when children grow to be adolescents and seek more independence it requires that parents should adapt to these changes. Too much change may result in a chaotic family system as there will be no rules and regulations in place. Too little change or resistance to change will result in a rigid family system which does not give allowance to natural development. In both these instances the family will be functioning

in the extreme dimensions and experience disfunctionality. A family would experience optimum functioning if both adaptability and cohesion are maintained at the "balanced" dimension. First-order change is therefore presented by Olson as curvilinear.

Second-order change is change of the whole family system from one type (e.g. enmeshed) to another type (e.g. connected) (Olson, 1994, p. 477). It is a measure of change undergone by families over time. According to the evolutionary model second order change is change of change. That is, a family at a normal life cycle transitional stage experiences new conditions that cannot be dealt with by the same patterns that have kept the family stable during minor fluctuations. The family as a system thus takes a leap and adopts completely new interaction patterns to accommodate new conditions that have arisen. A family is expected to be able to make these changes and allow for both growth of its members and for continuity of itself as a system in order to function. An enmeshed family system would have ties that are regarded as too strong to allow for individual development of its family members. If the family changes from enmeshment to connectedness, family ties are loosened but they still remain in place. The change allows for better functioning of the family as a unit and of its individual members. The 3-D model proposes that families which fall in the Balanced category will undergo more change than families in the Extreme type over time. Olson therefore proposed that second-order change is linear.

The nature of the circumplex model is controversial. "The curvilinearity hypothesis receives support when clinicians are asked to describe families, but not when families are asked to describe themselves." (Dundas, 1994, p. 199). The experience of extremity seems to be subjective to families and is not necessarily in agreement with what is proposed in Olson's model. Therefore functioning at the extremes is not dysfunctional unless family

members experience it as such. For example, families who do not experience extreme adaptability as chaotic will report their families as well-functioning (Dundas, 1994).

According to the theory of the model, there is a curvilinear relationship between family types and functioning. Therefore a curvilinear relationship is expected between career indecision and the adaptability\flexibility and the cohesion dimensions.

2.3 CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS

No phase of the family life cycle seems to be more stressful than the adolescent years. Part of this stress comes from the changing needs and preferences of the adolescents as they increasingly seek their independence from their families.... To deal with the situational stress and developmental changes across the family cycle, balanced families will change their cohesion and adaptability whereas extreme families will resist change over time (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen and Wilson, 1989, p. 219).

Perosa and Perosa (1993) studied the contention that a balance between enmeshment and disengagement in the family is associated with healthy adolescent development. Balance implies a successful resolution of the conflict between maintaining a feeling of connectedness in the family relationship and the establishment of autonomous ego functioning in the adolescent. This study suggested a strong link between healthy differentiation in the family to identity achievement and reliance on positive coping strategies.

The influence of the family on career decision of young people has been suggested in several writings and studies (Blustein, Walbridge, Friedlander and Palladino, 1991; Eigen, Hartman and Hartman, 1987;

Kinnier et al, 1990; Lopez and Andrews, 1987; Palmer and Cochran, 1988; Vondracek, Lerner and Schulenberg). Palmer and Cochran (1988) observed that "a child's career plan is not just his or her plan. It would be more accurate to call it a family plan, given parents' contributions of resources, finances, advice, personal support and contacts, among other things." (p. 75).

Lopez and Andrews (1987) proposed three aspects of family impact on career decision-making of college students. These aspects are:

- (a) The role of the family in career decision-making;
- (b) The relationship between career decision-making and family development;
- (c) The conceptualisation of career indecision as a symptom of inadequate separation between parent and young adult. They posit that career indecision occurs in the context of one's family and family members have an influence on the process.

Kinnier et al (1990) studied the influence of the family on career indecision where there is enmeshment in the family-of-origin. In this study Kinnier et al found that family-of-origin enmeshment may be a precursor to indecisiveness for an individual. Taylor (1986) referred to this as "difficulties in resolving the dependence\independence struggle" (p. 21). While Eigen, Hartman and Hartman (1987) found no evidence of a relation between career indecision and family interaction patterns, they also proposed that strict rules accompanied by high levels of attachment tend to prevent individuation, while too few rules accompanied by a lack of emotional attachment may lead to premature separation without enough guidance to enable effective decision-making (p. 93). In an enmeshed family environment adolescents are inhibited in the individuation process in order to develop their own autonomous self-identities. Instead of individuating, the adolescent becomes fused in the relationship with other family members or becomes triangulated in the relationship.

Triangulation is the situation in which the adolescent feels being pulled in two different directions by the other two members of the triangle (Kinnier et al, 1990). With the strong wish to please both his/her parents, the adolescent fails to develop an identity and thus experiences an inability to make decisions in major areas of his/her life - including making career-related decisions.

Vondracek et al (1986) explained this in terms of parent-child dyads. If the dyad is characterized by a strong emotional bond, then the parent may have more influence on the child's behaviour and development. When members of a dyad take a strong interest in each other's activities, the dyad becomes more powerful and the members become influential to each other's development.

On the other extreme, Kinnier et al (1990) found that in disengaged families, family members become disinterested and uninvolved with the adolescent's career choice. This may result in feelings of isolation and abandonment in the adolescent. When a child in the family reaches the adolescent stage and is in his or her matric year, major changes occur in his life. The cohesion and the adaptability level of the family becomes a significant determinant of how successfully the adolescent handles the situation at this period. Bhushan and Shirali (1992) contend that the quality of parent-child relationships is important in affecting how an adolescent approaches the developmental tasks of this age. They stated that " the family helps the adolescent first form and then consolidate and clarify the self-image during the crisis of confusion brought about by change and transition." (p. 688). This change and transition for the youth poses a challenge for the entire family system. Basing their argument on the hypothesis of the Olson Circumplex Model which states that balanced families will have more positive communication styles than extreme families, Bhushan and Shirali examined the association between family type and communication. Their findings supported the

hypothesis of the Circumplex model, i.e., there was a close association between positive communication and balanced families. Also, youth with high identity achievement were more represented in the balanced family types and those with low identity achievement were better represented in the extreme type families. A conclusion drawn from these findings is that balanced families are better able to cope with developmental stress and function than extreme families.

A psychoanalytic view based on the theory of attachment, separation and individuation (Blustein et al, 1991; Eigen et al, 1987; Taylor, 1986), suggested a relationship between attachment and separation and the adolescent's individuation process and its influence on decision-making and commitment to the career world. Blustein et al (1991) regard individuality and feelings of connectedness among family members as the most prominent predictors of adolescent exploration. Adolescents find it easier to grow and develop in an environment that allows for some emotional "refuelling" in a secure base provided by the family attachments. Families in which independence of thought and feeling are perceived as threatening are regarded as dysfunctional (Blustein et al, 1991). In such families the young adult is discouraged from developing a sense of psychological separateness which in turn would inhibit the necessary career decision-making and implementation task. In Eigen et al's (1987) terms strict rules accompanied by a high level of attachment (enmeshed in Olson's model) tend to prevent individuation while too few rules accompanied by a lack of emotional attachment (disengaged in Olson's model) may lead to premature separation without enough guidance to enable effective decision-making. Dundas (1994) proposed that the perception of family functioning according to Olson's model also depends on the individual members of the family. He reported that the curvilinearity of the model was supported by studies of adolescents rating of their families of origin.

2.4 TRANSITIONS IN FAMILY LIFE AND IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER DECISION-MAKING FOR THE ADOLESCENT

Traditionally, in African families the role of the family as a unit, of parents, or of parent surrogates when an adolescent is to make a major decision like leaving home, choosing a marriage partner, or choosing a career, is extensive. The young are expected to respect their elders in an "authoritarian" sense (Campbell, 1994). An adolescent is still regarded as a child and is answerable to his\her parents for whatever he is doing. Therefore in African culture, long after it would be expected that an adolescent claims autonomy, and is allowed some degree of freedom to make his\her own decision, he\she would still be dependent on his\her parents or parent surrogates. The situation is, however, different today as social change renders "certain of the recipes for living developed by their parents in a different social and historical context are longer appropriate coping mechanisms" (Campbell, 1994, p.48). Campbell remarked that these family recipes often proved to be insufficiently developed in the areas of education and career choice. This poses a challenge to identity theories which propose the age around 16-18 years as years of seeking independence. The question whether a young person who constantly receives a message that he\she is still a child and cannot make decisions for himself\herself would actively seek autonomy and develop identity the same way as the one who is allowed this autonomy? Are career theories based on developmental stages such as those of Super relevant to individuals who at a particular chronological age (about 18 years in this case), are still socially regarded as children automatically transform from the tentative to the transition stage? Is the transition a function of physical, emotional, or social development and how does it impact on the youth and making career-related decisions.

While many transitions are normal within families in that they are expected to happen in a family unit over life course, these

transitions are often marked by "feelings of uncertainty, anxiety, and a sense of loss" (Olson, et al, 1989, p. 113). To cope with these changes, families are expected to change established patterns of behaviour and bring stability to the family unit, both in terms of relationships among its members and in terms of the family's relationship to the community (Olson et al, 1989). However, African tradition is undergoing rapid social change. More than any other social group, the family bears the brunt of the consequences brought about by change (Campbell, 1994). Social change has an impact on the basic structure of the family, including parent-child relationships. The rapidity may have the shock effect, weakening the sense of responsibility for parents to socialise their children (Southall, 1959). These changes have implications for what has been traditionally regarded as authoritarian relationships of parents to their children and the collectivistic nature of African societies. In order to cope with this change, family units need to change as rapidly among themselves and in their relationships to their communities, which are also undergoing change.

In investigating township families and youth, Campbell (1994) observed that the family's recipe and the youth's recipe for living were "often subject to heated debate" (p. 48). These youth regarded their parents as "old-fashioned, boring and out-of-touch" and thus finding them inadequate as social guides. In other cases the parents may feel inadequate and frustrated and abandon control (Southall, 1959). He, however, also observed that the youth still regarded their parents with love and loyalty.

According to Ferron (1990) in the "older-order" African culture there was an in-built informal system of directive counselling in which the older members told the younger what they should do. The social change that families experience now is so rapid from one generation to the next that "parents often lack the skills and experience to

advise their offspring with regard to dealing with a range of day-to-day situations" (Campbell, 1992, p. 70). These youth lie somewhere in a diffuse area between a culture which upholds directive counselling to a culture which expects one to make his\her own decisions. Niemi (1988) stated: "Predicting future role expectations and preparing for them is far more difficult in a society undergoing rapid change" (p. 430).

Naicker (1994) drew attention to the important issue of addressing the multicultural nature of the South African society and the career counselling programmes to address these variations. He suggested a model of career counselling which will "take into account both the psychological variables in human behaviour, as well as the social variables which affect educational and career decisions" (p 28). A view is widely held that Black families are hierarchical and authoritarian in structure and composition, generally ascribing to communal life and extended families. Primacy is generally given to goals of the extended group. To meet the needs of these groups, Ferron's (1990) view was that non-directive counselling is incompatible with "Black (African and Asian)" cultures, and that this approach should be used in equipping them (African and Asian students) with assertiveness skills. This is a view which warrants extensive debate and research. With the change that the families are undergoing, and the confusion that the African youth is experiencing, both as a result of the developmental stage and the traditional transition characteristic of their population group, career decision-making becomes a major task. The family is naturally a significant part of this process for any adolescent in matric. A family in transition and the accompanying dynamics are of additional significance.

Industrialisation and mobility have had an influence on the family as a unit. Urbanization as an accompanying phenomenon, has resulted in

a decline in some of the traditional customs, with the increase in female-headed households as an example (Moller,1993). Guidelines to relationships formerly prescribed by culture and tradition have become diffuse and the nuclear family has become isolated from the traditional and community support. Dreyer (1980) remarked about the "rapid social change" that took place for the Zulu people when they came into contact with Whites and their South African western way of living. While the traditional Zulu society put little emphasis on individuality, the western culture aimed at the cultivation of each child's individuality and uniqueness. With change, a shift in these values can be expected. The individuality-communality dichotomy can be comparable in Olson's terms to the two extremes of the Circumplex Model, i.e. disengaged and enmeshment in the cohesion dimension. Individualism in its extreme would be described in Olson's Circumplex Model terms as disengagement and collectivism in its extreme would be described as enmeshment. An important difference to note is that while disengagement and enmeshment are seen as pathological, individualism and communalism are only a way of life. This raises a question whether the Olson Circumplex Model is applicable to African families. Where would the line be drawn between enmeshment and a collectivistic approach to life?

Bhushan and Shirali (1992) in their study of family types and communication with parents showed that youth with high identity achievement were more represented in the extreme type families. In balanced families, adolescents are more likely to be given responsibility for their failures and successes. This letting-go defines how the adolescent internalises the decision-making process and the formation of his identity (Luckey, 1974). Mngadi (1995) in investigating the effect of the individualism -collectivism factor in career decidedness of rural and urban youth, found no significant differences between these two groups. Though the sample used in the Mngadi study was relatively small to

generalize to a wider population, the results gave an indication that African youth took their career decisions independent of the nature of relationships in their societal systems.

Family theorists proposed that an individual's concept of himself originated from the perceptions and expectations of his/her parents (Luckey, 1974). The rapid change in societies, which made parents' expectations unclear, resulted in confusion and uncertainty in their children about what and who they were.

In the South African context, African adolescents have also been affected by the experiences of racism and discrimination. Being a target of discrimination has been reported to result in feelings of worthlessness, inferiority and self-hatred (Howcroft, 1990). Goldberg and Hodes (1992) posited that racism may increase parental protectiveness which may interfere with family and individual boundary maintenance. It also affects particular aspects of family life such as family life-cycle transitions, the maintenance of family organisation and belief systems. These authors proposed that the impact of racism destabilizes balance between centripetal and centrifugal forces and the process of homeostatic mechanism. Racism and other external attacks and threats, bring about changes to the pre-existing structure and values of the family. This may result in intergenerational conflict or alienation between the dominant culture and the sub-culture, in this case the parent's culture and the adolescent's culture. During the school uprisings of the '80's the Human Science Research Council commented on the concern about the estrangement of parents and their children in the African communities (Howcroft, 1990). In other instances being a target of discrimination may result in strengthening of the family boundaries such that the process of the adolescent acquiring independence is restrained (Goldberg and Hodes, 1992). Among African families in particular the intergenerational issues were isolated by Campbell

(1992) as: (a) the breakdown of respect, cited as the cornerstone of traditional African social relations; (b) the breakdown in parental authority; (c) the transformation of traditional power relations in the family, based on strict definitions of age and gender relations (p. 61). Paradoxical loyalty may also be a feature of discriminated communities as either the parents or the adolescent align with the values of the dominating culture. This resulted in further conflict between parents and their children.

Dreyer (1980) investigated the 1970's Zulu adolescents' views of their relationship with their parents, as well as their homes' atmosphere and circumstances. His findings were that 43,09% of the sample thought that their relationship with their parents were good and they appreciated each other's point of view. Campbell's study (1994) indicated that youth still felt that in the traditional families they were expected to respect their parents in an authoritarian sense but are challenging their parent's views for democratic behavioural guidelines. These two foregoing studies demonstrated the discrepancy between the views of a 70's youth and a 90's youth.

In his investigation of the Zulu adolescent and vocational choices Dreyer (1980) found that 43.33% of his sample were certain about and knew exactly what they wanted to become while 56.67% were either still undecided about various possibilities or had no plans at all. The subjects of this study are mainly Zulu speaking adolescents. It is expected that the results will show a pattern of family relationships and what influence they might have on adolescents' career decidedness.

2.5 DIFFERENCES IN GENDER WITH REGARD TO CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND THE FAMILY INFLUENCE

While most earlier studies of career development have focused on males because of the assumptions that "the primary roles of women were those of housewife and mother" (Fitzgerald and Betz, 1983, p. 83), there is now a growing interest in investigating career development of females. Because of different socialization patterns that the male and the female children (from the same family) are subjected to by their parents it is expected that their career development in general, and their career decisiveness specifically, will be different in spite of some of their social circumstances (e.g. socioeconomic status, family size) being the same. Schulenberg, Vondracek and Crouter (1984) posited that while males are automatically socialized to the world of work, it is not so automatic with the female child, much so among families of lower economic status. However, these are patterns that may have changed in the later generations with the ideology of women's liberation and the resultant reduction of the expectation that a girl will get married and be taken care of by her husband. The majority of women now prefer to combine marriage and career pursuits (Fitzgerald and Betz, 1983). These authors see women's career development as a product of two sequential decisions. Firstly, whether or not they want to make outside employment a focus of their life; and secondly, what career to pursue. The second decision is also influenced by sex-role stereotypes and the influence of parents. High school girls doing science subjects may also be challenged with whether to break the stereotype and decide whether to follow the stereotypically or traditionally male careers like engineering. These factors are expected to influence the career decidedness of girls. Fitzgerald and Betz (1983) suggested personality variables such as the self-concept and instrumentality (described as actively and effectively

dealing with the environment), competency, self-directedness, assertiveness, independence and self-sufficiency, characteristics associated with "traditional masculinity" (p. 115), as important factors in career development of females. Relationships with parents have been found to have an influence on self-esteem and psychological well-being of young adults (Roberts and Bengston, 1993). It is therefore expected that family relationships would be an influence on career decidedness of the adolescents of this study with differences between male and female pupils as a result of differentiated socialization. This view was supported by Sundal-Hansen (1984) who saw the intersection between work and family as affecting gender roles and division of labour. Sundal-Hansen (1984) observed that rapid social change results in "tension between tradition and change" (p. 237) and that there is a need for a paradigm shift and "sex-fair" career education curriculum (p. 236).

Differences in levels of occupational information and on career aspirations have been reported by Smith (1983). "Black" female adolescents were found to possess less occupational information and to hold most stereotypic views of job appropriateness than both black boys and boys and girls of other racial American groups, whether white or Hispanic. Unrealistically high aspirations have also been reported for black youth. Reasons for this have been suggested to be "overcompensation for feelings of inadequacy" and "recent gains of black people" (Smith, 1983, p. 199). The same has been reported about South African youth, with their aspirations more in the Social theme of Holland's typology (Cloete, 1981; Watson, Foxcroft and Horn, 1995). The same reasons could be true for these youth as for the American youth of the 80's.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

3.1 SAMPLING:

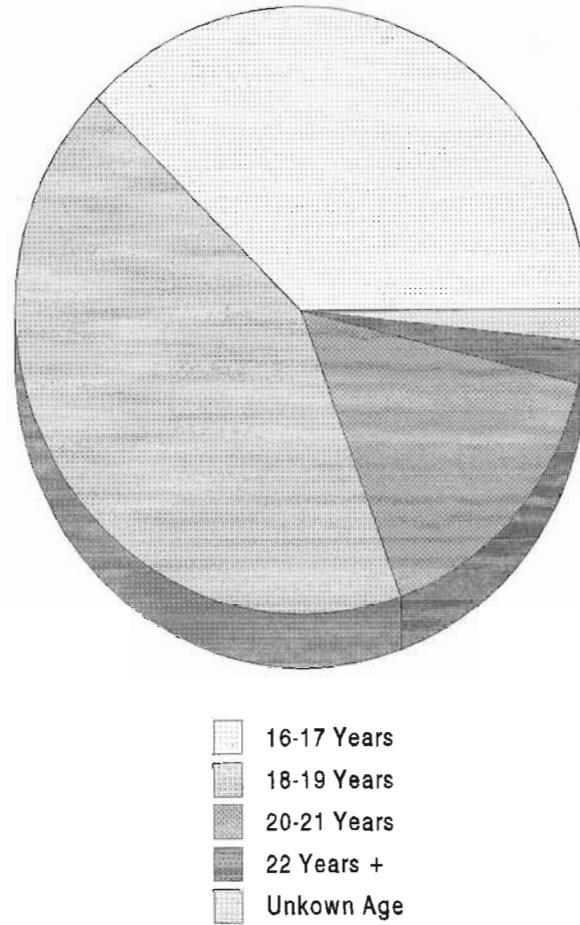
The sample of this study was drawn from a population of two high schools in a township which is in the neighbourhood of Durban. A total of 130 pupils were involved in the study. In both cases, permission was obtained through the principal and pupils were accessed with the assistance of the Guidance teachers. The student population distribution in these high schools was 100% African and in both high schools Guidance is, according to the curriculum, offered as a school subject from standard 6. However, there were differences in the levels of emphasis to career guidance between school 1 and school 2. School 1 was regarded as a pilot school on Guidance. In this school there was a post for a Guidance teacher and she specialises in this subject. School 2 does not have a Guidance teacher post. Guidance was being offered to the pupils by a teacher who was also committed with other subjects. In a sample of 130, 36,9% is from school 1 and 63,1% is from school 2.

3.1.1 SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION

Table 1: Sample distribution by age

Average	No of Subjects	Percentage
16 - 17 years	N = 49	37.7%
18 - 19 years	N = 56	43.1%
20 - 21 years	N = 20	15.4%
22 years +	N = 3	2.3%
Unknown Age	N = 2	1.5%

Figure 2: Sample distribution by age



The majority of subjects in this study are in the 18-19 age bracket. The least number is of those who are 22 years and above and are thus young adults.

Table 2: Sample distribution by gender

<u>Average</u>	<u>No of Subject</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Female	N = 76	58.5%
Male	N = 52	40%
Unclassified	N = 2	1.5%

There were more girls than boys who participated in this study. This tallies with population distribution in the country and in the schools.

Sample distribution by family structure

Sixty nine (86.25% of the total sample N=125) of the subjects of this study are from families in which parents are married and fifty seven (43.8%) live with their parents. Thirty six of the total sample are from one parent families with 17.6% (n=23) living with their mothers and 0.8% (n=1) with their fathers. Eight of the participants (6.2%) their parents are unmarried but they live with both of them. If an accepted description of intact families is those families in which both parents and their children live together, then for this sample 82.5% (n=65) are from intact families.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

It is hypothesised in this study that the type of family and the nature of relationships which characterise the family type have an influence on career decidedness of adolescents. "Family type" is the primary independent variable and thus a classification factor or predictor variable and cannot be manipulated. "Career indecision" is a dependent and a criterion variable. Exposure to career guidance, and gender are secondary independent variables.

The research is designed to test the following hypotheses:

- H1: There is a relationship between family cohesion and career decidedness such that extreme levels of family cohesion (enmeshment and disengagement) as measured by FACES III will be significantly associated with career undecidedness as measured by the Career Decision Scale.
- H2: There is a relationship between family adaptability and career decidedness such that extreme levels of family adaptability (rigid and chaotic) as measured by the FACES III will be significantly associated with career undecidedness as measured by the Career Decision Scale.
- H3: There is a relationship between career decidedness and career identity as measured by the My Vocational Situation such that low levels of career identity will be associated with low levels of career decidedness as measured by the Career Decision Scale.
- H4: There is a significant difference between career decidedness of matriculants with more exposure to career Guidance (school 1) and career decidedness of matriculants with less exposure to career Guidance (school 2) such that matriculants of school 1 will be more career decided than matriculants of school 2.
- H5: There is a significant difference between career decidedness of boys of both schools combined and career decidedness of girls of both schools combined such that boys will be more career decided than girls.

3.3 INSTRUMENTS:

Data for this study was collected with the use of the Carer Decision Scale (CDS), the My Vocational Situation (MVS), the Family

Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale (FACES), and a Biographical Questionnaire. An elaborate discussion of these instruments follow in the coming paragraphs.

The questionnaires in the above mentioned instruments were translated from English to Zulu by a committee of three members whose first language is Zulu and second language is English. Zulu is the mother tongue of the respondents. One translator is a qualified psychologist and the other two are post-graduate students of psychology.

3.3.1 THE CAREER DECISION SCALE (CDS):

The CDS was developed by Osipow, Carney and Yanico in 1976 and was revised in 1980. It is used to measure career indecision. The instrument consists of 19 items and takes 10-15 minutes to administer. Responses are measured in a Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 4 in which a score of 1 indicates a low similarity of respondent to the statement and a score of 4 indicates a high similarity of the respondent to the statement.

The sum of items 1 and 2 form the Certainty Scale (CS) which measures the degree of certainty one feels in having made a career choice. Therefore high scores in the CS indicate certainty of career choice. The highest score in this subscale would be 8 and the lowest score is 2.

From items 3 to 18 is the Indecision Scale (IS) and measures a respondent's level of career indecision. Therefore IS scores indicate indecision regarding career choice. The higher the score the less decided the individual is about his\her career (Osipow, 1980, p. 2). The highest score in this subscale would be 64 and the lowest would be 16. Item 19 is an unscorable item designed to check whether the respondent has any clarifications regarding other items (Osipow, 1980). This item will be useful in this study in evaluating the barriers that the subjects may be experiencing in making career decisions other than those specifically stated in

items of this instrument.

Reliability:

A test-retest reliability of .90 to .82 (over a period of two to six weeks) is cited by Harmon (1985) and Osipow (1980). This instrument has also been used in several South African studies by Stead (1988) investigating career indecision among white high school students and by Toerien (1984) on adult subjects. The difference between these studies and the present study is that a translated version of the instrument was administered to the subjects. This translated version has recently been used by Mngadi (1995). The CDS in this study was also found to correlate significantly with the My Vocational Situation (MVS) as a measure of career decidedness ($r = .40$ for the Certainty scale and $-.68$ for the Indecision scale ($p < .001$)).

Validity:

The validity of this instrument was examined by Osipow, Carney and Barak (Osipow, 1980). They found that the career indecision scores changed after exposure to career counselling programmes. Construct validity of the CDS was tested by Toerien (1984) by comparing the pre-test and the post-test means on the Certainty and the Indecision scales. For both scales differences were observed with an increase in scores in the former and a decrease in scores in the latter. The instrument tapped career decisiveness as a correlate of various factors such as family dynamics (Taylor, 1986) and socioeconomic status, vocational identity, anxiety level and locus of control (Stead, 1988). Harmon's (1985) evaluation of the scale confirms its relatedness to locus of control, career maturity, grade level, ability, sex and fear of success (p. 270).

In this study internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach Alpha) of .75 and .86 have been found for the Certainty and the Indecision Scales respectively. This instrument can be used as a good springboard for discussions in career counselling (Harmon, 1985;

Herman, 1985).

3.3.2 MY VOCATIONAL SITUATION (MVS):

The MVS is a 20 item instrument developed by Holland, Daiger and Power in 1980. The scale consists of three subscales viz (a) Vocational Identity Scale (VI)-later referred to as the Career Identity Scale (CI), (b) Occupational Information Scale (OI), and (c) Barriers Scale (B). Lunneborg (1985) describes the MVS as a screening device "for locating people in high schools, colleges and adult programs who need intensive career counselling because of poor vocational identity." (p. 1026). The scale has also been used in a more recent study as a measure of vocational indecision (Wanberg and Muchinsky, 1992).

The VI scale consists of 18 items to which respondents answer true or false. The VI score is the total number of false responses. A high score means a well-developed career identity and a low score means a poorly developed career identity. Lunneborg (1985) regards the Career Identity (VI) scale as the only real scale. Item 19 is the Occupational Information (OI) subscale, and item 20 is the Barrier (B) subscale. These two subscales are regarded more as checklists than scales.

The Occupational Information (OI) subscale gives 4 most possible kinds of career information the respondent may need. The respondent responds by circling either "yes" or "no". The OI score is the total number of no responses. Therefore in the OI subscale the highest score is 4 which means the respondent does not need any of the types of information listed. The lowest score is 0 which means the respondent feels he/she needs all the types of information listed in the questionnaire.

The Barrier (B) subscale gives the 4 possible difficulties the respondent may be facing in making a career decision. The respondent responds by circling either "yes" or "no". The total

B score is also the total number of no responses. The highest score is thus 4 which means the respondent does not experience any of the listed barriers. The lowest score is 0 which means the respondent experiences all of the types of barriers listed in the questionnaire.

Reliability:

The internal consistencies for the three subscales measured by Kuder Richardson 20 on high school students were found to be:

Vocational Identity: male .86; female .86

Occupational Information: male .39; female .44

Barriers: male .23; female .23 (Holland, Daiger and Power, 1980).

The internal consistencies obtained for the translated version used in this study which are shown below, compare well with the standardized version: Vocational Identity (Identity Scale): boys .82; girls .74; Occupational Information: boys .71; girls .48; Barriers Scale: boys .49; girls .27. Internal consistencies on the total samples were found to be .78; .63 and .37 for the Identity Scale, the Information Scale, and the Barriers Scale respectively. (See also table 3). However, a higher reliability of the MVS for high school students, college students and workers was estimated at .86 to .89 by Lucas (1993) and Lunneborg (1985). Lucas (1993) reports a test-retest reliability of .75 in a 1 - 3 months interval.

Validity:

Validity studies reported by Westbrook (1985) show little support for validity of this instrument. However, Lucas (1993) in his validity study of the instrument found that high scorers in the VI scale were relatively free of disabling psychological problems, were conscientious and responsible, had a clear sense of identity and were not easily put off by barriers or environmental ambiguities. Tinsley and Bowman (1989) in a factor analytic study of the MVS, CDS and other related scales (Vocational Rating Scale and Decisional Rating Scale), found that the VI subscale of the MVS

is mainly a measure of clarity of occupational goals, interests and talents. He found the OI and the B subscales to be loaded on the Decision-Making Obstacles factor. The VI subscale of the instrument was also used in a South African study by Toerien (1984). The VI subscale seems to be a good measure of career identity with a reliability coefficient of .86 (Toerien, 1984). The information obtained in the OI and the B subscales will be useful for recommendations for career guidance and counselling programmes.

3.3.3 FAMILY ADAPTABILITY AND COHESION EVALUATION SCALE (FACES III):

The FACES III is a 20 item questionnaire designed by Olson, Portner and Lavee in 1985 to measure the two central dimensions of the Olson's Circumplex Model. These two dimensions are family cohesion and family adaptability. Each of these dimensions consists of 10 alternate items in the 20 item scale. It is a 5-point Likert scale where 1=almost never, 2=once in a while, 3=sometimes, 4=frequently, and 5=always. Respondents are required to circle one number which best corresponds with what happens in their families. The highest score for each dimension is 50 and the lowest is 10. High scorers and low scorers in the cohesion dimension fall to the extremes (enmeshed and disengaged), and intermediate scorers fall to the balanced category (separated and connected). Cut-off points in the cohesion dimension are- disengaged :10-31, separated: 32-37, connected: 38-43, and enmeshed: 44-50 (Farrell and Barnes, 1993).

High and low scorers in the adaptability dimension fall to the extreme (chaotic and rigid), and intermediate scorers fall to the balanced category (flexible and structured). Cut-off points in the adaptability dimension are- rigid: 10-19, structured: 20-24, flexible: 25-29, and chaotic: 30-50 (Farrell and Barnes, 1993). Midrange families score extreme in one dimension and intermediate in another dimension.

Development of the FACES

When the Circumplex Model and the FACES were first published in the early 1970's as the instrument used to measure the two family constructs in the model (flexibility and cohesion), they were conceived as linear (Cluff, Hicks and Madsen, 1994). "The most healthy families were the most adaptable" (p. 456). In the same way, a linear relationship was reported between family cohesion and healthy family functioning.

In the late 70's Olson revised the model and replaced "flexibility" with "adaptability". He also proposed a curvilinear nature of the model. Curvilinearity implied that on the adaptability dimension families could be too adaptable or not adaptable enough; and on the cohesion dimension families could be too bonded or not bonded enough. For families to be healthy-functioning, their level of adaptability need to be balanced between the two extremes. He named families which were regarded as too adaptable as chaotic and those that were not adaptable enough as rigid. Families which were regarded as functional and healthy fell within the structured and flexible levels of adaptability. On the cohesion dimension, functionally healthy families fell within the separated and the connected level and the dysfunctional families fell within the extreme levels of cohesion, i.e. disengaged and enmeshed.

In order to upgrade the reliability and the validity of FACES, in the FACES II items were reduced from 111 to 30 and the scale was changed from a 4 point to a 5 point response scale (Cluff et al, p. 461).

The curvilinear nature of the Olson's model has been challenged by Cluff and his colleagues (Cluff et al 1994) basing their argument on a number of studies that show the model as linear.

These arguments are in line with Olson's concepts of first order

and second order change. Olson defined first-order change as that which occurs within a given family system type and second-order change as the ability of a system type to change to another type (Olson, 1991, p. 75). Olson accentuates that first-order change is curvilinear and second-order change is linear. The use of FACES III assumes a linear relationship within a three-dimensional model. That is, high scores represent balanced families and low scores represent extreme families. Midrange families are represented by being balanced on one dimension but extreme on the other (Eigen, Hartman and Hartman, 1987). Therefore, in scoring the questionnaire, "extreme" families would score either 1 or 4 on the cohesion dimension, and also either 1 or 4 on the adaptability dimension. These would be disengaged and enmeshed families and rigid and chaotic families. "Balanced" families would score 2 or 3 on both cohesion and adaptability. "Midrange" families score 2 or 3 on one dimension and 1 or 4 on another dimension.

A conclusion that emerges from these propositions is that while the Circumplex Model illustrates a curvilinear relationship between its two primary dimensions and family functioning, measurement with FACES will give linear scores for second-order change (from one family type to another family type), and curvilinear scores for first-order change (change within the family) (Olson, 1991; Olson, 1994).

The interpretation of results obtained from this study will have implications for the change that the families (as perceived by the subjects of this study) are undergoing first-order or second-order change and the effect of the change to functionality of the family. Linear scores will have implications for second-order change, that is change from an established adolescent-parent way of relating and doing things. Curvilinear scores would imply developmental change within the family, which, all things remaining normal, does not dictate a change in traditional way of doing things.

Reliability and Validity:

This instrument was evaluated by Rodick, Hengeller and Hanson (1986) in a study of 58 mother-son dyads from father absent families. In this study, the FACES was found to be proficient at distinguishing delinquent from non-delinquent families. Rodick et al (1985) found internal consistency reliability coefficients for adaptability and cohesion scales to be .75 and .83 respectively and a total reliability of .86. Internal consistencies found in the present study (cohesion: .81 and adaptability: .56) compare favourably with the Rodick et al's study. In a South African study Lindegger (in Mason, Rubenstein and Shuda, 1992) used the FACES to study family dynamics of chronic pain patients. It was found that a larger number of chronic pain patients fell in the category of dysfunctional families than on the functional family categories as defined by the Olson's Circumplex model. Lindegger (1988) found Cronbach Alphas for FACES III to be .69 for adaptability and .86 for cohesion.

Presently the reliability of this instrument, especially the suggestion by Olson that it is curvilinear, is controversial (Cluff, Hicks and Madsen, 1994; Eckblad, 1993). However, Olson in a recent study of its curvilinearity gave an interrater reliability of .91 for cohesion and .86 for flexibility (adaptability) and construct validity (eigen values) of 8.0 for cohesion and 4.7 for flexibility (Olson, 1994, p. 473). A translated Zulu version of this instrument is being used for the first time in this study.

3.3.4 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE:

The biographical questionnaire was put together by the researcher. In the biographical questionnaire respondents gave their personal particulars and also particulars about their families. The items in the biographical questionnaire were designed to capture family features such as gender, age and family intactness (two parent and single parent families).

Table 3 : Summary table of the comparison of internal consistency (Cronbach alphas obtained for the original Instruments and the translated instruments used in this study.

INSTRUMENT		ALPHA BY GENDER				ALPHA BY TOTAL SAMPLE	
		ORIGINAL		TRANSLATION		ORIGINAL	TRANSLATION
		FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE		
MVS:	VI	.86 ^a	.86 ^a	.74 ^e	.82 ^e	.86 ^b	.78 ^e
	01	.44 ^a	.39 ^a	.48 ^e	.71 ^e		.63 ^e
	B	.23 ^a	.23 ^a	.27 ^e	.49 ^e		.37 ^e
CDS:	IS			.68 ^e	.86 ^e		.86 ^e
	CS			.81 ^e	.88 ^e		.75 ^e
COH:						.83 ^c	
						.86 ^d	.81 ^e
ADP:						.75 ^c	.56 ^e
						.69 ^d	

a= Holland, Daiger and Power, 1980.
 c= Rodick, Hengeller and Hanson, 1986.
 e= findings of this study

b= Toerien, 1984.
 d= Lindegger, 1988.

3.4 PROCEDURE:

In each school the permission to work with the standard 10s was obtained from the school principals through the Guidance teachers.

All the questionnaires were bound together and administered in single sessions in classroom settings. Questionnaires were translated from English to Zulu by a committee of three members whose first language is Zulu and second language is English. Zulu

is the mother tongue of the respondents. One translator was a qualified psychologist and the other two were postgraduate students of Psychology. The researcher was available in each session to attend to any questions that may arise. At the beginning of each session respondents were informed of their option to remain anonymous and that information will be handled with confidentiality. The purpose of the study was also explained to the students. This helped to put the respondents at ease. Anastasi (1982) suggested that it is important to "sell" the purpose of the test to high school and college students and to adults and convincing them that it is to their own interest to obtain a valid score. This helps to motivate the subjects to complete the questionnaires with commitment. The sessions took about 60 minutes each.

3.5 ISSUES IN TRANSLATION OF INSTRUMENTS:

The instruments used in this study were validated for subjects from a different background from the subjects of this study. Translation was done with the aim of maximizing construct validity of the instruments. Use of one's own first language has the potential for reducing or eliminating misunderstanding of the items and reducing anxiety brought about by use of a second language in both reading and answering the questions.

Translation of instruments was also a way of achieving cultural fairness with the instruments which are, otherwise, standardized on Western population groups. Developing "culture fair" instruments has been found to be difficult because of the definition of culture as a concept (Watson, 1984). It would seem that the definition of one's culture is a subjective matter and closely related to one's self-identity. With the definition of culture being as controversial as it is, the researcher thought that breaking the language barrier used in the instruments by translating to the subjects' mother tongue, would improve the

validity of the instruments and render them as "fair" as possible. In the translation of these instruments the following were taken into consideration:

3.5.1 CONCEPTUAL EQUIVALENCE:

To attain conceptual equivalence the items are translated such that there is an equivalence in meaning between the concepts in the source language and the concepts in the target language. The instruments used are in the English language and refer to American concepts. Therefore, to improve validity the items were translated from an American culture or context to a South African culture or context. For instance, item 2 of the CDS refers to a "major" whereas in South African high schools there is no reference to a major, instead there are groupings to Science (with Mathematics, Physical Science, Biology and Geography as component subjects), Commercial (with Economics and Accounting as component subjects) and General (with History, Biblical Studies etc. as component subjects). Therefore to achieve conceptual equivalence "major" was translated to a concept understandable to the respondents.

3.5.2 EXPERIENTIAL EQUIVALENCE:

This type of translation involves transferring Western experiences into African experiences or way of life by taking the "cultural distance" between the two into consideration (Retief, 1988, p. 36). Subjects of this study are from a township environment which is at a stage of transition from a traditional African way of life to a Western way of life. Their experiences are thus a mixture of the two worlds. Therefore by translating the items into a language which fits in their world minimizes the cultural distance between the subjects on whom the instrument was standardized and the subjects of the present study. Therefore the validity of the instrument is improved and the results of the two studies become more comparable.

3.5.3 VOCABULARY EQUIVALENCE:

Vocabulary equivalence (Retief, 1988) or linguistic equivalence (Triandis, 1994) is attained by translating from one language to another without changing, or keeping as close as possible, the context, the idea, and the concepts of the original text (Triandis, 1994). Word translation involves more than the use of the dictionary (Retief, 1988), "because it is extremely difficult to establish exact equivalence in meaning for single words" (Triandis, 1994, p. 82). In translating from one language to another in this study, it was found that some dictionary words were difficult to understand or there were no equivalents in the dictionary. In such cases it became necessary to use short descriptions in the target language (Zulu) which convey the idea in the source language (English). This at times presented a problem in keeping the items short.

3.5.4 METHOD OF TRANSLATION:

In this study the committee approach was used for translation. In this approach "a group of bilinguals translate from the source to the target language" (Retief, 1988, p. 39). The questionnaires in this study were translated individually by three Zulu speaking members with English as a second language. Two members of this committee then sat together and compared the translations. After comparison and discussion consensus was reached on each item. The questionnaires were administered in the presence of the researcher. Subjects were allowed to ask questions and in other instances reference was made to the English version for further clarification.

3.6 DESIGN AND ANALYSIS:

This study is a correlational study aimed at determining a correlation between a predictor variable (type of family relationship) and a criterion variable (career indecision) rather than a causal relationship. The independent variables are: type

of family relationship (with family cohesion and family adaptability as dimensions) which is the primary independent variable, gender, career information, against a dependent variable (career indecision). Using the cut-off points for the levels of cohesion and the levels of adaptability a relationship was determined between family cohesion and family adaptability as predictor variables, and career indecision and career identity as the dependent variables. It was hypothesized that a curvilinear regression line would be obtained.

Further, multiple regression was computed to determine the proportion of variance of the dependent variable (career indecision) accounted for by each independent variable. Furthermore, MANOVAs were computed to determine if there were any significant gender and school effects.

3.7 LIMITATIONS:

- 3.7.1 The sample was drawn from two high schools from a township in the neighbourhood of Durban. Results which will be obtained may be difficult to generalise to the broader population especially those from rural areas and without any form of career guidance.
- 3.7.2 Up to about 99,6% of the subjects are Zulu speakers. The question of the Zulu culture and the family system of this group of the African\South African population may not be generalizable to other cultures. However, there are more common factors than factors of difference between various African cultural groups.
- 3.7.3 Translation of the instruments may interfere with their validity. A pilot study before administration might have helped in giving an estimation of the accuracy of the items. However, the translated versions of the MVS and the CDS have

been used in a South African study with African pupils by Mngadi (1995). The difficulties that were demonstrated in the Mngadi (1995) study served as a reference point for improvement on the clarity of items in the present study.

- 3.7.4 While there are advantages to group testing, there is a drawback in that the researcher is not able to establish rapport with each testee and thus be able to detect difficulties that she\he may be experiencing with the questionnaire. Shy participants may feel inhibited to ask any questions (Anastasi, 1982). The researcher observed this difference between school 1 and school 2 in which the latter was a much bigger group. In this latter group subjects were less active in asking questions and there were more spoiled questionnaires collected from them.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study was aimed at investigating the relationship between career decidedness as a dependent variable, and family cohesion and family adaptability as defined by Olson's Circumplex Model as primary independent variables. The dependent variable was also tested against other secondary independent variables which are; gender and exposure to career guidance.

This chapter reports findings from the analysis of data.

4.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER INDECISION AND OTHER CORRELATES

Table 4 : Mean scores and standard deviations for total samples

Variable	Sample Size	Mean Scores	Standard Deviations
Undecided	109	31.59	10.19
Decided	130	6.70	1.61
Cohesion	109	40.22	7.43
Adaptability	120	26.95	6.47
Career Identity	120	10.03	3.88
Career info	129	0.88	1.11
Barriers	128	2.40	0.93

This table shows mean scores and standard deviations of the total sample for each variable. Note: Only complete and unspoiled responses for each variable were considered as part of the sample.

Table 5 Coefficients of correlations between test measures

	IS	CS	COH	ADP	CI	OI	B
IS	1.00	-.52**	-.11	.22	-.66**	-.31**	.40**
CS		1.00	.06	-.12	.57**	.16	.27**
COH			1.00	.20	.06	-.06	.19
ADP				1.00	-.07	.04	.02
CI					1.00	.29*	.40**
OI						1.00	.27*
B							1.00

*p < .01 ; **p < .001

IS : Career Indecision;

CS : Career Certainty

COH : Family Cohesion;

ADP : Family Adaptability

CI : Career Identity;

OI : Career Information

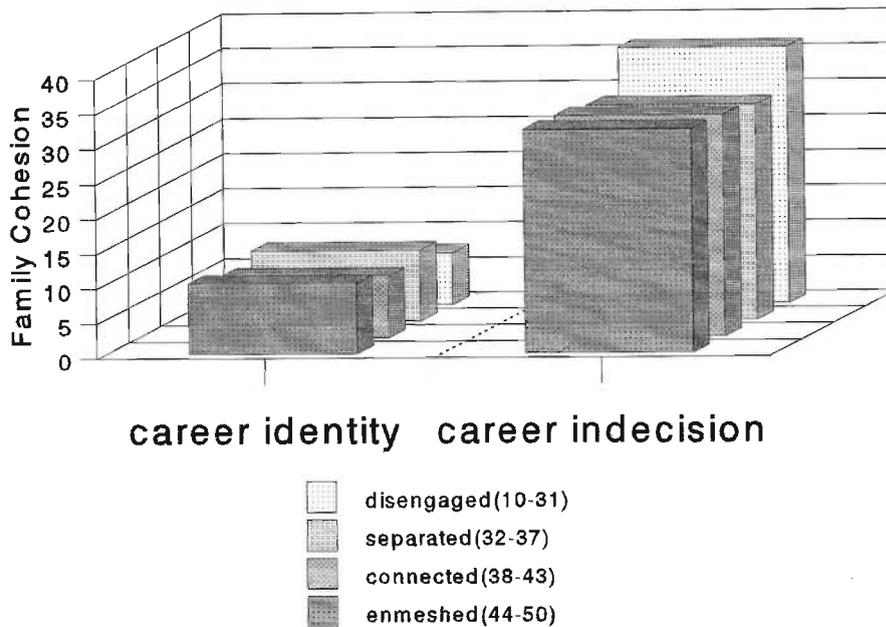
B : Barriers to Career Choice

4.1.1 CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY COHESION

Table 6: Mean scores for career identity as measured by the My Vocational Situation and career indecision as measured by the Career Decision Scale by level of family cohesion as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale III

Level of cohesion	Career Identity	Career indecision
Disengaged(10-31)	7.84	36.4
Separated (32-37)	10.16667	30.58333
Connected (38-43)	8.807692	31.5
Enmeshed (44-50)	10.15556	31.88889

Figure 3: Family cohesion, career identity, and career indecision
 Family cohesion scores obtained by subjects of this study were categorized according to the four levels of family cohesion and



the appropriate cut-off points (see paragraph 3.3.3. for cut-off points). Table 6 shows the mean scores for career identity and career indecision for each cohesion level.

Multiple correlational computations (Table 5) gave a result that there is no significant correlation between family cohesion and career indecision. A correlational coefficient of $r = .06$ was obtained between family cohesion and career decidedness and a correlation coefficient of $r = -.11$ was found between family cohesion and career decidedness (Table 5). From these findings

it can be concluded that there is no relationship between career indecision among African matriculants and family cohesion. This is shown in figure 3 in which means for various cohesion levels are plotted against career indecision. The figure shows neither a curvilinear nor a linear relationship as suggested in the theory. A tendency for elevated indecision scores for the disengaged category is indicated in the plot. While this is statistically insignificant, more bonding seems to favour functionality.

A mean score of 40.2 and a standard deviation of 7.4 on family cohesion has been obtained for a sample of n=109 (Table 4), compared with an overall mean of 25.0 in a study by Farrell and Barnes (1993). One explanation may be that families to which these adolescents belong are more bonded than those in Farrel and Barnes' study or it may be the subjects' perceptions of relationships in their families.

4.1.2 CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY ADAPTABILITY

Table 7: Mean scores on career identity as measured by the My Vocational Situation and career indecision as measured by the Career Decision Scale by level of family adaptability as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale III

Level of adaptability	Career identity	Career indecision
Rigid (10-19)	10.5	29.78571
Structured (20-24)	9.821429	30.35714
Flexible (25-29)	9.068182	32.40909
Chaotic (30-50)	8.970588	35.44118

Figure 4: Family adaptability, career identity, and career indecision

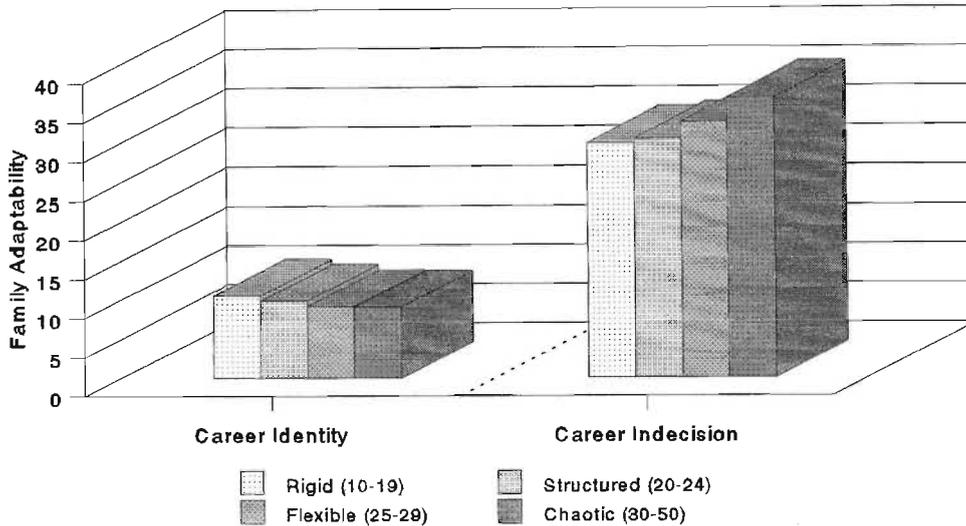


Table 7 shows the means of career identity and career indecision on the four levels of family adaptability (cut-off points on scores were used for computations). Multiple correlational computations show that there is no significant correlation between career indecision and family adaptability in this sample. However, figure 4 demonstrates a tendency for higher indecision scores for those in the chaotic category. That is, there is a tendency for structure to favour functionality more than flexibility and chaos does. A correlation coefficient of $r = -.12$ has been found to exist between career decidedness and family adaptability. A correlation coefficient of $r = .22$ has been found to exist between career indecision and family adaptability (Table 5). From these results it can be concluded that there is no significant relationship between career indecision of African matriculants and family adaptability. Luque (1993) using the FACES II as an instrument and stepwise

multiple regression as a method of analysis, failed to find any relationship between adaptability and cohesion and gender, marital status, number of children in the household, gender of parents, to mention some, as predictor variables.

In this study a mean score of 10.03 and a standard deviation of 6.5 was obtained for a sample of $n=120$ (Table 4) compared with an overall mean of 25.0 in a study by Farrell and Barnes (1993). This may also be an indication of lower levels of adaptability in the families of this youth than there is in the families in Farrel and Barnes' study. Also, it may be the perception of the constructs by subjects from different backgrounds.

4.1.3 CAREER INDECISION AND CAREER IDENTITY

Table 5 shows that a negative correlation coefficient was found between career identity as measured by the MVS and career undecidedness ($r=-.66$). A positive correlation coefficient was found between career identity and career decidedness ($r=.57$). Therefore as career identity increases career undecidedness decreases; and as career identity increases, career decidedness increases. Combining these two findings gave a result that African matriculants with clearer career identity are more career decided than those with less clear career identities.

The career identity mean score (10.0) and the standard deviation of 3.9 (Table 4), are lower than those obtained by Holland, Daiger and Power (1980) which are 11.2 and a standard deviation of 5.4 respectively for female and male high scholars combined. That is, occupational identity scores for this sample lie between 6.1 and 13.9 in a scale of 0 to 18 while those of the American sample quoted above lie between 5.8 and 16.6. The results have also shown that there is no significant correlation between career identity and family functioning (Table 5). The results

failed to demonstrate any evidence linking family functioning (as defined by the Circumplex Model) to career identity and career indecision.

4.1.4 GENDER EFFECTS

To test gender effects, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with career certainty (CS), career indecision (CS), career indecision (IS), career identity (CI), career information (OI), and Barriers (B) to career choice as dependent variables. An omnibus test of the null hypothesis yielded an F value of 2.4 (df 5,93). These results are significant ($p = 0.042$) indicating that male and female students differ with respect to at least one of the above variables.

Follow up tests using univariate analysis of variance indicate that male and female students differed with respect to (a) career information [$F(1,97)=5.14$, $p=0.026$,] and, (b) barriers to career choice [$F(1,97)=5.23$, $p=0.024$]. According to these results girls receive less career information than the boys. Girls also experience more barriers to making career choices than boys do.

4.1.5 SCHOOL EFFECTS

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine whether the two schools differed significantly in any of the measures of career status (that is, career certainty and career indecision as measured by the Career Decision Scale); career identity (CI), career information (OI), and Barriers to career choice (B), all as measured by the My Vocational Situation. An omnibus test of the null hypothesis yielded an F value of 6.04 (df=5,93, $p= 0.000$), indicating a significant

difference. Follow up tests with univariate ANOVA indicated that the schools differed significantly in the following variables: career indecision [$F(1,97)=28, p=0.000$]; career certainty [$F(1,97)=4.7, p=0.003$]; career identity [$F(1,97)=14.6, p=0.000$]. Career information was also found to be significant though to a lesser extent [$F(1,97)=1.13, p=0.08$]. These findings indicate that exposure to career information has a significant effect to career identity and career certainty.

4.1.6 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER INDECISION AND FAMILY COHESION\ADAPTABILITY

Because initial data analysis failed to yield the predicted curvilinear relationship between career indecision and family adaptability and cohesion, it was decided to analyse the data using multiple regression. School and gender were included in the equation, given the fact that they yielded significant results with some of the dependent variables. Overall results yielded an F value of 8.07 ($df=4,80, p=0.000$). This indicated that at least one of the variables in the equation predicts career undecidedness. Table 10 gives a breakdown of the results.

Career indecision has been tested against career information as measured by the MVS. A significant negative correlation coefficient has been found between career information and career undecidedness ($r=-.31$). A positive correlation coefficient between career information and career decidedness, however ($r=.16$), has been found to be non-significant (Table 5). These findings suggest that subjects who had not been exposed to career information tend to be * undecided about what careers they want to follow. Table 9 shows that the means between the two schools for career indecision are different. This was found to be a statistically significant difference (See MANOVA in table 10). There is therefore a significant difference between the career information received by

pupils in school 1 and pupils in school 2.

Table 8: Mean scores and standard deviations for various variables by gender

Var	Females		Males		Overall	
	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd
IS	31.37	8.9	31.59	11.67	31.59	10.19
CS	6.7	1.5	6.65	1.86	6.7	1.6
B	2.23	.91	2.65	.93	2.39	.93
CI	9.9	3.7	10.25	4.24	10.03	3.88
OI	.69	.92	1.19	1.13	1.19	1.31
COH	40.37	7.54	40.05	7.44	40.22	7.44
ADP	26.87	6.43	27.19	6.57	26.96	6.47

IS: career indecision; CS: career certainty; CI: career identity OI: occupational information; B: barriers to career choice; COH: family cohesion; ADP: family adaptability

Table 9: Mean scores and standard deviations for various variables by school

Variables	<u>School 1</u>		<u>School 2</u>	
	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd
IS	25.44	7.2	35.16	9.98
CS	7.08	1.4	6.46	1.7
CI	11.8	3.38	9.04	3.84
OI	1.1	1.3	.72	.93
B	2.48	.89	2.35	.97
COH	42.25	7.4	38.86	7.27
ADP	25.73	5.7	27.76	6.19

IS: career indecision; CS: career certainty; CI: career identity; OI: occupational information; B: barriers to career choice; COH: family cohesion; ADP: family adaptability

Item 19 of the MVS gives four possibilities on which respondents may need information which are how to find a job; what kinds of people enter different jobs; information on employment opportunities; how to get necessary training for the chosen career; and any other information that they may need to make the decision.

The overall mean on occupational information is much lower (.87) with a standard deviation of 1.1 (Table 5), than that obtained by Holland, Daiger and Power (1980) which is 3.6 with a standard deviation of 1.1. Occupational information scores for this sample are clustered between 0 and 2 in a scale of 0 to 4. It means South African matriculants in this sample need much more occupational information or more precisely, are exposed to much less occupational information than American high school pupils.

Table 10: Prediction of career indecision scores (IS) by stepwise multiple regression selection using school, gender, family cohesion and family adaptability as predictors*

Variables	Beta(SE)	R-Square (adjusted)	R-square (change)	p
school	.447 (1.9)	.19	-	0.00
sex	-.210 (1.8)	.233	0.04	0.03
adapt	.201 (.15)	.252	0.02	0.046
coh	-.07 (.12)			
TOTAL		.252		

*The entries in the table are the regression coefficients and their standard errors for the complete model. Increments to the multiple correlation coefficient at each step in the variable selection are given. The p value refers to each variable in the complete model.

Table 10 indicates that school (exposure to career information) is the best predictor of career indecision ($\beta = .447$, $p = 0.00$), followed by gender ($\beta = -.210$, $p = 0.03$) and adaptability ($\beta = .201$, $p = 0.0046$). Gender and adaptability are, however, very weak predictors.

In a separate analysis, school has again emerged as the best predictor of career identity (CI) as measured by the My Vocational Situation ($\beta = -.32$, $p = 0.0029$). In this analysis, gender, cohesion, and adaptability were all insignificant predictors. None of the four independent variables predicted career certainty as measured by the certainty subscale (CS) of the Career Decision Scale. This is perhaps due to the very small number of items comprising this scale.

4.1.7 CAREER INDECISION AND CAREER CHOICE

Career indecision was correlated to Barriers to taking career-related decisions as measured by the MVS. A high score in the Barriers Scale (which means less barriers to taking career-related decisions) was found to be significantly negatively correlated to career undecidedness ($r = -.40$), and a low score in the Barriers Scale (which means more barriers to taking career-related decisions) was found to be significantly positively correlated to career undecidedness ($r = .27$). Therefore from this it was found that subjects of this study who experienced less barriers to taking career-related decisions were more career decided than those who experienced more barriers. This is common for both schools 1 and 2. It was found that girls experience more barriers and are less career decided than boys. The mean score for this sample in barriers is 2.3 with a standard deviation of 0.9 compared to a mean of 1.9 with a standard deviation of 1.2 in the American sample by Holland, Daiger and

Power (1980). Therefore South African matriculants in this study perceive less barriers to making career-related decisions (with scores clustered between 1 and 3 in a scale of 1 to 4) than do high school pupils in Holland, Daiger and Power's (1980) sample. However, all pupils do experience some form of barrier and none experiences no barrier at all (therefore none has a score of 4). Lack of finances as a barrier was emphasised by the pupils in this study by mentioning it in the open item listed as "other" in the questionnaire.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 FAMILY COHESION AND CAREER INDECISION

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between family cohesion and career undecidedness, such that extreme levels on this dimension (enmeshment and disengagement) are significantly associated with career undecidedness in subjects of this study.

Results of this study show that there is no significant relationship between family cohesion and career indecision. This finding is in contrast with results in a study by Hesser (1984). Hesser, using the Career Development Inventory and the FACES as instruments, found a significant linear relationship between specific career development process variables (intuitive style, career planning, decision-making information, and world-of-work knowledge) and family cohesion. Also, Johnston (1995) found a difference between adolescents from enmeshed and disengaged families, with those from disengaged families more agentic than those from enmeshed families. Johnston's results show some direction that adolescents need some space and independence in order to acquire a sense of agency. On the contrary, the indications in this study are that adolescents who are in families with more bonding tend to have higher scores for decidedness and lower scores for undecidedness. The explanation for findings in this presented study could be attributed to either:

(a) the controversial nature of the instrument used to measure the construct of family cohesion (FACES III): It has been debated whether this instrument is a curvilinear measure or a linear

measure (Cluff, Hicks and Madsen, 1994). Olson (1994) defended both the Circumplex model and the FACES III as an instrument for measuring family functioning. He expressed no doubts about the model's curvilinearity and to support his proposals he applied the Clinical Rating Scale (CRS), which indeed, yielded curvilinear results with reliability coefficients .91 and .86 for cohesion and adaptability respectively (Olson, 1994). He contended that family cohesion is curvilinear on this model (circumplex model) and linear in the three-dimensional model (Olson, 1991). He also explained the differences in tests for curvilinearity and linearity of the model in terms of first-order change (which is change within the family e.g. change in the parental unit) and second order change (which is change of the family from one type e.g. rigid to another type, e.g. connected). He, however, acknowledged his reservations by stating that the conflicting results about the model and the instrument may be more because of the flaws in the instrument than in the model (Olson, 1994). To deal with these flaws he has proposed to develop an updated version of the instrument, FACES IV, which he hopes will capture curvilinearity (Olson, 1994); or

(b) the question of cross-cultural applicability of the Circumplex model:

The assumptions of this model of family relationships are based on non-South African populations. The instrument which is used to test the hypotheses of the model were also standardized on these populations. This model has been applied to South African study in the past (Lindegger, 1988; Lindegger, 1992). The sample used was from a population of chronically ill patients. Differences in findings can be expected because of differences in the culture of subjects of the quoted study and the present study, and also differences in the era of South African social and political developments. These factors are important

considerations in the interpretation of these results. The question of whether Olson's model finds support cross-culturally was raised by Dundas (1994) when he tested the FACES III in a Nowergian sample. The mean on cohesion for the sample of this study is higher (40.2) (Table 4) when compared with that of a Nowergian sample of young adults (36.6) and a United States sample of adolescents (37.1) (Dundas, 1994). While there are more views that family enmeshment is limiting (Frucht, 1995; Johnston, 1995), Dundas explained the experience of one's family as enmeshed, for instance, as subjective and relative. "Those members who do not experience enmeshment as limiting, will rate their families as close and well-functioning" (p. 200). Higher means for the sample of this study on the dimension of cohesion may be as a result of the way in which African adolescents experience the closeness in their families -as functional than as dysfunctional, possibly because of the community orientation of the African student and the collectivistic nature of the traditional African community (Stead, 1996). Collectivism is related with, among other things, interdependency (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi and Choi and Yoory, 1994). It seems that in spite of the circumstances that have interfered with the stability of these families, they families have been able "to maintain the traditional ideal of the cohesive family" (Moller, 1993, p. 27). Hypothesis one of this study, therefore, was not accepted.

5.2 FAMILY ADAPTABILITY AND CAREER INDECISION

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between career undecidedness and family adaptability such that extreme levels of adaptability (rigid and chaotic) will be significantly associated with career undecidedness.

From the results of this study a weak correlation was found between family adaptability and career undecidedness. These results partially confirm what Hesser (1984) found among American high school adolescents. Hesser found a significant linear association between specific career development variables (mentioned in the previous section) and family adaptability.

This may be a pointer to differences between South African adolescents and adolescents from other parts of the world. Another explanation for this finding, as was suggested in paragraph 4.1.3, the Circumplex model and the instrument designed to test the theory on which it is based, may not be applicable to this population. This calls for further research of its applicability.

The mean for adaptability for this sample (26.9 in Table 4) has been found to be slightly lower than that for Norwegian samples (27.4) and higher than those for American samples (24.3) (Dundas, 1994). Recent literature suggests that political changes (Campbell, 1992); and urbanisation (Moller, 1993) in the country impact on the functioning of families, especially Black families to whom a new way of viewing the world is introduced. These have an effect on the functioning of the youth. However, the results obtained from this study indicate that these changes have not had a bearing on the adolescent's ability to take career-related decisions (assuming that the models definition of family functioning applies to this population group). Several explanations can be advanced for this finding:

(a) This may be as a result that African adolescents in South Africa, do not, anyway, seek opinions of their parents in deciding about their future careers. Their parents may have a lower standard of education, and therefore not much informed

because "most Black parents have difficulty moving beyond the status of unskilled and semi-skilled worker, largely because of the apartheid-placed restrictions on their educational development" (Stead, 1996, p. 271). Therefore, while the change may have effects such as loss of respect as a result of a decline in traditional customs, the world views which bind the "black" society are regarded as still evident and suggesting a character of resilience in these families (Moller, 1993); or

(b) It may be as a result of change that families undergo. Families may undergo a second-order change which is linear rather curvilinear. Second-order change is change undergone by systems in order to adjust to new changes. The change may be from extreme to mid-range or to balanced. This may result in better communication between parents and their adolescent children. The result of a negligible relationship between family functioning and career undecidedness may be as a result of, on one extreme, a good adjustment to the changes, or on the other extreme, the inapplicability of the model to the population from which the sample was drawn. Parents may apply the family rules in a completely uncharacteristic manner, be able to let their children take their own decisions, including career-related decisions. Like Black youth of America as described by Davidson (1980), these adolescents may use their self-definition, self-determination and group solidarity to deal with their new conditions. In that case, changes in the families may occur without having an impact on career decidedness of adolescents. However, figure 5 shows a tendency for higher levels of decidedness where there is structure than where there is chaos. This tendency may be as a result of the instability that comes with the breakdown of structure and balance. Adolescents in those circumstances lack direction. Therefore the change may result in the shift of role of an intuitive educational and

vocational guidance by the family in traditional society to formal institutions such as the school and the government (McFadden and Djassoa, 1985). Hypothesis 2 was, therefore, partially confirmed.

5.3 CAREER IDENTITY AND CAREER INDECISION

Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between career decidedness of African matriculants and career identity as measured by the My Vocational Situation (MVS) such that low levels of career identity will be significantly associated with low levels of career decidedness as measured by the Career Decision Scale (CDS).

Findings of this study are that there is a significant negative correlation between career indecision and poor career identity and there is a significant positive correlation between career decidedness and high career identity. Therefore poor career identity is associated with career indecision. According to these findings career identity is a more significant determinant of career decidedness than career information is. This confirmed findings by a number of researchers that identity is the single best predictor of career indecision (Mabena, 1994; Taylor, 1986). It can thus be concluded that it is not enough to give pupils career information in order for them to be able to make career decisions, but it is even more important to help them understand their goals, interests, personality and talents. The significance of a broad-based knowledge of occupational information was seen by Smith (1983) as including knowledge of self, knowledge of occupations and their outlooks and the knowledge about education and training needed. This is an integration of occupational, personal, and educational information. The emphasis is on "integration" because it appears

that information without interpretation of how it fits with the individual person's personality and circumstances is not adequate. Smith (1983) also challenged Super's view of career development as an expression of one's self-concept as inapplicable to disadvantaged groups as these groups may "have to separate their personal self-concept from their career self-concept." (p. 189). A high measure of self-esteem (which is an evaluative aspect of the self-concept) was found by Howcroft (1990) in the study of "black" university students. In previous studies it has been found that individuals with high self-esteem choose satisfying career goals more frequently and commit themselves to their choice more frequently than do individuals with low self-esteem (Toerien, 1984). Several explanations have been advanced for these findings. Howcroft (1990) explained it as an overvaluation of their own (blacks) worth and a strong need for approval, and as an indication of possessing "well-developed psychological resources to cope with the dominative behaviour of the white minority group" (p. 33). In a study by Grove (cited in Toerien, 1984) it was found that some individuals compensated for negative self-concepts in choice of career, while others limited their choice because of low self-concepts. These arguments advance a challenge for investigation of the relationship between self-concept and making career-related decisions.

The overall mean on career identity for this sample (10.0 in Table 4) compared favourably with Holland, Daiger and Power's (1980) sample for which they obtained 11.2 for male high school pupils and 11.3 for high school female pupils. Nevertheless in general, African adolescents have been found to obtain lower scores on career maturity (Dunn and Veltman, 1989; van der Merwe, 1993) when compared to other groups. Dunn and Veltman saw this as a "flawed" approach which is conducted with "a psychology of race differences" (p. 157). Such an approach lends the

researcher to learn little about the subjects of his\her study except that its members are different in certain respects from the other groups. Smith (1983) challenged the assumption on which career maturity is based and proposed that career life-stage development of a disadvantaged person, by race or gender, may add additional tasks to his\her career development. With South African adolescents one task that they have been found to be lagging behind in, is knowledge about self (van der Merwe, 1993). With these findings, it would be logical to expect lower career identity scores as well. An explanation that can be given for well-developed career identity is exposure to career guidance and high self-esteem as has been reported. In his sample Cloete (1980) had found "Black" adolescents to be career decisive (only 2.6% of the total sample and 42.09% of standard 10's was uncertain about their future choices). He gave an explanation for this finding that "Black" youth are not "bewildered by a variety of jobs" (p. 182). However, the situation may have changed since that time. While the amount of career knowledge that African students receive, especially in township schools, may still not be comparable to youth in historically white schools, but their exposure, mainly through media and other community resources, has improved compared to matriculants of the earlier years. Hypothesis 3 was, therefore, confirmed.

5.4 EXPOSURE TO CAREER INFORMATION AND CAREER INDECISION

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference between career decidedness of matriculants in school 1 and school 2 such that matriculants in school 1 will be more career decided than matriculants in school 2.

The difference between school 1 and school 2 is that pupils in

school 1 received more individualized and structured career guidance. This allowed an opportunity to pupils in school 1 to have more career information. Career information was measured by the Occupation Information subscale of the My Vocational Situation.

The finding in this study was that matriculants who lacked occupational information experienced difficulty in making career-related decisions. Watson (1984) found that South African Coloureds had higher mean scores on the knowledge of preparation requirements needed for a variety of careers than their "Black" peers. In this study it has been found that even those who do possess occupational information are not necessarily decided about their future careers. This means that while occupational information is an important aspect of career development (Smith, 1983), youth need more than just information to make the decision. Therefore information that pupils gain through various sources, the Guidance teacher being one source and their social network (family, friends etc.) being another, needs to be integrated for them for maximum benefit in making career-related decisions. Knowledge about themselves in relation to the world of work seems to be one such need. This would help them to develop towards career identity which, as has been established in this study, is highly correlated with career decidedness. It seems logical to look elsewhere as well for correlates of career indecision other than lack of information. It was established that matriculants who were subjects of this study experienced a barrier of one type or another to making career-related decisions. The more barriers there were, the less decided and the less barriers there were the more decided they would be. It can be concluded by inference that lack of appropriate information about careers is one such barrier. Lack of finances

was given as another major barrier to making such decisions.

The relationship between career information and barriers to making career-related decisions and family cohesion and family adaptability was found to be insignificant (Table 5). That is, these pupils do not depend on their family members for making such decisions, except for the reasons of financial and other support. This is in agreement with Smith's (1983) suggestion that American Black youth make use of more formal sources of occupational information than they do of the informal sources because "these were insufficient for them" (p. 196). In the South African situation, while youth traditionally take lead from their parents, this might be a situation which has changed and has the youth taking the lead and the parents following. It must also be borne in mind that parents of today's 16-19 year olds is the youth of the late 1970's when South African youth reclaimed their "liberation". It can be expected that these parents prefer to give the liberation to their offspring than have them fight for it and thus experiencing instability.

Hypothesis 4 was therefore accepted.

5.5 GENDER DIFFERENCES AND CAREER INDECISION

Hypothesis 5: There is a difference between career decidedness of male pupils of school 1 and school 2 combined and female pupils of school 1 and school 2 combined such that male pupils will be more career decided than female pupils.

Though studies using the CDS as an assessment tool to measure career decidedness give inconsistent results with regard to males and females, there is some evidence of differences between career development of boys and girls. In a study by Gottfredson (in Smith, 1983) it was found that girls were less career decided

than boys. These findings are supported in Cloete (1980) who found that South African Black male students have higher occupational expectations and aspirations than their female peers. On the contrary, Watson (1984) found that Coloured female pupils were attitudinally career mature than their male peers, while male pupils were more cognitively career mature than their female peers.

The findings in this study are that girls are less career decided than boys. This finding confirms previous findings. Holland and Holland (1977) found the averages for boys (11.80, $p < .01$) and girls (11.74, $p < .01$) on the Identity Scale. They found identity to be the significant determinant of "choosers" and "non-choosers" (p. 410). This was also confirmed in this study with the mean score on career identity for boys being 10.25 compared to that for girls being 9.9 (see table 8). Family dynamics may account for some of these differences.

King (1989) studied various factors which are causal in the career maturity of Caucasian students. In King's study it was found that while family cohesion was a significant factor for career maturity of both girls (.678, $p < .001$) and boys (.438, $p < .05$), for boys age (6.562, $p < .001$) was an important determinant for career maturity, while among girls important determinants were a sense of cohesion with the family and an internal locus of control (1.814, $p < .001$). In this study it was found that girls score higher on cohesion than boys while boys score higher on adaptability than girls (table 8). Furthermore, it was found that adaptability has an effect (though weak) on career indecision (see table 10). This can be explained in terms of socialization patterns in the typical African family. In these families boys are given more freedom than girls to do

weekend and vacation jobs, to visit friends and relatives etc. than girls are. With this freedom boys obtain more exposure from other sources outside the school. Socialization as a factor in these findings was also suggested by Mabena (1994). Mabena suggested that females tend to be more undecided because they have to also choose between family life and following a career while males from an early age are socialized to be breadwinners. While these perceptions are changing with the empowerment of women, some of the sex-role and career stereotypes may still affect career decidedness of women and girls. Hypothesis 5 is therefore accepted.

5.6 CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF AFRICAN ADOLESCENTS

Career aspirations of Black adolescents have been investigated by a number of researchers (Cloete, 1980; Cloete, 1981; Smith, 1983; Watson, Foxcroft and Horn, 1995). In general, findings of these studies are that career aspirations of this group are incongruent with their achievements and with realities of the country. Results of this study partially confirm these findings. It has been observed in the results of this study that more pupils aspired for high status occupations (doctor, lawyer, engineer, accountant, pharmacist), a lesser number aspired for middle status jobs (nurse, social worker, physiotherapist, manager, radiographer), and an even lesser number aspire for technical and semi-skilled jobs. There is concern that these aspirations often are not congruent with the demands of the labour market (Cloete, 1980), performance and achievement (Howcroft, 1990) and are seen as a way of overcompensation for feelings of inadequacy (Smith, 1983). They can also be seen to be incongruent with the demands of the labour and economic situation of the country in which more technical skills are in demand.

Findings by Cloete (1980) on career choices - social service (69.4%), Business Organisation (14.9%), Science (7.1%), Technical (7.9%), and Outdoor (0.6%)- were confirmed in a recent South African study (Watson, Foxcroft and Horn, 1995) that "Black" adolescents aspire mostly for careers that fit the social (38%) and the investigative (34%) of Holland's typologies against 12%, 8%, 7%, and 2% for realistic, conventional, artistic and enterprising respectively. There was also evidence for preference for mostly high status occupations (75%) compared to 18% for middle status occupations and 7% for skilled occupations (Watson et al, 1995) compared with Cloete's (1980)- 45,6% professional, 36.3 semi-professional, 6.4% skilled, 9.0% semi-skilled and 2.6% unskilled. However, in this study it was noticed that the aspirations are widening towards other typologies. This was more with school 1 than with school 2. Subjects from school 1 also seemed to be more aware of different occupations within the same career field (for example, chemical, mechanical and civil engineering within the field of engineering; and analytical chemistry and pharmacy within the field of chemistry). In school 2 preference for occupations fitting Holland's social typology was observed.

It was also noted that with school 2 choices were mostly limited to popular occupations like nurse, teacher, doctor, lawyer, social worker. Mostly these occupations are what is common in African township communities. This observation was also made by Cloete (1980) and posed the question whether teaching was not a popular choice because it was a "visible" profession in this community (p. 140). This observation raises the question of role modelling, that without guidance and introduction to the knowledge of occupations available to them, the pupils' choices are limited to what they have seen the elders in their neighbourhood do. From this observation it can be concluded that

the greater percentage on the choice for the Social occupations was more as a result of lack of knowledge about careers than as a result of the collective or people-orientation nature of the African group. This is also confirmed by the differences between school 1 and school 2. Cloete's observation that aspirations of South African Black youth matches more those of youth in other African countries than they do those of South African white youth is worth noting. Factors such as exposure to career information and the role of primary social systems such as the family seem to play an important role.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

This study was designed to determine the relationship between family functioning and career indecision. It is explained in the text that career indecision can be explained in terms of "indecisiveness" which is more a trait factor and career "undecidedness" which is more a state factor. Family functioning is defined in terms of the Olson Circumplex model as discussed in the text. According to this model families function in two dimensions (adaptability and cohesion). For families to be functional they have to maintain balance within the four levels of these two dimensions. Extremity in either of them results in dysfunctionality. Therefore families who fall in the extreme cohesion categories (disengaged or enmeshed) are regarded as dysfunctional. Also, families who fall to the extremes of the adaptability dimension (chaotic or rigid) would also be dysfunctional. The theoretical base of the Circumplex model suggests that the relationship between family functionality and dysfunctionality is curvilinear.

According to the model applied in this study and summarized above, it was expected that either a curvilinear or a linear relationship would be found between the family functioning from which the subjects of this study come and career undecidedness. However, findings of this study are that there is no relationship between family functioning and career decidedness.

From these findings these conclusions can be drawn:

- (a) There is controversy surrounding the theory of the Circumplex model as has been discussed in the text. There is division between researchers some maintaining it is curvilinear and others arguing that it is linear. Olson, the founder of the model has defended its curvilinearity. He purported that if there are any flaws to be found, it would be with the instrument designed to measure the curvilinearity, but not with the model itself. In this study a translated version of the instrument (FACES III) was used. The internal consistency which was computed for this translated version gives the researcher a degree of confidence on the use of the instrument.
- (b) A second conclusion that can be drawn is that the model may not be applicable to the population from which the sample was drawn. The assumption of the model that families at the extreme of the adaptability dimension (chaotic), as an example, may not be applicable to this population in the sense in which it was conceived in the model. For these families, moving from location to location, for instance is common place because of the migrant labour and the Group Areas Act that has affected most African families. Therefore for them adapting to new situations and adopting new rules has become a way of surviving. Therefore, what may be seen as a "chaotic" way of family functioning for the populations in which the model was based, may be a "flexible" way and therefore balanced way of family functioning for this population. Therefore, the application of the Olson Circumplex model and the use of its theoretical base needs to be seen in context.
- (c) Family functioning may have no relationship to career decidedness. This conclusion is contrary to most findings

in the research that has been done with African adolescents. It is the present researcher's opinion based on experience and observation that while parents may not be the first and the last stop for adolescents in the process of making career-related decisions, but parents are definitely an important factor. It is a point worth noting that most of the parents to the subjects of this study would have suffered the same deprivation of career guidance (or worse) as their children. Therefore children may not see them as much of a career information resource. They may be more financial and emotional support resources. Given the fact that in an average African family communication between parent and adolescent hardly goes beyond the everyday events, what would be seen in Olson's model as disengaged, would be "normal" for these families. The result of the combination of these factors would be that career decidedness of the adolescent is little affected by the functionality or the dysfunctionality of the family as defined by the model.

- (d) A high correlation between career decidedness and career identity has been found in this study. This supports findings in several other studies (cited in Mabena, 1994). It can therefore be concluded that in order for pupils to be able to make career related decisions, they need to have information about themselves in relation to careers. An important point is that it is not just information about careers that they need, but self-knowledge as well and how they fit into the world of work. What has been happening so far in most previously all-African schools is that minimal career information (if at all) has been given to pupils. The finding in this study calls for more ~~for~~ career counselling over and above career information.

- (e) A high correlation between career information as measured by the Career Information subscale of the MVS and career undecidedness indicates a need for pupils to receive this information in order to make the decision about their future careers. A significant finding was that the correlation is higher between career identity and career decidedness than the correlation between career information and career identity. As expected, there is also a positive correlation between career information and career identity. A logical conclusion is that pupils need career information in order to form career identity, but it is when they can consolidate this identity that their certainty about career decisions is achieved. This is also supported by the finding that pupils from school 1 (received more intensive career guidance). School 1 have higher scores on career decidedness than those from school 2 who receive career information but not to a point where it is integrated for them. These findings are in agreement with Mabena's (1994) finding that pupils from schools in which there was no Guidance teacher were more career indecisive than those from schools in which there was a Guidance teacher. This is also an indicator for a need for intensification of career guidance in the schools.
- (f) The difference in gender and career decidedness can be attributed to socialization of boys and girls and the sex role system in our society. Career guidance and career counselling practitioners may be unconsciously stuck in the sex-stereotypic mode of career counselling. The subjects, who are adolescents and young adults for this study, may be hampered by their own stereotypes entrenched through the socialization process. There is a need to "liberate" our clients from the "bondage" of these stereotypes.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR APPLICATION

6.2.1. INTRODUCTION AND INTENSIFICATION OF CAREER COUNSELLING IN THE SCHOOLS

A number of conclusions from this study have indicated a need for intensified career guidance for youth. These would be career programmes that go beyond giving career information, but emphasize career counselling that would assist young people integrate career information with self-knowledge that would help in the formation of career identity. Focus on special issues such as breaking sex-role stereotypes and relating aspirations to realities of the country's economy should receive attention in the career counselling programmes.

It is recommended that career counselling begins at the earliest stages of the pupils' academic career - in standard six or seven at the latest. This stage is important for two reasons: (a) It is the stage at which pupils have to make subject choices to take to their Matric. Subjects they do in Matric determine the career fields they will be able to study towards at tertiary level; (b) This is an early adolescent stage. The young person begins to be keen to find answers about himself\herself. According to Super's career development theory he\she is in the tentative substage of the exploration stage and begins to make tentative job choices according to his emerging needs and interests. This is the best time to help them along in the start of the journey to self-discovery.

6.2.2 CONSIDERATIONS FOR FAMILY INFLUENCE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH:

Empirical research of the relationship between family functioning and career decidedness leads to controversial conclusions. One reason may be the controversy surrounding the model used in this study to determine family functioning. It is recommended that application of this model in future studies be done with caution. Another reason may be the applicability of this model to this particular sample which was drawn from a population very different from the population on which the model has been previously applied. The world view of the African population and its definition of processes within family relationships, may not be the same as what this model proposes. However, literature research on the relationship between family influence and career development of African youth, gives ample evidence that such a relationship exists. It is therefore recommended that career guidance and career counselling programmes include discussions about (and with if possible) family, parental figures or significant others. This would serve a number of purposes: (a) Parents will be equipped to play their career socialization role in the support of their offspring. In that way they can become an important component of the delivery system; (b) Parents' wishes about their offspring will be dealt with in the right platform so that they do not become barriers to the youth who want to take decisions about their careers.

6.2.3 RESPONSIVE AND MARKET ORIENTED PROGRAMMES:

Career counselling practitioners need to be sensitive to that career development is a process that goes on right through life and cuts across a wide spectrum of people. Career programmes need to be responsive to needs and demands. In a country that is undergoing change needs and demands of yesterday may not be the same as those of today. This calls for ongoing evaluation of programmes. Waltz and Benjamin (1984) recommend evaluation of outcomes by judging behavioural change. Longitudinal studies of programme participants can also be a useful way of working towards responsive programmes. Responsiveness means developmental stage of the programme participants should also be taken into account.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- (a) The underlying theory of the Olson Circumplex model has a potential to give useful information on the levels of family bonding and family flexibility that would promote healthy psychological functioning. Further research on this model would enrich literature on psychology of families and as a useful tool in family therapy.
- (b) Applicability of the Olson Circumplex model to specific groups deserves further investigation. A conclusion has been drawn from this study that curvilinearity of the model may not apply in this sample. What may be dysfunctional and extreme for one group may be normal and functional for another group or family. This may call for comparative studies within the South African population.

(c) Change and transformation that South Africa is undergoing adds a significant dimension to all sectors of the populations. It has implications for stability and flexibility within communities and thus families. It also has implications for identity formation of, especially, Black youth who have to lift themselves up from victim stance to survivor stance and compete at the same level with their peers. Research on need, nature and relevance of lifeskills programmes such as assertiveness training, decision-making and problem-solving skills is necessary for developing educational programmes which are geared towards holistic development of the adolescent pupils. Such skills are important in the career decision-making process.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME :

SEX :

DATE OF BIRTH :

MOTHER TONGUE :

OTHER LANGUAGES :

CLASS\YEAR OF STUDY (if applicable) :

OCCUPATION (if applicable) :

PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS: PUT CROSS WHERE APPLICABLE

MARRIED	
UNMARRIED	
DIVORCEDG	
SEPARATED	
FATHER DECEASED	
MOTHHER DECEASED	
BOTH DECEASED	

DO YOU LIVE WITH?: PUT CROSS WHERE APPLICABLE

MOTHER	
FATHER	
BOTH	
OTHER: SPECIFY (e.g. aunt, grandmother, etc.	

APPENDIX II

MY VOCATIONAL SITUATION

ZAMA UKUPHENDULA YONKE LEMIBUZO ELANDELAYO NGOKUBA USHO UKUTHI IYIQINISO NOMA IYIPHUTHA KANGAKANANI UMA IBHEKISWE KUWENA, MAYELANA NOMSEBENZI OKUWONA NJENGAMANJE NOMA NGAMALUNGISELELO OWENZAYO NGOHLOBO LOMSEBENZI OFISA UKUWENZA. UMA ISONDELE EKUBENI IQINISO KOKOLOZELA U-T (TRUE), UMA ISONDELE EKUBENI IPHUTHA KOKOLOZELA U-F (FALSE).

1. NGIDINGA ISIQINISEKO SOKUTHI NGIKHETHE UHLOBO LOMSEBENZI OKUYILONALONA. T F
2. NGIKHATHAZEKILE NGOKUTHI IZINTO ENGIZITHANDAYO OKWAMANJE ZINGASE ZISHINTSHE NGOKUHAMBA KWESIKHATHI. T F
3. ANGINASO ISIQINISEKO SOKUTHI ILUPHI UHLOBO LOMSEBENZI ENGINGALWENZA KANGCONO. T F
4. ANGAZI UKUTHI IMIPHI IMIKHAKHA ENGINAMANDLA KUYO NOKUTHI IMIPHI ENGIBUTHAKATHAKA KUYO. T F
5. IMISEBENZI ENGINGAKWAZI UKUYENZA INGAHLE INGAKHOKHELI NGOKWANELE UKUNGIPHILISA IMPILO ENGIYIFUNAYO. T F
6. UMA KUNGAMELE NGIKHETHE UMSEBENZI ENGINGAWENZA MANJE, NGINOVALO LOKUTHI NGINGENZA ISINQUMO ESINGESIHLE NEZE. T F
7. NGIDINGA UKUTHOLA UKUTHI HLOBO LUNI LOMSEBENZI OKUMELE NGILULANDELE. T F
8. SEKUBE UMZUKUZUKU IMPELA UKUTHI NGITHATHE ISINQUMO NGOHLOBO LOMSEBENZI ENGIFISA UKULWENZA. T F
9. NGIDIDEKILE IMPELA NGALENKINGA YOKUTHI NGITHATHE ISINQUMO NGOMSEBENZI ENGINGAWENZA. T F
10. ANGINASO ISIQINISEKO SOKUTHI LOMSEBENZI ENGIWENZAYO NOMA ENGIWUKHETHILE YIWONA ONGIFANELE. T F
11. ANGINALO ULWAZI OLWANELE LOKUTHI ABASEBENZI BENZANI EMISEBENZINI EKHONA EYAHLUKAHLUKENE. T F
12. AWUKHO UMSEBENZI ENGIWUTHANDA KAKHULU UKWEDLULA EMINYE. T F

13. ANGINASO ISIQINISEKO UKUTHI ILUPHI UHLOBO LOMSEBENZI OLUNGANGIGCULISA. T F
14. NGINGATHANDA UKWANDISA ISIBALO SEZINHLOBO ZEMISEBENZI ENGINGASE NGICABANGELE KUZONA UKUZENZA. T F
15. IZILINGANISO ENGIZIBEKELA ZONA NGAMAKHONO KANYE NEZIPHIWO ENGINAZO ZIYASHINTSHASHINTSHA MINYAKA YONKE. T F
16. ANGINAKHO UKUZETHEMBA EMIKHAKHENI EMININGI YEMPILO. T F
17. KUSEYISIKHATHI ESINGAPHANSI KONYAKA NGAZI UKUTHI IMUPHI UMSEBENZI ENGINGATHANDA UKUWENZA. T F
18. ANGIQONDI UKUTHI ABANYE ABANTU BAKWAZI KANJANI UKUBA NESIQINISEKO NGABAFUNA UKUKWENZA. T F

LEMIBUZO ELANDELAYO (19 N0 20) YIPHENDULE NGOKUKOKOLOZELA U-YEBO (Y) NOMA U-QHA (N).

19. NGIDINGA LEMININGWANE ELANDELAYO:

- * NGINGAWUTHOLA KANJANI UMSEBENZI KULOMKHAKHA ESENGIWUKHETHILE. Y N
- * HLOBO LUNI LWABANTU OLWENZA IMISEBENZI EYAHLUKAHLUKENE. Y N
- * IMINININGWANE ETHE XAXA MAYELANA NAMATHUBA OKUQASHWA. Y N
- * NGINGALUTHOLA KANJANI UQEQESHO KULOMSEBENZI ESENGIWUKHETHILE. Y N

OKUNYE ODINGA UKUKWAZI:

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20. NGINALEZIZINKINGA EZILANDELAYO:

- * ANGINASO ISIQINISEKO SOKUTHI NGINALO YINI IKHONO ELANELE LOKUBHEKANA NEZIFUNDO

- | | |
|---|-----|
| NOMA UKUQEQESHWA OKUPHATHELENE NOMSEBENZI. | Y N |
| * ANGINAYO IMALI EYANELE UKULANDELA UMKHAKHA WOMSEBENZI ENGIWUTHANDA KAKHULU. | Y N |
| * ANGINASO ISIPHIWO ESIVELELE SOKWENZA UMSEBENZI OKUYIWONA ENGIWUTHANDA UKWEDLULA YONKE EMINYE. | Y N |
| * UMUNTU OBALULEKILE EMPILWENI YAMI AKAVUMELANI NEZE NOHLOBO LOMSEBENZI ESENGILUKHETHILE. | Y N |

OBUNYE UBUNZIMA ONABO:

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APPENDIX III

CAREER DECISION SCALE

LEMIBUZO IMAYELANA NEMIBONO ABANTU ABAJWAYELE UKUBA NAYO MAYELANA NEZINHLOBO ZOMSEBENZI ABAFISA UKUZENZA. EMINYE YALEMIBONO INGAFANA NEYAKHO, KANTI EMINYE INGEHLUKA. NGAKHO IFUNDISISE KAHLE LEMIBONO BESE UKHOMBISA UKUTHI IMIPHI KULEMIBONO ECHAZA WENA KANGCONO, MAYELANA NEZINJONGO ONAZO NGEMFUNDO YAKHO KANYE NOHLOBO LOMSEBENZI OSEWUWUCABANGILE.

KWENZE LOKHU NGOKUBA UKOKOLOZELE LEYONOMBOLO EQONDENE NALOWOMBONO OCHAZA WENA KANGCONO.

IZINOMBOLO 4, 3, 2, 1 ZICHAZA LOKHU:

4 = LOKHU KUFANA NAMI NCAMASHI

3 = LOKHU KUFANA NAMI NJE

2 = LOKHU KUCISHE KUFANE NAMI

1 = LOKHU AKUFANI NEZENEZE NAMI

PHENDULA YONKE IMIBUZO NGOKUKOKOLOZELA INOMBOLOE YODWA KUPHELA.

ISIBONELO

Ngikujahile impela ukuqeda isikole ukuze ngiqale umsebenzi. 4 3 2 1

KOKOLOZELA INOMBOLO EYODWA KUPHELA

1. SENGISITHATHILE ISINQUMO MAYELANA NOHLOBO LOMSEBENZI ENGIFISA UKULWENZA FUTHI NGENELISIWE YISO. NGIYAZI FUTHI UKUTHI KUMELE NGITHATHE ZIPHI IZINYATHELO UKUZE KUFEZEKE LESISIFISO SAMI. 4 3 2 1
2. SENGISITHATHILE ISINQUMO MAYELANA NOMKHAKHA ENGIFISA UKUGXILA KUWO KWEZEMFUNDO, FUTHI NGENELISIWE ILESISINQUMO. NGIYAZI FUTHI UKUTHI KUMELE NGITHATHE ZIPHI IZINYATHELO UKUZE KUFEZEKE LESISINQUMO SAMI. 4 3 2 1
3. UKUBA BENGINEKHONO KANYE NETHUBA NGABE NGIBA UL....., KEPHA NGIYAZI UKUTHI LESISIFISO SINGEKE NEZE SAFEZEKA. NGAPHANDLE KWALOKHU AKUKHO OKUNYE ESINGIKE NGACABANGELA KUKHONA. 4 3 2 1

4. ZININGI IZINHLOBO ZOMSEBENZI ENGIZITHANDAYO.
NGITHOLA KUNZIMA IMPELA UKUKHETHA PHAKATHI
KWAZO. 4 3 2 1
5. NGIYAZI UKUTHI EKUGCINENI KUYOMELE NGISEBENZE,
KEPHA KUZONKE IZINHLOBO ZEMISEBENZI ENGIZAZIYO
AWUKHO NOWODWA ENGIWUTHANDAYO. 4 3 2 1
6. NGINGATHANDA UKUBA IU....., KEPHA
NGOKWENZA NJALO NGIYOBE NGIPHAMBANA
NEZIFISO ZOMUNTU OBALULEKILE EMPILWENI YAMI.
NGENXAYALOKHU NGITHOLA KUNZIMA UKUNQUMA
NGOMSEBENZI ENGINGAWENZA OKWAMANJE.
NGETHEMBA NGINGATHOLA INDLELA YOKUMANELISA
NGIZANELISE NAMI. 4 3 2 1
7. KUZE KUBE MANJE ANGIKAZE NGICABANGE NGOKUTHENI
NGOKUKHETHA UHLOBO LOMSEBENZI ENGINGALWENZA.
NGIYENGIZITHOLE NGILAHLEKILE UMA NGICABANGA
NGALOKHU NGOBA EMPILWENI YAMI ANGIVAMISILE
UKUZITHATHELA IZINQUMO NGOKWAMI. FUTHI-KE
ANGINAYO IMINININGWANE KANYE NOLWAZI
EKUTHATHENI IZINQUMO OKWAMANJE. 4 3 2 1
8. YONKE INTO EMAYELANA NOKUKHETHA UMSEBENZI
IBUKEKA ILUFIFI FUTHI INGAQONDAKALI. KONKE
LOKHU KUNGENZA NGIPHELELWE ITHEMBA
KANGANGOBA SENGIFISA KENGITHI UKUMA KANCANE
EKUTHATHENI LESISINQUMO. 4 3 2 1
9. BENGITHI NGIYAZI UKUTHI NGIFUNA UKWENZA MSEBENZI
MUNI, KEPHA MUVA NJE NGITHOLE UKUTHI
ANGEKE NGIKWAZI UKUPHUMELELA KULOKHU. MANJE
SEKUMELE NGIQALE PHANSI NGICABANGE NGOLUNYE
UHLOBO LOMSEBENZI ENGINGASE NGILWENZE. 4 3 2 1
10. NGIFUNA UKUBA NESIQINISEKO ESIPHELELE SOKUTHI
NGIKHETHE UMSEBENZI OKUYIWONAWONA, KEPHA KUZO
ZONKE IZINHLOBO ZEMISEBENZI ENGIZAZIYO KAWUKHO
NOWODWA ENGIWUBONA UNGILUNGELE. 4 3 2 1
11. UKWENZA ISINQUMO NGOMSEBENZI ENGINGAWENZA
KUYANGIKHATHAZA IMPELA, NGINGATHANDA
UKWENZA LESINQUMO NGISHESHE NGEHLUKANE
NASO. NGIFISA SENGATHI KUNGAKHONA ISIVIVINYO
ENGINGASENZA ESINGANGITSHELA UKUTHI NHLOBONI
YOMSEBENZI OKUMELE NGILWENZE. 4 3 2 1

12. NGIYAZI UKUTHI IZIPHI IZIFUNDO ENGIFISA UKUGXILA KUZO,
KEPHA ANGAZI UKUTHI ILUPHI UHLOBO LOMSEBENZI
EZINGANGIHOLELA KULO OLUNGAHLE LUNGIGCULISE. 4 3 2 1
13. ANGEKE NGAKWAZI UKWENZA ISINQUMO NGOMSEBENZI
ENGINAWENZA OKWAMANJE NGOBA ANGILAZI IKHONO
LAMI UKUTHI LILELEPHI 4 3 2 1
14. ANGAZI UKUTHI IZIPHI IZINTO ENGIZITHANDAYO
NENGINAZITHANDI. KUNEZINTO EZIMBALWA EZIYE
ZINGITHOKOZISE KEPHA ANGAZI UKUTHI ZIHLOBENE
KANJANI NEMISEBENZI ENGINASE NGIYENZE. 4 3 2 1
15. KUNEZINTO EZININGI ENGIZITHANDAYO, FUTHI NGIYAZI
UKUTHI NGINASO ISIPHIWO SOKUPHUMELELA
KUNOMA IMUPHIUMSEBENZI ENGINAWUKHETHA.
KUNZIMA KIMINA UKUTHI NGINGAKHETHA UMSEBENZI
OWODWA NJE ENGIFUNA UKUWENZA. 4 3 2 1
16. SENGISITHATHILE ISINQUMO NGOMSEBENZI ENGIFUNA
UKUWENZA, KEPHA KANGIQONDI UKUTHI
NGIZOSIFEZA KANJANI LESISINQUMO SAMI. KANTI YINI
NGEMPELA OKUMELE NGIYENZE UKUZE NGIBE IU.....
17. NGIDINGA EMINYE IMINININGWANE EPHELELE MAYELANA
NEMISEBENZI EYAHLUKAHLUKENE NGAPHAMBI KOKUBA
NGITHATHE ISINQUMO NGOMSEBENZI ENGINAWENZA. 4 3 2 1
18. NGICABANGA UKUTHI SENGIYAZI NGOMKHAKHA
OKUMELE NGIGXILE KUWO KWEZEMFUNDO, KEPHA
NGIZIZWA NGIDINGA UKWESEKELWA NGALESISINQUMO
ESENKIZENZELE SONA. 4 3 2 1
- 19 KUYOYONKE LEMIBONO ENGENHLA AWUKHO OCHAZA
MINA NGENDLELA EFANELE. LOKHUOKULANDELAYO
KUNGICHAZA KANGCONO:
(BHALA IMPENDULO YAKHO NGENZANSI).

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APPENDIX IV

FACES III

PHENDULA LEMIBUZO ELANDELAYO MAYELANA NOMNDENI WAKINI. QAPHELA: UMA SIKHULUMA NGOMNDENI SISHO UBABA, UMAMA NOMA LOWO OKUKHULISAYO ESIKHUNDLENI SABO, ABAFOWENU NODADEWENU KANYE NALABO ENIHLALA NABO EKHAYA.

PHENDULA KANJE: KOKOLOZELA U 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 MAQONDANA NOMUSHO NGOMUSHO. LEZINOMBOLO ZIMELE LOKHU:

- 1 = CISHE AKWENZEKI NEZE
- 2 = KUYENZEKA KANYE ESIKHATHINI ESIDE
- 3 = KUYENZEKA NJE KWESINYE ISIKHATHI
- 4 = KUVAMISILE IMPELA
- 5 = KWENZEKA CISHE NSUKUZONKE

IMIBUZO

- | | | |
|-----|---|-----------|
| 1. | EMNDENINI WAKITHI SIYAZWANA. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. | IZINGANE ZIYABA NEZWI EKUQAQWENI
KWEZINKINGA EKHAYA. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. | ABANGANI BALELO NALELO LUNGA LOMNDENI
BAYAMUKELWA EKHAYA. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. | IZINGANE ZIYABA NEZWI EKUTHENI ZIFUNDISWE
FUTHI ZIPHATHWE KANJANI EKHAYA. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. | SIYASIYATHANDA UKWENZA IZINTO NDAWONYE
JENGOMNDENI. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. | SIYASHINTSHANA NGOKUHOLA UMNDENI. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. | SIYAZWANA KAKHULU THINA KUNOMA SIZWANA
NABANTU BANGAPHANDLE. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. | INDLELA ESENZA NGAYO IZINTO EMDENINI
WAKITHI IYAGUQUQUQUKA | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. | SIYATHANDA UKUBA NDAWONYE NJENGOMNDENI
UMA SINGENZI LUTHO. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. | ABAZALI NEZINGANE BAYABONISANA NGENDLELA
IZINGANE OKUMELE ZIJEZISWE NGAYO. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. | SIZWANA KAKHULU EMNDENINI WAKITHI. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

12. IZINGANE YIZONA EZENZA IZINQUMO EMNDENINI WAKITHI. 1 2 3 4 5
13. UMA UMNDENI WAKITHI UHLANGENE KUNOMCIMBI, SIYE SIPHELELE SONKE. 1 2 3 4 5
14. IMITHETHO EMNDENINI WAKITHI IYAGUQUGUQUKA. 1 2 3 4 5
15. KULULA UKUTHOLA IZINTO ESINGAZENZA NDAWONYE NJENGOMNDENI. 1 2 3 4 5
16. EMNDENINI WAKITHI SIYABELANA FUTHI SIYASHINTSHANA NGEMISEBENZI YASEKHAYA. 1 2 3 4 5
17. OMUNYE NOMUNYE UYABONISANA NOMNDENI NGEZINQUMO AZITHATHAYO 1 2 3 4 5
18. KULUKHUNI UKUSHO UKUTHI UBANI OSIPHETHE EKHAYA. 1 2 3 4 5
19. UKUBUMBANA NJENGOMNDENI KUBALULEKE KAKHULU KITHINA. 1 2 3 4 5
20. EMNDENINI WAKITHI KUNZIMA UKUSHO UKUTHI UBANI OQONDENE NAMUPHI UMSEBENZI 1 2 3 4 5