CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION
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1.1 Theoretical Frame Work -

All human being makes decision every day. Students, in particular, are in the best phase of their lives where many decisions about family and career have to be made. Hereby, it can be expected that culture norms and the value of the social system they belong to provide them with some guidelines and hence have a strong impact on the way decisions were made. In fact, some societies are considered to be more individualistic and others more collectivistic, which is also an important factor that might have an impact on decision making. People from individualistic cultures tend to value personal goals over group goals, personal concerns over group concerns and personal rights and needs over collective responsibilities and obligations (Gudykunst, Gao, Schmidt, & Nishida, 1992). While the person from a collectivistic culture value group membership as a central aspect of identity, sacrifice for the common well and maintain harmonious relationship with others (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002).

At several times through the history, working women were viewed as immoral and unfeminine object. Some critics accused working women as negligent mothers. Frequently, women employees were not taken seriously by their bosses, colleagues, or society (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Causing a career posed challenges for women due to their family responsibilities (Valdez & Gutek, 1987). Women were expected to perform duties of wife and mother, in addition to fulfil their professional responsibilities. Some women experienced feelings of guilt or selfishness if they put their career interests first (Heins, Hendricks, & Martindale, 1982) because women work and family demands were simultaneous, these demands had a significant impact on women’s careers (Valdez & Gutek). As stated by Heins et al (1982), “Achieving professional status may be more difficult for women than for men”

Despite their increasing numbers, women have tended to enter the workforce in lower status, lower paying jobs, and remain clustered in a limited number of conventional careers (Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin, & Frame, 2005). Low paying traditionally female careers, including administrative support, sales, service, nursing, teaching, social work, and clerical jobs, reflected society’s persistent attitudes
regarding stereotypical occupational roles for males and females (Rainey & Borders, 1997, Sellers, Satcher, & Comas, 1999; Stephenson & Burge, 1997; Watson, Quatman & Elder, 2002). Because women’s career choices were restricted, their earnings lagged behind their male counterparts with comparable education and experience (Farmer, 1985; Stephenson & Burge). Income earnings have been found to increase with educational level and years employed (Day & Newburger, 2002). However, women earned roughly two thirds the income of their male counterparts. This discrepancy in income was partially attributed to the disparity between traditionally male and traditionally female occupations. For example, women are less likely to be employed in science or engineering jobs, as these are considered traditionally male occupations. However, females who are employed in these jobs earn roughly about 20% less than their male counterparts (Graham & Smith, 2005).

Factors narrowing women into traditional role occupations included social and familial influences, a lack of awareness regarding non-traditional options, an unwelcoming environment in many male dominated fields, discrimination within career fields, high turnover rates for women, and less seniority in given occupations. These factors also contributed to earning gaps between men and women (Stephenson & Burge, 2005).

1.11 Decision Making

The process of decision making is one of the most complex mechanisms of human thinking, as various factors and courses of action intervene in it, with different results. There are career centers designed to facilitate a student’s journey from confusion to career self-enlightenment, practitioner spend hours developing workshops, programs, and print and electronic resources to assist students with their career searches. However, students decide on post college plans with, or much more likely, without, the exclusive, comprehensive help of a campus career office. Although students use career programs and services, their decision making processes can be influenced by a wide variety of people and experiences. Although researchers have discussed a variety of factors related to the post college decision making process, few researchers have focused on how students might integrate these many factors during the decision making process. The various influences on a student’s career decision making process are widely discussed in the professional literature. Some are
related to interpersonal characteristics including age (Luzzo, 1999, Super, 1992),
gender (Farmer, Wardrop, Anderson, & Risinger, 1995; Murray & Hall, 2001);
race/ethnicity (Liu, 1998; Mau & Fernandes, 2001); sexual orientation (Nauta, Saucier,
& Woodard, 2001; Tomlinson & Fassinger, 2003), class year (Long, Sowa, & Niles, 1995; Luzzo, Mc Whirter, & Hutcheson, 1997); levels
of self-efficacy (Gianakos, 2001); approaches to career decision making
(Niles, Erford, Hunt, & Watts, 1997); career assumptions (Laker, 2002); and levels of
indecision (Gaffner & azler, 2002; Jurgans, 2000; Skorupa & Agresti, 1998). A number
of external factors might integrate these factors during the decision making
process. Influence college decision making ‘including’ student involvements such as
athletics (Martens & Cox, 2000); institutional types (Zagora & Cramer, 1994); and
interpersonal interactions with others such as family (Hargrove, Creagh, & Burgess,
2002) or mentors (Packard, 2003; Packard & Nguyen, 2003). These studies discuss a
variety of factors related to the college decision making process; however, little
research exists on how students For better understanding of student’s decision
making, particularly the conditions that facilitate this process, a framework for
wisdom development was applied to this process (Brown, 2002, 2004). Brown (2004)
stated that the conditions that stimulate student’s development of wisdom are; (a)
orientation to learning (b) experiences (c) interaction with others, and (d)
environment. Orientation to learning refers to an individual’s expectation,
preparedness, motivation, and attitude when one interfaces with activities and people;
an individuals general orientation to life, the whole college experience, and specific
situations encountered; and , a person’s past as it comes to bear in any new
interactions (Brown, 2004). The second condition, experiences refers to any, situation
or activity, structured, unstructured, or incidental, such as courses, student
involvements, living situations, leadership opportunities, internships, programs of
study, and employment. The third condition, interaction with others , refers to all
general experiences with people, particularly relationships with friends, family and
other influential people, and also includes interacting with individuals and groups
different from one’s own. Finally, environment refers to the general institutional
setting and its multiple sub environments (physical/virtual), where a student’s
orientation of learning, variety of experiences, and interactions with people might
combine in various way to produce wisdom.
1.12 PERSPECTIVES OF DECISION MAKING

Basically, the theories that study decisions can be grouped into two perspectives: normative and descriptive.

The normative perspective explains the choice of individuals who are behaving rationally in a task that requires decision making and -using statistical models- predicts the subjects’ responses from the information provided about each alternative. The descriptive perspective explains how individuals actually choose, that is, the psychological processes and the task and environmental characteristics that underlie judgments and choices. One of the basic differences between these viewpoints is the way they consider the decision maker. The normative viewpoint confers an “unlimited” processing capacity on decision makers that allows them to examine exhaustively all the possible alternatives and choose the best.

Decision-making involves the act of making a choice between different alternatives.

The literature often sets out how people should go about the process of making decisions. The so-called ‘normative models’ of decision-making usually stress the need to adopt a rational (or logical and comprehensive) approach in order to make effective decisions (see Figure 1 below). This entails a step-by-step process that typically involves - as a starting point - the setting of objectives; this is followed by the rigorous collection of information so that the problem requiring a solution can be fully understood; then different options are generated and systematically evaluated to enable a choice (that meets the objectives set out earlier) to be made.

**Figure 1.1**

Rational Decision-making Model

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating options</td>
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<td>Generating options</td>
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<td>Collecting information</td>
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<td>Setting objectives</td>
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The educational system, the workplace, and society in general, tend to value rationality. This is seen in the way students are advised to approach course selection in schools, colleges and by the Universities and Colleges Application System (UCAS). A rational approach to career decision-making is also advocated by those involved in the provision of careers education, information and advice. Similarly many professions and occupations encourage rationality. This is reflected in the number of decision-making models, similar to the one portrayed in Figure 1, that have been developed by different organisations for their employees.

The descriptive perspective grants a “limited” processing capacity that often leads decision makers to make mistakes when considering complex and dynamic tasks, although they tend to choose options that satisfy them. At present, one of the most important descriptive theories is the naturalistic theory, which investigates decisions that concern people in the real world and the factors that affect them, instead of the daily or irrelevant decisions that are studied by the normative theories in laboratory tasks. This interpretation of the decision process, which is typical of the naturalistic theory, underlines the role of experience and personal competence in this process. The naturalists attribute eight factors to any important decision in one’s personal, academic, professional, or social life: the decision involves relevant and ill-structured problems; it occurs in uncertain and dynamic environments; it proposes shifting, ill-defined, or competing goals; it generates multiple event-feedback loops; it is performed with time constraints; it involves high stakes; it allows the participation of multiple players; and, lastly, there are organizational norms and goals that must be balanced against the decision makers’ personal choice (Orasanu & Connolly, 1993). Only some, not all, of these factors must be present in the decision process for it to be considered naturalistic. Moreover, it must have significant consequences for the decision maker. In general, the naturalistic approach to decisions tries to show that people can make the right decision without having sophisticated calculations. They only need to use their experience to recognize the decision problem as similar to other previous ones and to evaluate all the variables that affect each one of its phases. According to Cannon-Bowers, Salas, and Pruitt (1996) the above mentioned characteristics, along with others, comprises of essential traits of a decision, which these authors classify into three groups of variables: (a) task factors associated with the nature of the decision, such as the uncertainty involved in
each alternative, time and money pressure, quantity and quality of the information, expected goals, and possible consequences of the decisions; (b) internal decision maker factors, such as motivation, emotions, exhaustive information processing, experience, and regulation of the decision process stages; (c) factors of the environment in which the decision is made, although they are not a direct part of the decision itself, such as social influence, coercion of close persons, and work demands.

As with other psychological phenomena, sex and age are among the variables that affect decision making, or rather, that allow one to establish individual differences. The fact is that our decisions are affected by our beliefs about the characteristics that differentiate the sexes, although these beliefs may be based on questionable criteria. Despite the fact that society is progressing towards social and labor equality between men and women, it is necessary to continue to examine -from a psychological perspective whether there are sex differences in the importance that people allocate to factors that determine the decision process. Till now, the results of research are somewhat ambiguous because, although some significant differences have been identified, most of them are minimal (Crow, Fok, Hartman, & Payne, 1991; Hatala & Case, 2000; Hawkins & Power, 1999; Venkatesh, Morris, & Ackerman, 2000). It seems that women are more affected by the environment; they look for more information, and dedicate more time to the decision process (Gill, Stockard, Johnson, & Williams, 1987). Men, on the contrary, are more dominant, assertive, objective, and realistic (Wood, 1990). However, these differences have been interpreted as the result of the incidence of sex-related social norms and stereotypes that are transmitted in the form of values, traditions, and behavioral expectations. Together with some other educational factors, these probably instigate and maintain some of the differences associated with certain aspects of decisions (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Therefore, although till now the findings have been somewhat limited, it is relevant to continue to investigate these differences and determine how they are formed.

1.13 MODELS OF CAREER DECISION MAKING

Within the career development literature the career decision making process of students received much theoretical and empirical attention (Phillips & Jome, 2005,). Among the most prominent topics are models which describe the career decision
making process (Brown, 1990). Almost every model proposes that the career decision making process occurs in a series of predefined phases, although they might name different steps for the process (Gati, Shenhay, & Givon, 1993; Peterson, Sampson, & Reardon, 1991). This is also true for some of the most recent models of career decision making.

1.14 The Prescreening, In-depth Exploration, and Choice (PIC) model by Gati and colleagues (Gati, 1986; Gati & Asher, 2001) distinguishes between the three phases: (1) pre-screening where potential alternatives are reduced to a manageable set of promising alternatives based on the individual’s preferences, (2) in-depth exploration of the promising alternatives, and (3) choice of the most suitable alternative. The career decision making model proposed by Germeijjs and Verschueren (2006) distinguishes six tasks in the process: (1) orientation to choice (2) self exploration (3) broad exploration of the environment (5) choosing an alternative, and (6) committing to a particular career alternative.

1.15 Comprehensive model of career development by (Langley’s 2002) proposes similar tools that may assist young people in making successful and appropriate career decisions. These tools consist of identifying needs, evaluating life roles, identifying interests, identifying other relevant factors relating to personal or socio-cultural factors for example: evaluating career maturity, evaluating decision making ability, obtaining career information integrating self information with career information, making a career choice and finally planning one’s career.

Another recent model was proposed by Esbroeck, Tibos, and Zaman (2005). In their Dynamic model of career choice development they propose six career choice development activities: (1) sensitisation (becoming aware of required career activities), (2) exploration of the self, (3) environmental exploration, (4) exploration of the relationship between the self and the environment, (5) specification (deepening knowledge of career options and specifying choices), and (6) decision for an alternative. Empirical research with these model basically confirms their validity and utility for career development (Gati & Asher, 2001; Germeijjs & Verschueren, 2006; Tibos & van Esbroeck, 2003, September).
An Unifying Six-Phase Model of Career Decision-Making by (Lent R., Steven, Hackett 1994). While the above presented model show considerable overlap in their proposed phases they also differ in the exact number of phases, their specific contents and names. In an attempt to propose an unifying model we identified six common basic phases in the career decision-making process that can be extracted from these models: (1) becoming concerned about career decision making (awareness). (2) generating possible career alternatives based on one’s own interests, skills, and values through self- and environmental exploration, (3) reducing the career alternatives to a manageable number for more in-depth exploration, (4) deciding among few alternatives, (5) confirming one’s choice and building a commitment to it, and (6) being firmly decided and committed to a choice. These six phases are presented in six phase model of career decision making. This model not as a new concept for career decision making but as a model which integrates the most basic phases of several prominent models in career decision making. An empirical evaluation of this model could thus also provide useful reference for several other career decision making models. Our assumption that phase (2) to (5) mark core aspects within the career decision making process is also supported by the findings from Brown and colleagues (Brown & McPartland, 2005; Miller & Brown, 2005). They have proposed that at least four different problems in career decision making can be identified which lead to different counseling goals for clients: (a) clients who want to expand their career options, (b) clients who want to reduce an overwhelming number of options, (c) clients who need assistance in deciding between a few viable options, and (d) clients who seek conformation of an already chosen option (Brown & McPartland, 2005; Miller & Brown, 2005). These problems exactly correspond to the four phases in our model.

Phase (1) and (6) occur prior respectively after the actual decision making process and thus might not be directly considered as phases in career decision making. They therefore also do not correspond to actual counseling goals. However, they represent important states in the whole process. For example, the need to become aware of the demands and necessity of the career decision making process is regarded as an important first step in career decision making by several models (e.g., Germeijs & Verschueren, 2006; Peterson et al., 1991; Savickas, 2000; Van Esbroeck et al., 2005). It therefore seems important to distinguish between students who never actually
became concerned with career decision-making in the first place from students who are concerned with the process but have few ideas because they were not yet able to expand their career options (e.g. because of lack of self and or environmental knowledge). On the other hand, it also seems important to distinguish between students who feel that they have finished the process and made their final choice from students who also made a choice but are still in need of final confirmation.

1.17 Knowledge Information and Self Awareness model by Hirschi & Lage (2007). Through this model, one would expect increasing occupational knowledge which would lead individuals to either persist along the same career path and it is reflected in ones degree of career certainty which has been described as the commitment of individuals to have their decisions to pursue specific careers (Daniels, Clifton, Perry, Mandzik & Hall 2006). It is generally considered to be one of the final stages in the career decision making process, followed by the planning and implementation stages.

Despite the certainty of career centrality in the career decision making process, its link to occupational knowledge has not yet been directly examined in terms of individuals knowledge about their chosen careers. This oversight seems to be due in part to a lack of adequate methods to access occupational knowledge. Three general types of assessment exist in the literature; that objectively test specific jobs, activities and responsibilities. Further not only has the literature overlooked the relation between occupational knowledge and career certainty, it has failed to address the overarching question of whether or not college students are sufficiently knowledgeable of the careers they are choosing to pursue.

According to Harren’s decision making theory (as cited in Bimrose and Barnes, 2007) which was developed from career decisions made by college student’s, there are three career decision making styles.

- The rational style where individuals adopt a logical and systematic approach to decisions.
- The intuitive approach where there is more reliance on internal affective states in decisions making processes.
The dependent style where decisions are contingent upon the reactions of friends, family and peers.

1.2 Psychosocial factors and career decision making-

There are two major factors which affects the career decision but which are external to the women herself: Psychological and societal factors such as sex discrimination, sex role, family support, well being, role conflict, parental role model, job training and self esteem factors affect the employment decision directly. While the societal factor affects indirectly through the opportunity and experiential. When the society at large accepts certain sex stereotypes it not only limits the job opportunities available to women but it also affects women's feelings about themselves and leads them to believe that it unfeminine or inappropriate to do certain kinds of work. This in turn, leads woman to narrow their job search to sex stereotypes occupations or if they enter non-traditional occupations. The availability of societal support through institutions is also career decisions. It is important to point out that women's work choices are often not a single decision but a group of decisions. Many of the research studies have divided women into different experience groups or patterns of paid work. One common differentiation is between carrier oriented and home oriented women, this may involve determining if the women are currently working and they plan to work in the future.

Since ages, women continue to feel to be a weaker section of society. Inspite of the opportunities thrown upon to her in various fields along with some labour saving gadgets in the house, she still seeks a place as an independent and honourable human being. The concept of equality has exercised a powerful emotional appeal in the struggle of women to free them from age old expression. During the last few decades, industrialization, urbanisation, increasing level of education, awareness of rights, wider influence of media and westernisation has changed the status and position of women. The present high rise prices resulting in economic tension have aroused in her a desire to work in easing the financial and economic constraints of her life. For this she has to maintain an equilibrium and balance between home and career. The changing status of women influences not only their role in society but also affects their decisions.
1.3 Psychological Factors

1.31 Self Esteem

Self-esteem is how we value ourselves; it is how we perceive our value to the world and how valuable we think we are to others. Self-esteem affects our trust in others, our relationships, our work – nearly every part of our lives. Positive self-esteem gives us the strength and flexibility to take charge of our lives and grow from our mistakes without the fear of rejection. Self esteem is a judgement placed on the emotional, intellectual and behavioural aspects of the self concept. Urich O., Trzesniewski H Kali and Robins ,Richard (2010), these researchers investigated the development of self esteem from young adulthood to old age and their findings were self esteem increases during young and middle adulthood, reaches a peak at about age 60 years, and decline in old age.

Diane Frey & Jesse Carlock (1991). The level of our self esteem determines how we operate in life, how we interact with others like spouse, children, friends and strangers. It determines our goals and what we strive for, our achievements, and our satisfaction and happiness in life.

The need for self esteem plays a important role in psychologist Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, depicting self esteem as one of the basic human motivations. Maslow suggested that people need both esteem from other people as well as inner self-respect. Both of these needs must be fulfilled in order for an individual to grow as a person and achieve self-actualization.

Nathaniel Branden (1990), explains about What is self esteem? In the First International Conference on Self Esteem, he said people of high self esteem are not driven to make themselves superior to others; they do not seek to prove their value by measuring themselves against a comparative standard. Their joy is in being who they are, not in being better than someone else. He also said for high self esteem certainly upbringing can play a powerful role.

Following are some outward signs of positive self-esteem given by UCDHS faculty
Signs of positive self esteem:

- Confidence
- Self-direction
- Non-blaming behaviour
- An awareness of personal strengths
- An ability to make mistakes and learn from them
- An ability to accept mistakes from others
- Optimism
- An ability to solve problems
- An independent and cooperative attitude
- Feeling comfortable with a wide range of emotions
- An ability to trust others
- A good sense of personal limitations
- Good self-care
- The ability to say no

Low self-esteem is on the other hand a debilitating condition that keeps individuals from realizing their full potential. A person with low self-esteem feels unworthy, incapable, and incompetent. In fact, because the person with low self-esteem feels so poorly about him or herself, these feelings may actually cause the person’s continued low self-esteem.

Signs of low self-esteem:

- Negative view of life
- Perfectionist attitude
- Mistrusting others – even those who show signs of affection
- Blaming behavior
- Fear of taking risks
- Feelings of being unloved and unlovable
- Dependence – letting others make decisions
- Fear of being ridiculed

Feelings of low self-esteem often build up over a lifetime, and letting go of ingrained feelings and behaviours is not an easy task. It may take time, hard work, and it may require professional counselling. But there are some simple, positive thinking
techniques that can be used to help improve self-esteem. These are called affirmations.

Using affirmations to stop negative self-talk is a simple, positive way to help increase self-esteem. Affirmations are encouraging messages we can give ourselves every day until they become part of our feelings and beliefs. Affirmations work best when a person is relaxed. But since people are often upset when they are giving themselves negative self-messages, they may need to counter negative messages with positive ones.

For example, replace the message “I made a stupid mistake, and I am no good at this job,” with “Yes, I made a mistake but I have learned from it, and now I can a better job.” Begin each day by looking in the mirror and giving yourself a positive message. The following affirmations can help people to work toward a positive self-image: i.e.

I respect myself and others
I am lovable and likable
I am confident, and it shows
I acre about myself
I am creating loving, healthy relationships
I am a good friend to myself and others
I accept myself just as I am
I look great
Life is good, and I like being a part of it

Intellectually and emotionally balanced people may able to face any challenges in their life. Low self esteem is indeed based on a faulty self image poor self esteem is a root cause of every known psychological maladjustment. If growth leads to nurturing self esteem, then there is a victory in the evolution of consciousness. According to Karl Perera(2013), Low self esteem has two faces. One is the personality that seems to always be the under achiever, the negative one, the one who says I can’t, I couldn’t, I shouldn’t, I have to. The other face is the person who seems very confident, ‘a take charge type’ of person very much in control, very opinionated, positional, and often takes up leadership positions. This type of person, may exhibit any of the above mentioned or all of these traits such persons are
perfectionist, demanding, and self centred, can’t take criticism, instructions, or direction, is very independent and self sufficient. Perera says when people truly esteem themselves, will take 100% responsibility for their own lives. They let others make decisions for themselves without trying to be in control, and let others be responsible for their actions.

It is observed that our opinion of ourselves is influenced by family, society, culture and our relationships. Bandura (1986) emphasised the interplay with the environment, theorising that personal, behavioural and environmental factors influence self beliefs which then inform and shape behaviour and subsequent environments. People who have an appropriate value of themselves mostly cope with life’s problems better than people who don’t.

Low self esteem leads to phobias, depression, suicides, experimentation with drugs and alcohol. At the level of post graduation, the students are ready for a matured approach to life. They seriously think about their future and give flexible approach to life. If they are guided appropriately in their early years

They become high self esteemed students. If their self esteem is moderately high at this stage, it is easy for them to adapt any circumstance which they face in their later life.

Morris Rosenberg (1965) was one of the earliest major contributors in the history of self esteem. Earlier contributors include James. W. (2006), who was one of the first pioneers to see a connection between self esteem and success. Rosenberg is known all over the world for his work on self esteem and self concept. (1992) Rosenberg’s research led him to believe that self esteem was an attitude we have about ourselves, either positive or negative. His worked examined how social structure influences self esteem. He conclude that our opinion of yourself is influenced by family, society, culture and relationships.

(Waddar, Madhavi and Vijayalaxmi, (2010) Parents influence their children in many ways one crucial area of parental influence in child life is in the development of his/her self efficacy and emotional intelligence leads to their self esteem. Home is a place where one learns his first lesson in living. Love, understanding, memories of childhood, the kindness of parents, the sisters pride, the brother understanding and help, the mutual confidence, the common hopes and interest, small sacrifices, laws of
unselfishness, respect for others, cheerfulness and charity are the virtues one first learns at home.

1.32 Psychological well – being

Subjective well being is a construct that reflects an understanding of an individual’s appraisal of her life. These appraisals may be primarily cognitive (e.g. life satisfaction) as well as affective, consisting of pleasant or unpleasant emotions that individuals experience (e.g. happiness and depression). The notion of subjective well being incorporates positive factors and not just the absence of negative factors (Park, 2004).

Many researchers have defined well-being, but as Gasper (2002) points out, the term well being is a concept or idea referring to whatever is assessed in an evaluation of a person’s life situation or being. Summarized, it is the description of the state of the individuals life situation. A hallmark of subjective well being is that it centers on the individuals personal judgements and not upon some criterion judged by the researcher as important (Diener, 1984).

There are three primary components of subjective well being: life satisfaction, high level of pleasant affect, and low levels of unpleasant affect. Subjective well being is structured such that these three components form an overall factor of interrelated variables.

Meister (1991) suggests that subjective well being is a comprehensive and flexible concept that is broader than health. The following discussion takes a closer look at how prominent researchers have defined subjective well being. Subjective well being is defined by Snyder and Lopez (2002) as “A Person’s cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life. These evaluations include emotional reactions to events as well as cognitive judgements of satisfaction and fulfilment”. In agreement with Snyder and Lopez’s view that subjective well-being includes both cognitive and affective components. Carr (2004) defines subjective well being as “ A positive psychological state characterized by a high level of satisfaction with life, a high level of positive affect and a low level of negative affect. According to Vleioras and Bosma (2005) Subjective well being refers to feeling well, which is highly parallel to the characteristics of a healthy personality set forth by Erikson.
According to Diener (1984) Well being is a multidimensional construct that includes cognitive and affective components. He further defines subjective wellbeing in terms of three primary components: Life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect. It is clear from the abovementioned definitions that the following two aspects from the core of subjective well being and that the cognitive and emotional aspects are fully intertwined. The cognitive component refers to life satisfaction and the emotional component divided into positive and negative affect (Bradburn, 1969: Diener, 1998). The emphasis in this study falls on the cognitive component. Human well being is often treated as a multidimensional concepts that consists of a number of distinct dimensions. Theoretical research has identified an array of dimensions; these include social (shared understanding), physical (being healthy and fit), psychological (Individual characteristics of an inherently positive state such as happiness as well as an absence of depression), spiritual (belief in a higher power) and material (standard of living) dimensions (Alkire, 2002; Martinez & Dukes, 1997). A large body of evidence indicates that although subjective well being components share some common variance, a substantial amount of the variance is unique to each component (Busseri et al., 2007). Various combinations of life satisfaction, positive and negative affect are therefore possible.

1.33 DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES OF WELL BEING

Different researchers have conceptualized well-being from different perspectives in this section the different perspectives, including the personological, developmental and holistic/integrative perspective on subjective well-being will be examined.

1.34 DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

Other researchers emphasize the developmental stage which an individual is moving through, indicating that well being is defined differently for each person, depending on the developmental stage that they have reached (Sigelman & Rider, 2006). Developmental stages that people progress through can be defined as a well defined phase of the life cycle that is depicted by a specific set of abilities, motives, emotions or behaviours that from a coherent pattern. Each stage is viewed as different from the one before or the one that is to come (Sigelman & Rider, 2006). An adolescent girl’s experience of subjective well being will therefore differ from that of a middle aged woman. For an adolescent girl having an exciting social life and being
popular amongst her friends may increase her subjective well being. But for a middle aged woman, having a stable career and a prosperous family with children who are obedient may increase her subjective well being regardless of her social standing (Arnett, 2000)

1.35 HOLISTIC AND INTEGRATED PERSPECTIVE

Various other researchers suggest that well being is determined by a dynamic, complex and multidimensional process experienced by a dynamic, complex and multidimensional process experienced by the individual. The environmental factors and the societal feedback, together with the personality traits of the individual, all combine to ultimately lead to the level of subjective well being experienced by the individual (Sigelman & Rider, 2006)

Theorists such as Witmer and Sweeney (1992) and Seeman (1989) also take contextual factors into consideration, they incorporate principles from the systems theory and their models range from highly abstract to more pragmatic in focus. Researchers who are of the opinion that all these perspectives, to some extent, hold true, argue that it is important to take not only personality traits and the developmental stage of the individual into consideration, but also to include environmental factors and to form a more integrated approach towards subjective well being. An earlier model from a systematic approach indicates that individual well being involves an integrated method of functioning, suggesting reciprocal integration. Changes in well being on either the physical, spiritual, psychological, social, emotional or intellectual dimensions have an influence on well being in the other dimensions (Dunn, 1961). Ryff (1989) indicates that the theoretical formulation of well being is a comprehensive field, surrounding positive self regard, mastery of the surrounding environment, quality relations with others, continued growth and development, purposeful living and the capacity for self determination, all of which interact to determine well being.

It is clear from the discussion regarding the different perspectives on well being that subjective well being is a multidimensional construct. Well being and specifically subjective well being, is largely dependent on the individual, whether it is determined by her developmental stage and the maturity that she has reached, the personality characteristics and traits that she has, or the combination of various processes that influence her wellbeing. Viewed from different perspectives,
subjective well being is therefore still determined by the interaction between the individual and her personal surroundings.

1.36 MODELS OF WELL BEING

As subjective well-being is an abstract and multidimensional concept that has numerous definitions and assumptions, various approaches and models have been developed to incorporate these diverse aspects. The following are models that have been looked at in order to gain the best understanding of the factors that influence well-being. Research has indicated that multi factorial clarifications better enhance knowledge about subjective well being than what single factor explanations do.

According to Adams, Adams, Bezner & Steinhardt, 1997) perceived wellness as a multidimensional affective construct and their Wellness Model consists of six dimensions, based on the strength of theoretical support and the quality of experiential evidence supporting each dimension. The views in this model link up well with Dunn’s (1961) definition of wellness, which defines wellness as being adjusted towards making the most of individual capabilities and potential aptitudes.

Figure 1.2   Model of Wellness
Wellness

![Model of Wellness Diagram]
The six dimensions of this wellness model are:

**Physical wellness**, which is a positive perception and expectation of physical health.

**Spiritual wellness**, which is a belief in an unifying force between mind and body.

**Psychological wellness**, which can be defined as a general perception that one will experience positive outcomes to the events and circumstances of life.

**Social wellness**, which has been defined as the perception of having support available from family and friends in times of need and the perception of being a valued support provider.

**Emotional wellness**, which is defined as having a secure self identity and a positive sense of self regard, both of these contributing to self esteem.

**Intellectual wellness**, which is the perception of being internally energized by an optimal amount of intellectually stimulating activity (Adams et al. 1997).

### 1.37 Ryff’s (1989) model of well-being

The convergence of numerous framework of positive functioning serves as the theoretical foundation that produced a multidimensional model of well-being (Ryff 1989, Ryff & Keyes, 1995). This model consists of six distinct dimensions of positive psychological functioning which encompasses a breadth of wellness.

The six components that comprise the model of (Ryff 1989) are:

**Self-Acceptance**, which can be defined as positive evaluations of oneself and one’s past life, accepting oneself and one’s personal situation are regarded as the best guarantee for wellness (Sastre, 1999).

**Positive relation with others**, which refers to the possession of quality relations with others and having rewarding relationship with others.

**Autonomy**, which can be defined as a sense of self determination. This is simplified as independence and the ability to regulate behaviour. Therefore, the individual can conduct self-evaluation, minimizing the need for the approval of others.

**Environmental Mastery**, which is the capacity to manage effectively one’s life and surrounding world. This include choosing and creating environments suitable to
personal psychological conditions. Ryff (1989) emphasizes the importance of being involved in activities outside of the self, which may lead to environmental mastery.

**Purpose in life**, which can be defined as the belief that one’s life is purposeful and meaningful. It is of great importance that clear comprehension of life’s purpose, a sense of directedness and intentionality is gained.

**Personal Growth**, which is a sense of continued growth and development as a person, psychological wellness requires developing your full potential, growing and expanding as a person.

1.38 Integrated stress and coping model of Moos and Schaefer (1993)

The basic assumption of this model hypothesizes that personal and environmental stressors and resources, together with the life crises and transitions experienced by the individual, combine to form the cognitive appraisal and coping skill that establish the health and well-being of the individual.

**Figure – 1.3  Stress and Coping Model**
The stress and coping model consists of 5 panels, which are bidirectional:

**Personal System**, which consists of personal stressors and resources of panel-1. Hope and self esteem as well as the lack of hope and self esteem are examples of stressors and resources. This is a relatively stable disposition that affects the selection of appraisal and coping processes, which influence the cumulative outcome.

Social support, health and financial factors all form part of panel-2, **contextual stressors and resources**. These are important determinants of the health and well being of the individual. Examples of this could be economic stability, unemployment, famine relationships with significant others, support from others, availability of information.

Panel – 3 **Life transitions and life crises** which include developmental processes and traumas, all from an interactive part as the specific stage of development determines eventual health and well-being.

**Coping style and coping resources**, such as positive appraisal, cognitive distortions and coping strategies form part of panel -4

Panel 5, **health and well-being**, which concludes the positive health and well-being outcomes (Moos & Schaefer, 1993)

From the aforementioned discussion it can be deduced that wellbeing is influenced by numerous factors. However, there are main themes that come across most of the models, highlighting the cognitive and affective components of subjective well-being. It is clear from the different models that subjective wellbeing has a cognitive component as mentioned by the wellness model(intellectual wellness), the wheel of wellness (self regulation and work) Ryffs, model (self acceptance and autonomy) and Moos and Schaefer(coping style and resources) as well as affective component, which is also described by the wellness model (Emotional wellness and spiritual wellness), the wheel of wellness (friendships and love) Ryffs model (positive relationship with others and purpose in life) and Moos and Schaefer (personal system). What stems from all these models is the complexity of subjective well being and how it is influenced by numerous factors, ranging from personal evaluations,
relationships with others as well as resources to mastering the environment. It is important to note that changes in one sphere influence what happens in other sphere.

Subjective well being is thus, determined by personal judgements of the individuals internal experiences. An external frame of reference is not imposed when assessing subjective wellbeing. In addition subjective wellbeing focuses on longer term states, not just momentary moods. Often what leads to momentary happiness may not be the same as what produces long term subjective wellbeing.(Ryff & Singer, 2002)

1.4 Social factors

1.41 Family Satisfaction

As we all know that the college years are a time of significant exploration and development of individuals (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Individuals are attending college at a time when they are subsequently in the process of developing autonomy, competence, and identity (Chickering, 1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993). It is a time when individuals begin to formulate their identity and gain a greater sense of their selves. One aspect of their identity development is that of their career. The college experience provides students with the opportunity to help develop and prepare for their careers and futures. Presumably, many college students will be faced with challenging decisions regarding their career development during college and thereafter. Young adulthood is typically a crucial time for career decision-making and development (Whiston, & Keller, 2004). It is a time when there is the potential for certain factors and variables to either enhance or detract from college students’ experience, particularly with regards to their career development. It may be imperative to examine the relational influences on the career factors of these individuals (Schultheiss, 2003; Splete, & Freeman-George, 1985). With regards to these relational influences on career development, establishing the influence of the family may be imperative to better understanding the intricacies of career development (Vondracek, Lerner, & Schulenberg, 1986). Families, parents in particular, may play a major role in the occupational and career aspirations of their children.
Until recently, career practitioners working with college students often focused on a single client rather than exploring how the context (e.g., families) of one’s environment impacted career planning and the overall career development process (Paniagua, 1996). In addition to the family systems literature, which conceptualizes an individual being interconnected with other family members to produce a functional whole, postmodern career theorists have developed theoretical frameworks to predict how family roles and related factors influence career paths (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996). For example, home represents the first workplace (e.g., chores) and young adults commonly follow in their parents’ footsteps, whether that results in taking over the family business or adding to a family’s generation of doctors or lawyers (Evans & Rotter, 2000).

Agarwala (2008) found that the most significant influence on the career choice of Indian students was the father. Likewise, parent’s perceptions of their children’s interests and abilities and their specific expectations for their child’s success can influence choices, beliefs, and career actions. Similarly, because college students typically seek approval and family support regarding specific career decisions, these students will likely experience a struggle if their career decision does not align with familial expectations. It should also be noted that individuals expressing inadequate emotional support from their families are more indecisive when making career decisions.

1.42 Theoretical approach

The cognitive information processing (CIP) theory represents a theoretical and empirical approach that can be used to explicitly examine how families may positively and/or negatively influence career behaviors related to problem-solving and decision-making. Parrillo (2008) showed that attachment theory and CIP theory converge on the belief that an individual’s perceptions and thoughts are the foundation for behavioral and emotional responses to experiences. More specifically, CIP theory terms any thoughts which have an adverse effect on career decision-making abilities as dysfunctional career thoughts and (Sampson, Reardon, Peterson, & Lenz, 2004; Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon, & Saunders, 1996) further contends that these thoughts stem from a maladaptive career schema (Sampson et al., 1996). External conflict, a specific domain of dysfunctional career thoughts, describes the
struggle an individual experiences when attempting to balance his or her career decision-making ideas with that of his or her family (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon, & Saunders, 1996b). Other aspects of external conflict include the inability to constructively apply significant others’ feedback and the deference of one’s career decision to the notions of significant others.

Several research studies have been conducted which link CIP and familial factors in career decision making. For example, research shows that individuals with more secure attachment styles had less maladaptive career thoughts, and individuals with higher levels of attachment avoidance showed higher levels of external conflict (Van Ecke, 2007). Also, those high school students who believed their parents respected them and were proud of them had lower levels of dysfunctional career thoughts (Parrillo, 2008). Level of familial conflict is also related to maladaptive career thinking (Parrillo, 2008; Dodge, 2001). Dodge (2001) contends that less family conflict allows for college students to autonomously make decisions while assertively managing parental feedback. Finally, social support (i.e. parents and family) has been shown to affect the career thoughts of collegiate athletes by 13% (Rodriguez, S. 2009).

1.43 Psycho-analytic Theory

Family influence on career choice may also manifest itself unconsciously. According to psychoanalytic theory, familial heritage plays a significant role in occupational choice. Individuals will tend to choose an occupation that enables them to satisfy needs that were unfulfilled in their childhood, and actualize dreams passed on to them by their family. For example, in his psychoanalytic analysis of successful business leaders, Kets de Vries (1995) suggested that many successful managers embark upon their careers in order to compensate for the absence, either physical or psychological, of their fathers during childhood. “The desire to be a manager expresses a desire to become one’s own father. It means raising yourself again the right way with total control of your life.

According to Brown (2002), family or group influence impact both the decision making process and the career an individual chooses. Research by Corcoran and Courant (1987) demonstrated that the degree to which a mother’s occupation and
industry were stereotypically “female” was positively related to the extent to which her daughter chose an occupation that was similarly sex-typed. This type of familial influence may be even stronger for individuals in collectivist cultures. In such cultures, respect for and obedience to one’s parents is often a highly prioritized value (Lee, 1991) and the attitudes and values of family members may be the primary determinant of an individual’s choice of career (Sue & Sue, 1990, Yagi & Oh, 1995).

1.44 Socio-economic-status

The human being, through his life, is continuously involved in decision making or a selection process from available or created options. Decision making is making a kind of trade off, because a most suitable option of an alternative that perfectly satisfies all the appropriate criteria is rarely given.

The socio economic status (SES) is an important determinant of health and nutritional status as well as of mortality and morbidity. Socioeconomic status also influences the accessibility, affordability, acceptability and actual utilization of various available health facilities.

Student decision making has attracted the attention of research in the last two decades, particularly concerning education and career choices. As a result of economic rationalism, students have become autonomous choosers (Peters & Marshall, 1996) who make decisions about whether to enroll in tertiary studies, which course to enroll in, and which institution to attend.

James (1999) identifies that the ideology of student choice does not enable non traditional students to capture the necessary information needed to make qualified decisions. These studies have shown that decision making is not well described by economics models (Perna, 2000) and is not a rational, linear process as it is proclaimed to be (Tyler, 1998). Social and cultural capital need to be incorporated in econometrics models in order to increase their explanation of student’s decisions (Perna, 2000) since decision making is a complex nexus in which habitus, personal identity, life history, social and cultural contexts, action and learning are interrelated (Bloomer & Hodkinson, 1997: 46).

SES is itself a complex concept and it has been variously defined in different countries. Earlier definitions were restricted to the economic aspect and evaluated on
the basis of income levels. In the Indian context, the list of variables indicating SES, has subsequently been enlarged to incorporate a number of other factors which contribute to a person’s position along the continuum of socio-economic status e.g. parents’ education, Parents’ occupation, type of housing, Material Possessions etc. (Kuppuswamy, 1959; Srivastava, 1991; Kapoor & Singh, 1998)

Many research from different cultural contexts including the Indian environment has consistently revealed a strong relationship between socio-economic status (SES) and career preparation.

Several studies found that, parental social class, parental aspiration and parents educational level were all predictive of students aspiration as well as their educational and occupational attainment (Garg, Kauppi, Lewko and Urajnik, Koller and Baumert 2002).

Osipow (1985) observed that, higher socio-economic status not only provides the funds for more advanced education, but also has indirect effects on the attitudes than children have toward education. In short, socio-economic class plays a large role in the career development process, which may override ability, interest and personality variables.

Conflicting data exist regarding the influence of socio-economic variables on career development. Some researches (Crockett and Bingham, 2000; Mau and Bikos 2000; Techman and Pausch 1998) suggests that, both parent education and income influence career aspirations, whereas other researches (Hussler and Stage, 1992; Sarigiani, Wilson, Peterson and Vicary 1990; Wilson and Wilson, 1992) indicates only parent education is an influential variable. Rosewski and Kim (2003) reported socio-economic status had a considerable influence on determining both occupational aspirations and individual’s status after high school.

Kerka [2000] have studied the influence of family on children’s career choice and development. Much of this research has demonstrated links between career development and such factors as socio-economic status, parent’s educational and occupational attainment and cultural background. Family variables that have been shown to influence career aspirations include, the parents occupation (Trice 1991) and family size (Downey 1995; Majoribanks 1986; Schulenberg, Vondrucek and Crouther 1986). Father’s occupational status is highly
correlated with his son’s occupation (Blau 1992, Blau and Duncan, 1967; Conroy, 1997).

Osipow (1983) and Hotchkiss and Borow (1984) reviewed considerable research showing that factors such as socio-economic class, gender and race have a significant impact on what choices will be made. Research findings indicate a strong effect of father’s socio-economic class on the occupational choice and attainments of son (much more than of daughter). Some of this influence is direct, as in the case, where, a son inherits the family business. Another direct influence is seen in the rural or isolated areas with a single predominant employer. In such locations, there is a greater probability that sons will enter their father’s occupation. The indirect effects evident in parent’s socio-economic class on the educational opportunities and attainments of their children are of perhaps greatest importance.

According to Boatwright, Ching and Parr (1992), Mau and Bikos, (2000) each of these family variables and Socio-economic status has also been found to be insignificant in influencing career aspirations.

International research has consistently indicated that socio-economic factors play a significant role in the career development process. Review of Indian Research also brings out that, career development varies characteristically across socio-economic status groups. Indian society is characterized by many layers of socio-economic status and observations across these groups indicate that, key differences could exist between the career development needs of higher and lower SES groups.

Young people from lower SES groups seem to approach career choice and planning in a completely different manner when computed with middle and higher SES groups.

Yadav et. al, (2009) examine the mother’s educational status with self-concept of their children. The sample consisted of 150 students having different educational status. The results of the study showed that, the children of mother’s with high educational status have high self-concept as compared to children of mother’s with low educational status.

Arlumani (2006) reported in his survey (WORCC-IRS) that there is a significant difference between SES and career choice self-efficacy. The low SES
group shows high self-efficacy for vocational courses. The upper middle SES group shows significantly lower self-efficacy for vocational courses in comparison to their self-efficacy scores for science courses. He also indicated that, different SES groups face different Career decision making difficulties. The most significant difficulty seems to be associated with the absence of clear and consistent information and uncertainty in skills to make careers related commitments.

All SES groups experience difficulties with readiness for career decision making and lack of information. Resources available to upper middle SES groups however help to overcome the difficulties to some extent. But, for the low SES group, the difficulties are substantially compounded due to the perception that the little information that does become available is unreliable and inconsistent.

The levels of education within the family create the psychological orientation necessary for career planning and development. Parents who have experienced the benefits of education, are more likely to want the same for their children.

Arulmani, Van Laar and Easton (2001) interacted with 755 high school boys. They observed that, two specific types of parental influence operated on children’s career development e.g. Parental education and parent’s employment. Researchers found that, the percentage of students intending to study further, decreased with parent education. The largest percentage of students who had no career plans had parents who were illiterate. Students whose parents’ employment was uncertain, expressed their intention to forego further education and begin working immediately. Conversely, almost all students who expressed their intention to study further and prepare systematically for a career, had parents who were comfortably employed.

An important finding from the WORCC-IRS data is with regards to parental support for education, as against their approval for taking up a job without formal qualifications. It is clear that the higher SES groups in this sample lay an almost exclusive emphasis on further education for boys and girls. Seeking employment before education is an option that is almost not considered by this section of the sample. SES group seem to be firm and definite about what they want their sons to study. A large number of boys in the upper middle groups indicated that, parental approval is strongest for the Sciences. Markedly, lower support is in evidence for
other subject combinations such as, the Humanities, Commerce or Vocational courses.

Arulmani & Nag-Arulmani (2001-2002) reported that, the impact of career beliefs on the career development process within the Indian situation was marked and critical. Beliefs and thinking patterns about Career planning and development differ quiet markedly between low and high Socio-economic status groups. Career beliefs held by the lower SES groups are more negative than higher SES groups.

Arulmani & Nag-Arulmani (1996, 1998) gathered information from 12,568 Indian young people regarding the importance students place on choosing a career and activities related to career planning. The participants were divided into five SES groups. It was found that, middle classes placed the highest value on career planning, while both the lower and higher SES groups placed a relatively lower importance on career planning.

More boys than girls rates Sciences at the highest level of interest. This trend persists across SES groups. A significantly large number of boys in the upper middle group clearly perceived that, their parents would expect them to take up Science courses. Arulmani also noted that, prestige hierarchy for subject choices is different for different classes:

For the middle SES groups the prestige hierarchy for subject choices is Science, followed by Commerce, Vocational courses and Arts. For the low SES groups the hierarchy is Science with Vocational courses coming second. This is followed by Commerce with Arts coming last. For the high-income groups the prestige hierarchy is Science, followed by Commerce. Arts come next and Vocational courses are placed at the lowest level of prestige.